CENTRE FOR DISTANCE & ONLINE EDUCATION

UNIVERSITY OF JAMMU JAMMU



SELF LEARNING MATERIAL For B.ED. SEMESTER - I

Paper: Educational Planning & Management

Unit I - IV

Lesson No. 1-16

Programme Coordinator Dr. Jaspal Singh Warwal

jaspaljammuuniversity@yahoo.com

http:/www.distanceeducationju.in

Course No. 104

Printed and Published on behalf of the Centre for Distance & Online Education, University of Jammu, Jammu by the Director, CD&OE, University of Jammu, Jammu.

Educational Planning and Management

Course Contributors

- Prof. Amit Kauts
 Head & Dean, Department
 of Education, Guru Nanak Dev
 University, Amritsar (Pb.)
- Prof. J.N. Baliya
 Department of Educational Studies,
 Central University of Jammu

Format Editing

Dr. Jaspal Singh Warwal CD&OE, University of Jammu Jammu

© Centre for Distance & Online Education, University of Jammu, 2025

- All rights reserved. No part of this work may be reproduced in any form, by mimeograph or any other means, without permission in writing from the CD&OE, University of Jammu.
- The script writer shall be responsible for the lesson / script submitted to the CD&OE and any plagiarism shall be his/her entire responsibility.

• Printed by: Khajuria Printers / 25 / 500 Books

Bachelor of Education (B. Ed.) through Open and Distance Learning (ODL) Semester -I

(For the examination to held in the year 2024, 2025 & 2026)

Course no. 104 (Theory)

Title: Educational Planning and Management

Credits 4 Total Marks: 100

Maximum Marks Internal: 30 Maximum Marks External: 70

Duration of Exam: 3 hrs.

Course Objectives

To enable the pupil teachers to:

- know and Understand the Educational Management & organizational set up and the contribution in its role.
- Know and Understand the different Management approaches to deal with the Educational Management.
- Know and Understand the Budget aspects of the Institutional Budget regarding the Investment and the Expenditure.
- be skillful in organizing various human Resource Management Program for the Awareness as well as to Coordinate with the agencies.

UNIT I

Educational Management and the leadership, Differentiation features between the Educational Management & Leadership; Guidelines for the Leadership; The Importance of the Leadership & Management for Education, Leadership theory- Distributed and the Trans formal theory; Modern trends in Educational Management 1) Decision Making ii) Organizational Compliance iii) Organizational Development iv) PERT

UNIT II

Approaches to Educational Management -Principles, Adoptability and Limitation is the Indian Educational set ups

- i) Trait Based ii) Behaviour Based iii) Situational Based Approach iv) Contingency Approach
- v) WICS Model

UNIT III

TOM in Educational Organization

Concept of Resources -Human &Material; Management of time - Importance of Time schedule for the teacher, Preparation of the daily, Weekly and Monthly diaries - aspects, principles and usefulness; Yearly

& Monthly plans for the Institutional working .

Management of the Physical Resources -School Building, Library, Labs Hostels and the playgrounds.

Management of the Human Resources - Interpersonal & Intergroup Relations (Needs & principles) Teacher Taught relationship; Relationship with the Head, Administrator,

Concept of TQM in educations and the implications of its for the stakeholders of the Education.

UNIT IV

Micro planning and the budget

Concept of the Micro and Macro planning, Institutional planning - Cluster Resource Centres and the Block Resource Centres.

School mapping Need & Factors -Developing and Monitor the Budget of the Educational Institution-Issues and principles of Making the Budget ,Resources & Financing of Education, relationship between the productivity& Efficiency, Concept of Cost analysis.

Sessional Work

To organize the Parents Teachers Meet in the Educational Institutional and partake in its deliberations. To be an active participant in the community services organised by the educational institutional and also invite the participation of the educational Institutions in organizing the resources like sharing the Resources - Books, Library, Computer lab for those who are deprived of these facilities. Organising Camps and inviting the social intellectuals in the Govt. aided institutions for the funding and awareness purposes. Must activity of every student teacher to organize the Awareness camp on any important Social National Issues like female Feticide, Gender Discrimination, Population Awareness, Religious Tolerance, Save Energy and Water etc. (Topics can be further Added on). To Be an active member of the local Finance Audit team and the contribution to it in its management.

Note for Paper Setters

The Question paper consists of 9 questions having Q. No. 1 as Compulsory having four parts spread over the entire Syllabus, with a weightage of 14 marks .The rest of Question paper is divided into four Units and the students are to attend four Questions from these units with the internal choice. The essay type Question carries 14 marks each. Unit IV having the sessional work/field work(section) could also be a part of the theory paper.

Internship/field work Unit IV having the components/activities of the internship are to be to be developed in the form of the Reflective Journal. All the activities under the internship are to be evaluated for credits and hence all the activities are to be showcased by the trainee and are to be fully recorded with the complete certification of its genuineness.

The Theory paper is to have 70 marks (external). 30 Marks are for the In House activities.

Books recommended

- Kochar, SK School Administration and Management (e book) available on Amamzon.in
- Economics of Education by Gara Latchanna & Hussein(2007)-Discovery Publishing House, New Delhi
- Economics of Education Baljeet Singh
- T S Sodhi Education & Economic Development (2004)-Vani Educational Books, New Delhi
- WICS Model: Sternberg, R., Bonney, C. R., Gabora, L., & Merrifield, M. (2012). WICS: A model for college and university admissions. Educational Psychologist, 47(1), 30-41.
- Approaches to Organization Theory: Lars Groth
- Source Materials for Educational Administration: Critiques Saxe, Richard W.,INSTITUTION Toledo Univ., Ohio. Coll. of Education.PUB Jan 69
- The Effect of School Closure on Principal Leadership Grant Lenarduzzi, Gonzaga University, Spokane, Washington, Journal Of Authentic leadership In Education, Volume 3, Number 1(2013)

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT CONTENTS

Unit No.	Lesson No.	Title	Lesson Writer	Page No.
Unit-I	Lesson No. 1	Educational Management and Leadership: Differentiation and Features	Prof. Amit Kauts Head & Dean Deptt. of Education Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar (Punjab)	1-13
	Lesson No. 2	Leadership: Guidelines for the Leadership, Importance of Leadership and Management for Education	Prof. Amit Kauts Head & Dean Deptt. of Education Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar (Punjab)	14-23
	Lesson No. 3	Theories of Leadership Distributed and Transformational Theory	Prof. Amit Kauts Head & Dean Deptt. of Education Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar (Punjab)	24-38
	Lesson No. 4	Modern Trends in Educational Management i) Decision Making ii) Organisational Compliance iii) Organisational Development iv) PERT	Prof. Amit Kauts Head & Dean Deptt. of Education Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar (Punjab)	39-52
Unit-II	Lesson No. 5	Approaches to Educational Management - Trait Based and Behaviour Based Approaches to Educational Management : Principles, Adaptability and Limitations in Indian Educational set up	Dr. J.N. Baliya Deptt. of Educational Studies, Central University of Jammu	53-63

Unit No.	Lesson No.	Title	Lesson Writer	Page No.
	Lesson No. 6	Situational Based Approach to Educational Management : Principles, Adaptability and limitations in Indian Educational Set up	Dr. J.N. Baliya Deptt. of Educational Studies, Central University of Jammu	64-73
	Lesson No. 7	Contingency Approach to Educational Management: Principles, Adaptability and Limitations in Indian Educational Set up	Dr. J.N. Baliya Deptt. of Educational Studies Central University of Jammu	74-82
	Lesson No. 8	WICS Model	Dr. J.N. Baliya Deptt. of Educational Studies, Central University of Jammu	83-92
Unit-III	Lesson No. 9	Concept of Resources -Human & Material; Management of Time- Importance of Time Schedule for the Teacher, Preparation of the Daily, Weekly and Monthly Diaries- Aspects, Principles and Usefulness; Yearly & Monthly Plans for the Institutional Working	Dr. J.N. Baliya Deptt. of Educational, Studies Central University of Jammu	93-108
	Lesson No. 10	Management of the Physical Resources - School Building, Library, Laboratories, Hostels and the Playgrounds	Dr. J.N. Baliya Deptt. of Educational Studies, Central University of Jammu	109-121
	Lesson No. 11	Management of the Human Resources- Interpersonal and	Dr. J.N. Baliya Deptt. of	122-135

Unit No.	Lesson No.	Title	Lesson Writer	Page No.
		Intergroup Relations(Need & Principles), Teacher - Taught Relationship, Relationship with Head and Administrator	Educational Studies, Central University of Jammu	
	Lesson No.12	Concept of TQM in Education and Its Implications for the Stakeholders of the Education	Dr. J.N. Baliya Deptt. of Educational Studies, Central University of Jammu	136-147
Unit-IV	Lesson No. 13	Concept of Micro and Macro Planning, Institutional Planning - Cluster Resource Centres and Block Resource Centres	Prof. Amit Kauts Head & Dean Deptt. of Education Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar (Punjab)	148-160
	Lesson No. 14	School Mapping need and Factors. Developing and monitoring the Budget of the Educational Institutions Issues and principles of making the budget	Prof. Amit Kauts Head & Dean Deptt. of Education Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar (Punjab)	161-173
	Lesson No.15	Resources and Financing of Education, Relationship Between the Productivity and Efficiency	Prof. Amit Kauts Head & Dean Deptt. of Education Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar (Punjab)	174-182
	Lesson No. 16	Cost - Analysis in Education	Prof. Amit Kauts Head & Dean Deptt. of Education Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar (Punjab)	183-194

Lesson No. 1 Unit-I

EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP: DIFFERENTIATION AND FEATURES

STRUCTURE

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 Objectives
- 1.3 Definition and Concept of Educational Management-
 - chief constituents of educational management
 - skills of educational management
 - Types of educational management
- 1.4 Definition and Concept of Educational Leadership
 - Leadership roles
 - features of educational leadership
- 1.5 Leadership and Management- Relationship
- 1.6 Difference Between Leadership and Management
- 1.7 Let Us Sum Up
- 1.8 Lesson End Exercise
- 1.9 Suggested Further Readings
- 1.10 Answer to Check Your Progress

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Success of organisations depend on leaders. Obviously, Institutions constantly look for effective leaders and they are not easily come by. Shortage of effective leadership is not confined to education field, but is evident in the lack of able administrators in business, government, hospitals and in other forms of organisations. In this lesson, we will focus on concept of educational management and leadership, relationship and difference between leadership and management.

1.2 **OBJECTIVES**

After reading this lesson, you shall be able to:

- Explain the concept of educational management and leadership.
- Discuss features of educational management and educational leadership.
- Describe relationship between educational management and educational leadership.
- Differentiate between leadership and management.

1.3 DEFINITION AND CONCEPT OF EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

Definition

Management is a process of planning, organising, coordinating, directing and controlling the activities of others. Manager-ship is the authority to carry out these functions. Manager-ship is a management tool with which managers can influence the behaviour of employees. Educational management is the theory and practice of the organization and administration of existing educational establishments and systems. Educational management, as a body of educational principles, includes a number of doctrines and guidelines relating chiefly to the technique of classroom system, and originates fundamentally from the practice of effective teachers. Educational management is a comprehensive effort dealing with the educational practices. It is the dynamic side of education. It deals with educational institutions – right from the schools and colleges to the institutes of higher learning, governing bodies, ministries and secretariat. It is concerned with both human and material resources. The human elements include: students, parents, teachers, and society. Marks Parker defines management as the art of getting things through the people. In words of Harold Koontz and Cyril O Donnel, "Management is the art of getting things through the people in formally organised groups. It is art of creating an environment in which people can perform as individuals and yet co-operates towards attainment of goals. It is art of removing obstacles or blocks to such performance, a way of optimizing efficiency in reaching goals."

Constituents of Educational Management

The following are the chief constituents of educational management:—

- 1. Educational Planning: Educational planning can be defined as 'the process of setting out in advance, strategies, policies, procedures, programmes and standards through which an educational objective (or set of objectives) can be achieved'.
- 2. Educational Organization: It refers to how an institution arranges the resources of time, space, and maximum personnel for maximum effect on benefits of learners.
- 3. Educational Controlling:Control in educational management means setting criteria, assessing actual performance and also to have correct action.
- 4. Educational Supervision: Educational supervision is an effort to make sure the educational institution to operate efficiently and within the legal requirements and rules.

Skills of management

Harold Koontz and Weihrich added following skills of management:

- 1. Technical skills: Technical skills comprise the knowledge and capabilities to perform specialized tasks related to a specific field.
- 2. Human skills: These skills involve communication and attention to relationships with others. While human skills are important, Management theorist Daniel Katz recognizes that they can't stand alone. He partners them with conceptual skills and technical skills.
- 3. Conceptual skills: Conceptual skills allow a manager to visualize the entire organization and work with ideas and the relationships between abstract concepts.

Types of Educational Management

- Human resources: Human Resources of an institution comprise the whole staff, i.e. both teaching
 and non-teaching management, parents etc. Management of human resources is of vital importance
 at present and calls for selection, recruitment, appointment, hire, retention, development and
 motivation of the personnel to achieve the educational objectives.
- Physical resources: Buildings, playgrounds, equipment, furniture, machineries and stationeries etc. available in an institution are considered as physical resources.
- Ideational resources: The resources which are mostly based on ideas and ideals, heritage, image are the curriculum, methods of teaching, innovations and experiments.

Features of educational management

***** Forecasting:

It is a systematic assessment of future conditions by collecting all sorts of information about the present position of the system, its present and expected resources and trying to form a picture in terms of the accepted Philosophy in a particular country to arrive at a fruitful forecast.

Decision-making:

Decision-making is a key factor in educational management as here we have to think of generations which will be affected by the policies decided. Having considered various alternative and consequence of each course of action, a suitable course of action must be determined. Guess work, arbitrary exercise of authority, ill-considered hasty decisions should have no place in educational management. The following points must be borne in mind while deciding that the:

- (a) Course of actions should be simple and easily understood by all concerned;
- (b) Standards for targets must be laid down; and
- (c) Goal must be clear.

Planning:

The plan should be flexible. The very existence of variables and uncertainties make decision-making and planning a necessity. There should be enough scope of change to cater for any unforeseen situations. There are many variables - the priorities may change due to unforeseen circumstances; equipment and grants may not become available as expected; personnel may be posted out or they may proceed on leave; all these variable contributing to the non-implementation of decisions.

Organization:

It is the combination of necessary human effort, material equipments in systematic and effective correlation to accomplish the desired results. Under educational administration, we organize:

- (a) Ideas and principles into school systems, curricular and co-curricular activities, time schedules, norms of achievement and the like;
- (b) Human beings into schools, classes, committees, groups, school staff, the inspecting staff.
- (c) Material into buildings, furniture and equipment, libraries, laboratories, workshops, museums and art galleries.

***** Motivation :

Involvement in deciding policies and plans help in motivation. The term motivation aims to make the man to be cheerfully willing to do the job we want him to do. Face to face communication is quite useful if organization members are to be motivated to do their best. Communication, down, up and across is also of great importance to the motivation of organization members.

Control:

Effective control is an important element in educational administration. The administrator must constantly check on his terms and his own performance vis-a-vis the standards lay down. He needs to take corrective action to the form of adjustments to the physical environment of work, modification and addition of materials and methods or abilities and motivation review of the personnel in terms of their spirits.

***** Cooperation :

It is required of all the elements the persons, material and ideas, knowledge and principles and so to interweave them as to achieve a common objective and a single effect. The administration should look into the: (a) relations among people, (b) allocation of tasks, and (c) division of labour.

& Evaluation:

Evaluation is a good way to find out the success or failure of a project. Good measures are required to find out the reasons why it failed or succeeded, which steps in the process were most successful, what should have been done to improve the action and what should be done differently at the next trial.

A Recording and reporting:

Recording and reporting are essential elements of educational management which is answerable to the

parents, the higher authorities, the society etc.

Supervision:

The purpose of supervision is to bring about a continuing improvement in the instructional programme. Management executes, directs; supervision advises, stimulates, explains, leads, guides and assists; both diagnose, both inspect, but management decides and orders execution, while supervision helps to decide and assist in improving instruction.

Hence educational management in broader perspective says about:

- (i) Setting directions, aims of objectives of educational organisations or institutions.
- (ii) Planning for progress of the programme.
- (iii) Organising available resources—People, time, material.
- (iv) Controlling the implementing process.
- (v) Setting and improving organisational standards.

In the light of above discussion on the meaning of management in education it implies the practical measures to activate the system of work will be the best possible assistance or measures in achieving the goals or objectives in a wider extent bearing the best possible value to the students and the society in a grand scale.

Check Your Progress - I Note: (a) Answer the questions given below. (b) Compare your answers with those given at the end of the lesson Management is the art of getting things through the people in formally organised 1. A) Groups Plans B) activities C) D) All of the above. Which of the following is not constituent of educational management: A) Educational planning B) Educational technology C) Educational controlling D) Educational supervision β. Technical skills comprise: (a) The knowledge and capabilities to perform specialized tasks related to a specific field. (b) The knowledge and capabilities to perform generalized tasks related to all fields. The knowledge and capabilities to perform supernatural tasks related to all fields. (c) (d) None of the above 4. The development and application of employees' skills and energies to accomplish the Goals and objectives of an organization is called: (a) human resource management (b) Human resource planning (c) Recruiting (d) Selecting 5. Ideational resources are related to: (a) Ideas (b) Materials

(c) Physical infrastructure

(d) All of these

1.4 DEFINITIONS AND CONCEPT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Good leaders are made, not born. If you have the willpower, you can become an effective leader. Good leaders grow through a never ending process of self-study, education, training, and experience. Inspire your workers into higher levels of teamwork, there are certain things you must know, and, do. These do not often come naturally, but are acquired through continual work and study. Good leaders are continually working and studying to improve their leadership skills; they are not resting on their past laurels.

According to Andrew, some view leadership as the personal relationship between the individual and the group; others as the process of striving toward common goals and values; still others, as aspects of behaviour, whether desired and in control of the individual or, alternatively, reactive and driven by forces in the environment

According to Michael S. Kearns, "Leadership is a purposeful relationship, which occurs episodically among participants, who use their individual skills in influence, to advocate transforming change."

In the words of Koontz O' Donnell, "Leadership is the ability to exert interpersonal influence by means of communication towards the achievement of a goal."

Chakraborty defines leadership as the achievement of some goal through others; it is goal directed community development.

Leadership roles:

In the field of education, Townsend (1999), after a study of several definitions of educational leadership, has come up with six leadership roles that keep recurring:

These are:

- 1. A visionary role, the role of developing the school' broad philosophy and mission to meet community goals,
- 2. An educational leadership role, guiding the achievement of core school objectives,
- 3. A supervisory role of leading teachers to achieve the objectives,
- 4. An organisational role of developing a supportive school structure and climate,
- 5. An administrative role of maintaining the school on a daily basis over time, and
- 6. A team leadership role of cooperating with and leading teachers and other staff.

Features of leadership

Stogdill says, "Leadership is consistent with problems of human performance and interactions." He suggested that it is the function of the leader to maintain group structure and goal direction and to reconcile conflicting demands arising outside the group.

Herbert G. Hicks refers to the following as the common leadership features:

- 1. Arbitrating: Often members disagree on the best decision for an organizational matter. An effective leader often will resolve such disagreement by arbitrating on making the decision on the course of action to be taken.
- 2. Suggesting: Suggestions are often employed by an adroit leader for a long-term. Suggestion is likely to be a powerful tool in the manager's kit.
- 3. Fixing objectives: A manager often personally fixes the objectives for his organization. He must see to it that the organization has always specific and suitable objectives before it.
- 4. Catalysing: In organizations some force is required to start or accelerate their movement. A leader is expected to be a catalyser and provide such a force.
- 5. Providing security: In organizations the personal security of followers is very important. A true leader can provide a large measure of security by maintaining a positive and optimistic attitude towards them even in the face of adversities.
- 6. Representing: A leader is usually treated as the representative of his organization.
- 7. Praising: Managers can help to satisfy the needs of their assistants and many persons work more productively in organizations when their leader sincerely praising them for the work they do.

Check Your Progress - 2

Note: (a) Answer the question given below.

- (b) Compare your answer with those given at the end of the lesson.
- 1. Leadership is:
- A) the process of influencing a group towards the achievement of goals
- B) a group that achieves goal
- C) the function of influencing groups towards achievement of goals
- D) directing a group towards achievement of the goals
- 2. A Leader:
- A) orders without any reason
- B) motivates and inspires
- C) does not know needs of his group
- D) all of above
- 3. Features of leadership are:
- A) Catalysing
- B) Praising
- C) Suggesting
- D) all of above

- 4. Leadership roles that keeps recurring:
- A) visionary
- B) Supervisory
- C) both A and B
- D) none of above

1.5 LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT - RELATIONSHIP

Leadership and management are the terms that are often considered synonymous. It is essential to understand that leadership is an essential part of effective management. Management and leadership, these two terms are often used interchangeably; management is more usually viewed as getting things done through other people in order to achieve organizational goals. The managers may react to specific situations and more concerned with short term problem solving. Management is regarded as related to people working in a structured organization and with prescribed roles. The emphasis of leadership is on interpersonal behaviour in a broader sense. There is a clear implication that leadership is not part of the job but quality that can be brought to a job. The work that leadership encompasses in the context clearly is not assigned but comes about spontaneously. Leadership is one of the many assets of a successful manager which they must have. A leader can be a manager but it is not necessary that a manager must be a leader. The most important aim of a manager is to maximize the organizational output through managerial performance. But leader always seeks new possibilities and understand new possibilities in organization. Most of the workgroups are more loyal to leaders than managers. According to John P. Kotter, "All the managers must know that how to lead as well as manage. Because in this era, organizations may face the threat of loss if their managers do not know how to lead as well as manage." Organizations hire managers and give formal authority to manage people and other activities to fulfil organizational goals. Employees gladly follow the leaders because they want to, not because they have to. Leaders may not have the power to give rewards to the people. However, employees give power to the leaders by fulfilling what they want. On the other hand, managers may rely on formal authority to get employees to complete goals. Management, by its very nature, is challenging, precise, detailed and involves specific and usually, timed, actions. Leadership, on the other hand, requires a much broader sense and involves aligning, goal-setting, vision-sharing, inspiration and an inherent lack of any time criticality. Good management includes aspects of good leadership and good leadership includes aspects of good management. A leader devoid of management skill and a manager lacking any leadership capability will each fail. From my point of view, management is a science and can be learned. Leadership, however, is an art. While some of the capabilities necessary to being a great leader can be acquired over time, much of what makes terrific leaders great is inborn or, at the very least, was learned much earlier in life. A successful organisation cannot exist without both strong leadership and great management. Over time, an organization will need to expand its team of managers to keep up with its increasing number of deliverables. The leadership team, however, will grow at a much slower rate or, perhaps, not at all. Too many leaders, like too many chefs, will really foul things up. Despite a continuing debate on differences

between management and leadership, there is a close relationship between them and it is not easy to separate them as distinct activities.

Check Your Progress - 3

Note: (a) Answer the questions given below.

- (b) Compare your answer with the above sub-section.
- 1. Good management includes aspects of
 - A) Leadership
 - B) command
 - C) finance
 - D) none of above
- 2. Leadership is an
 - A) Art
 - B) Painting
 - C) Drawing
 - D) Creation

1.6 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT

Leadership differs from management in a sense that:

- 1. While managers lay down the structure and delegates authority and responsibility, leaders provides direction by developing the organizational vision and communicating it to the employees and inspiring them to achieve it.
- 2. While management includes focus on planning, organizing, staffing, directing and controlling; leadership is mainly a part of directing function of management. Leaders focus on listening, building relationships, teamwork, inspiring, motivating and persuading the followers.
- 3. While a leader gets his authority from his followers, a manager gets his authority by virtue of his position in the organization.
- 4. While managers follow the organization's policies and procedure, the leaders follow their own instinct.
- 5. Management is more of science as the managers are exact, planned, standard, logical and more of mind. Leadership, on the other hand, is an art. In an organization, if the managers are required, then leaders are must/essential.

- 6. While management deals with the technical dimension in an organization or the job content; leadership deals with the people aspect in an organization.
- 7. While management measures/evaluates people by their name, past records, present performance; leadership sees and evaluates individuals as having potential for things that can't be measured, i.e., it deals with future and the performance of people if their potential is fully extracted.
- 8. If management is reactive, leadership is proactive.
- 9. Management is based more on written communication, while leadership is based more on verbal communication.

The following table explains the differences between leadership and management;

	Leadership	Management
Creating and Agenda	Establishes direction: Develops a vision and the strategies needed for its achievement	Plans and budgets: Establishes detailed steps and time table for achieving needed results; allocates necessary resources
Developing a Network for Achieving the Agenda	Involves aligning people: Communicates direction by words and deeds to all those whose cooperation may be needed to help create teams and coalitions that understand the vision and strategies, and accepts their validity.	Organizes and staffs: Establishes structure for achieving the plans; staffs; delegates responsibility and authority for implementation; develops policies and procedures to guide people; creates monitoring systems
Execution	Motivates and inspires: Energizes people to overcome major political, bureaucratic, and resource barriers to change by stasfying basic human needs.	Controls and solves problems: Monitors results against plans, and then plans and organizes to close the gap.
Outcomes	Produces change, often to a dramatic degree; has the potential of producing extremely useful change, such as new products desired by manager	Produces a degree of predictability and order: Has the potential to consistently produce key results expected by various stock holders (such as meeting deadlines for customers and paying dividends to stockholders)

Check your progress - 4

Note: (a) Answer the following questions

- (b) Check your answers with those given at the end of the lesson
- 1. Management includes focus on :
 - A) planning
 - B) organizing
 - C) Staffing
 - D) All of the above
- 2. Leadership is:
 - A) Proactive
 - B) Reactive
 - C) Both A and B
 - D) None of above.
- 3. Management is based more on :
 - A) Written communication
 - B) Verbal communication
 - C) None of above
 - D) All of the above

1.7 LET US SUM UP

This lesson has dealt with concept of the management and leadership. Leaders and managers require working with people. Leadership is concerned with effective goal accomplishment and so is management. In general, many of the functions of management and leadership activities are consistent with the definitions of leadership. Kotter (1990) argues that the functions of the two are quite dissimilar. The function of management is to provide order and consistency to organisations, whereas the primary function of leadership is to produce change and movement. Leaders are people who shape the goals, motivations, and actions of others. Frequently they initiate change to reach existing and new goals. Leadership takes much ingenuity, energy and skill. Managing is maintaining efficiently and effectively current organisational arrangements.

1.8 LESSON END EXERCISE

- 1) Define leadership.
- 2) What do you understand by educational management?

- 3) Discuss various features of leadership?
- 4) How management and leadership are related to each other?
- 5) Explain the differences between a leader and a manager?

1.9 SUGGESTED FURTHER READINGS

Adair, J.(1984) . Skills of Leadership. England: Gower Publishing Limited

Aswathappa, K. (2010). *Organisational behaviour: Text, cases & games*. New Delhi: Himalaya Publishing House

Bhatia, S.K. (2003). *Management of change and organisation development: Innovative approaches and strategies*. New Delhi: Deep & Deep publications

Koontz, H., & Weihrich, H. (2010). *Essentials of Management: An International Perspective*. New Delhi: Tata McGraw Hill Education Private Limited

1.10 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Check Your Progress - 1 1-A, 2-B, 3-A, 4-A

Check Your Progress - 2 1-2, 2-B, 3-D, 4-C, 5-A

Check Your Progress - 3 1-A, 2-D

Check Your Progress - 4 1-D, 2-A, 3-A

Lesson No. 2 Unit- I

LEADERSHIP : GUIDELINES FOR LEADERSHIP, IMPORTANCE OF LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT FOR EDUCATION

STRUCTURE

- 2.2 Objectives
- 2.3 Definition and Concept of Leadership
- 2.4 Characteristics of Leadership
- 2.5 Guidelines for Leadership
- 2.6 Importance of Leadership
- 2.7 Importance of Management for education
- 2.8 Let Us Sum Up
- 2.9 Lesson End Exercise
- 2.10 Suggested Further Readings
- 2.11 Answer to Check Your Progress

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous lesson, you have already studied about the concept of Educational Leadership and Educational Management & its difference. In the present lesson, you will study about the concept of leadership, its characteristics. You will also be able to know about the different points which you can undertake to become successful leader. Then you will come to know about importance of leadership and management for education.

2.2 **OBJECTIVES**

After reading this lesson, you shall be able to:

- Define leadership.
- Discuss the characteristics of leadership.
- Describe the importance of leadership.
- Discuss the guidelines of leadership.
- Explain the importance of leadership.

• Discuss the importance of management for education.

2.3 DEFINITION AND CONCEPT OF LEADERSHIP

"Good leaders must first become good servants"

- Robert Nader

Leadership is a process by which a person influences others to accomplish an objective and directs the organization in a way that makes it more cohesive and coherent. Leaders carry out this process by applying their leadership attributes, such as beliefs, values, ethics, character, knowledge, and skills. Leadership is a process by which an executive can direct, guide and influence the behavior and work of others towards accomplishment of specific goals in a given situation. Leadership is the ability of a manager to induce the subordinates to work with confidence and zeal. Leadership is the potential to influence behaviour of others. It is also defined as the capacity to influence a group towards the realization of a goal. Leaders are required to develop future visions, and to motivate the organizational members to want to achieve the visions. Leadership is an important element of the directing function of management. Wherever, there is an organized group of people working towards a common goal, some type of leadership becomes essential. Leadership is the ability to build up confidence and zeal among people and to create an urge in them to be led. To be a successful leader, a manager must possess the qualities of foresight, drive, initiative, self-confidence and personal integrity. Different situations may demand different types of leadership.

According to Hempill (1949), "Leadership may be defined as leader behaviour of an individual which he is involved in directing group activities."

According to Stodgill (1950), "Leadership may be considered as the process of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts towards goal setting and goal achievement."

According to Ilalpin (1956), "Leadership is a complex and social phenomenon that cannot be treated meaningfully apart from related situational fades."

According to Hollander (1978), "Leadership is a process of influence between a leader and those who are followers."

According to Ranch and Behling (1984), "Leadership is defined as the process of influencing the activities of an organized group towards goal achievements."

According to Kouzes and Posner (1990), "Leadership is a reciprocal process in that it occurs between people. It is not done by person to another. Successful leadership depends for more upon the follower's perception of the leader's abilities than upon the leader's our perceptions"

According to Northouse (2004), "Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal."

According to Michael S. Kearns (2005), "Leadership is a purposeful relationship, which occurs episodically among participants, who use their individual skills in influence, to advocate transforming change."

2.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF LEADERSHIP

- 1. It is an inter-personal process in which a manager is into influencing and guiding workers towards attainment of goals.
- 2. It denotes a few qualities to be present in a person who includes intelligence, maturity and personality.
- 3. It is a group process. It involves two or more people interacting with each other.
- 4. A leader is involved in shaping and moulding the behaviour of the group towards accomplishment of organizational goals.
- 5. Leadership is situation bound. There is no best style of leadership. It all depends upon tackling with the situations.

2.5 GUIDELINES FOR LEADERSHIP

Today's most-successful leaders didn't get that way by accident. They learned and applied the habits of great leadership. Becoming a successful leader requires more than just hard work. Truly outstanding leaders cause their passions and enthusiasm to set a charge into their organizations. Let your passion be a part of who you are as a leader. Lead with both your head and your heart. The following are some of the guidelines for leadership for becoming successful leaders:

- → Communication skills: You must learn how to get concepts and ideas across-accurately-to others; both subordinates and superiors. Workers deal with hardware, tools, and equipment; leaders deal with people, concepts, and ideas. Communicating those concepts and ideas to your people is much harder than most of us realize. Telling people what they need to know is one thing; getting across the idea they need to understand is likely to be a much higher order of achievement. The business of leadership is the transmission of ideas, and that is difficult. Most of our professional military education includes a number of written assignments for this reason. Leaders must be able to reduce good ideas to the precision of the written word. I hasten to add, however, that many effective leaders are not particularly articulate, yet still are able to get their ideas across by example or similarly subtle techniques. Nevertheless, unambiguous, clear instructions are critical to the successful execution of any project- both up and down the chain of command.
- Fix responsibility not only among your subordinates but also for yourself: Understand exactly what your responsibility is, and be sure you and your boss have a common understanding. If you seek authority but dodge responsibility (and many do) you are a non-leader; worse than that, you are an imposter. There must be no confusion about what the task is and what results are expected. From this it should be clear that fixing responsibility is dependent on the previous principle, communication.
- → Loyalty: This is fundamental as a leadership characteristic, goes in two directions. You must be loyal to your people and to your boss. If you have built your relationships with both based on integrity, there will be no conflicts between your loyalties. You will take on many roles in the eyes of your subordinates; the one that you cannot abdicate is that of leader. In taking care of your

subordinates, you must ensure that you don't confuse yourself or your people by replacing loyalty with doting paternalism. Field Marshal Erwin Rommel is often quoted as having said that the best form of welfare for the troops is tough training. Be loyal to your people by ensuring that they understand what you want and by rewarding them for success. Your integrity will let you know when you should shield them from the fallout of your mistakes.

- → Consistent: The kindest thing you can do for your people is to be consistent. They want to know what to expect from you and what you expect from them. The first three guidelines are natural building blocks to achieving this understanding. Among these expectations or standards may be the use of technical data or operational procedures, compliance with regulations, standards for personal appearance, or treatment of poor performance. Be sure that variations are well understood. We live in a very dynamic environment; the good leader must weave a strong thread of consistency through the fabric of it all.
- → Learn from mistakes: This guideline is very important. It's what experience is all about. Abraham Lincoln said he had no respect for the man who was not smarter today than he was yesterday. The only way to be smarter today is to study yesterday; treat every unsuccessful event as if you must unlock it. Not to fix blame, but to fix the problem and learn ways to prevent others like it before they happen. Don't go through an operation, incident, or any event without learning something. Learn from other people's mistakes, learn from your own; analyze your mistakes and don't be afraid to look at yourself in the mirror and think about them. Don't ever pass up an opportunity to learn from a mistake, even one you didn't make.
- Be yourself: Here is where the principle of integrity is most pervasive. If integrity is truly deeply ingrained in your character, then this guideline will probably take care of itself. Learn from othersfrom the great lessons and leaders of history-learn to apply the principles that made great leaders what they were, but don't imitate their style. There are characteristics of others that you can adapt to your own style and there are things you can learn from the way others operate and behave, but never imitate anyone. Make whatever it is you do to be a good leader fit you. You have to do what's comfortable for you. So be yourself.
- → **Be confident:** Be confident, but be careful to not confuse confidence with arrogance. To do this, you need to fully know what you are talking about. When you do speak, speak with conviction.
- → Be ambitious and do not be afraid to take risks: Jared Costanzo, president and founder of the Student Voice Project advises that "Do not be afraid to be idealistic. If you happen to fail, you will recognize your strengths and limitations and be better to adapt in the future. Only by knowing your limit can you fully maximize your potential. Of course, the scope of your limit will lessen over time through experience."
- → **Be able to establish your goals and commit to your plan:** "Sometimes structure, deadlines, and plans aren't the best way to lead. At times, it is more effective to go with the flow, take it as it comes and explore each new opportunity. But, despite this, you always need to keep in mind your end

- game, your objective." Prasanth Ramakrishna, President and Founder of Unheard Voices. Kevin Phan, a Commitment Mentor at the Clinton Global Initiative, also advises young people to, "Be patient with your goals. Go on your own timeline."
- Now the strengths and weaknesses of yourself and your team. Being a leader does not always mean that you are the most intelligent or capable person within a group. It just means that you have an ability to organize people and are able to utilize each person's skill set. "Leading isn't an easy task not everyone can do it. I believe if you are truly passionate about the area you are leading in, not only will you be a successful leader, but there is no end to what you can do. Nothing material can slow you down; only your passion will drive you." Jai Kumar Mediratta, Camp Kesem Executive Board of UNL.

2.6 IMPORTANCE OF LEADERSHIP

Leadership is an important function of management which helps to maximize efficiency and to achieve organizational goals. The following points justify the importance of leadership in a concern.

- ❖ Initiates action- Leader is a person who starts the work by communicating the policies and plans to the subordinates from where the work actually starts.
- ❖ Motivation- A leader proves to be playing an incentive role in the concern's working. He motivates the employees with economic and non-economic rewards and thereby gets the work from the subordinates.
- ❖ **Providing guidance-** A leader has to not only supervise but also play a guiding role for the subordinates. Guidance here means instructing the subordinates the way they have to perform their work effectively and efficiently.
- ❖ Creating confidence- Confidence is an important factor which can be achieved through expressing the work efforts to the subordinates, explaining them clearly their role and giving them guidelines to achieve the goals effectively. It is also important to hear the employees with regards to their complaints and problems.
- ❖ Building morale- Morale denotes willing co-operation of the employees towards their work and getting them into confidence and winning their trust. A leader can be a morale booster by achieving full co-operation so that they perform with best of their abilities as they work to achieve goals.
- ❖ Builds work environment- Management is getting things done from people. An efficient work environment helps in sound and stable growth. Therefore, human relations should be kept into mind by a leader. He should have personal contacts with employees and should listen to their problems and solve them. He should treat employees on humanitarian terms.
- **Co-ordination-** Co-ordination can be achieved through reconciling personal interests with organizational goals. This synchronization can be achieved through proper and effective co-ordination which should be primary motive of a leader.

- **Helps in Influencing the Behaviour of People-** A manager influences his subordinates with his leadership ability. He brings them under his control in such a way that they put in their best efforts to achieve the goals of the organization. Good leaders always get good results through their followers.
- ❖ Helps Followers in Fulfilling their Needs- A leader establishes personal relationship with his followers and tries to fulfill their needs. Why does a human group follow a particular person? It can be said in reply to this question because that particular person provides them security and the opportunities to earn wealth, gives them the right to work and tries to understand their feelings. That is why people follow him. A person who takes care of the above-mentioned needs of the employees, they willingly accept him. Consequently, they work with complete dedication and enthusiasm.
- **Helps in Introducing Required Changes-** These days the business environment is changing rapidly. In order to face the changing environment, many changes have got to be introduced in the organization. Since the people already happen to be under the influence of the leader, he readily makes them agree to implement these changes. In this way, the possible opposition to the change is eliminated with the strength of leadership ability.
- **Helps in Solving Conflicts Effectively-** A leader can solve every type of conflict (employees vs. employees and employees vs. employer) effectively under the weight of his influence. A leader always allows his followers the freedom to express their views. That is the reason that he easily understands the reality of the conflict, in this way, by understanding the nature of the conflict he tries to provide timely solution and minimizes the possibility of adverse results.
- ❖ Helps in Training and Development of Subordinates- A leader proves helpful in the training and development of his subordinates. He provides them the information about the modern techniques of work. Not only this, he makes it possible for them to be good leaders in future.

Concept of educational leadership

Educational leadership is a long-term campaign it grows out of knowledge, of experience and requires patience and much time, and its leadership can be enjoyed only in the long run. According to Leithwood & Reihl (2003) and Leithwood et al. (2006) the educational leader has to:

- → Create a vision and establish directions, identify and formulate a vision, to create joint meaning and expectations of a high level of performance amongst members of the group, foster nurturing goals, and the ability for followup of the organization's performance.
- → Understand and develop people: The ability to provide intellectual stimulation and leadership through providing an example and establishing the skills that the teachers and the other members of the staff need to realize the school's goals of the school: open, guide, compensate.
- → **Re-design the organization:** Create cultures and processes based on the principal's cooperation to administer his environment and the work conditions; and all this while preserving the productive and sustainable relations with the parents and community, the school and the extended environment.

→ Managing the education system and the learning: Creating the productive work conditions for both the staff and the students, nurturing organizational stability for effective leadership that focuses on learning.

Check Your Progress - 1

Note: a) Answer the questions given below

- b) Compare your anwer with the those given at the end of th lesson
- 1. Leadership today is increasingly associated with the concept of
 - a. Command
 - b. Strategy
 - c. Control
 - d. Getting others to follow
- 2. Which of the following statement about leadership is false?
 - a) Leadership doesn't necessarily take place within hierarchical structure of an organization.
 - b) Not every leader is manager
 - c) When people operate as leaders their role is always clearly established and defined.
 - d) All of the above
- 3. Leadership relates to a, while leader is a
 - a) Concept; theory
- c) Process; Person
- b) Cultural trait; behaviour d) all of the above
- 4. Leader gets his authority from his....., a manager gets his authority by
- 5. The function of management is to provideto organisations, whereas the primary function of leadership is to produce

2.7 IMPORTANCE OF MANAGEMENT FOR EDUCATION

"Management is efficiency in climbing the ladder of success; leadership determines whether the ladder is leaning against the right wall."

- Stephen R. Covey

The origin of the development of educational management as a field of study began in the United States in the early part of the twentieth century. Development in the United Kingdom came as late as the 1960's. Educational management, as the name implies, operates in educational organisations or institutions. Thus management of education or educational management implies the practical measures for ensuring the system to work for achieving the goals or objectives of an educational institution. So educational management operates in educational organisations or institutions. The importance of educational management can be understood from the following points:

- Forecasting
- Decision-making
- Planning
- Organization
- Motivation
- **❖** Control
- Coordination
- **❖** Evaluation
- * Recording and reporting
- Supervision

***** Forecasting:

It is a systematic assessment of future conditions by collecting all sorts of information about the present position of the system, its present and expected resources and trying to form a picture in terms of the accepted Philosophy in a particular country to arrive at a fruitful forecast.

Decision-making:

Decision-making is a key factor in educational management as here we have to think of generations which will be affected by the policies decided. Having considered various alternative and consequence of each course of action, a suitable course of action must be determined. Guess work, arbitrary exercise of authority, ill-considered hasty decisions should have no place in educational management. The following points must be borne in mind while deciding that the:

- (a) Course of actions should be simple and easily understood by all concerned;
- (b) Standards for targets must be laid down; and
- (c) Goal must be clear.

Planning:

The plan should be flexible. The very existence of variables and uncertainties make decision-making and planning a necessity. There should be enough scope of change to cater for any unforeseen situations. There are many variables - the priorities may change due to unforeseen circumstances; equipment and grants may not become available as expected; personnel may be posted out or they may proceed on leave; all these variable contributing to the non-implementation of decisions.

* Organization:

It is the combination of necessary human effort, material equipments in systematic and effective correlation to accomplish the desired results. Under educational administration, we organize:

(a) Ideas and principles into school systems, curricular and co-curricular activities, time schedules, norms

of achievement and the like;

- (b) Human beings into schools, classes, committees, groups, school staff, the inspecting staff.
- (c) Material into buildings, furniture and equipment, libraries, laboratories, workshops, museums and art galleries.

***** Motivation:

Involvement in deciding policies and plans help in motivation. The term motivation aims to make the man to be cheerfully willing to do the job we want him to do. Face to face communication is quite useful if organization members are to be motivated to do their best. Communication, down, up and across is also of great importance to the motivation of organization members.

***** Control:

Effective control is an important element in educational administration. The administrator must constantly check on his terms and his own performance vis-a-vis the standards laid down. He needs to take corrective action to the form of adjustments to the physical environment of work, modification and addition of materials and methods or abilities and motivation review of the personnel in terms of their spirits.

Cooperation:

It is required of all the elements the persons, material and ideas, knowledge and principles and so to interweave them as to achieve a common objective and a single effect. The administration should look into the: (a) relations among people, (b) allocation of tasks, and (c) division of labour.

***** Evaluation:

Evaluation is a good way to find out the success or failure of a project. Good measures are required to find out the reasons why it failed or succeeded, which steps in the process were most successful, what should have been done to improve the action and what should be done differently at the next trial.

A Recording and reporting:

Recording and reporting are essential elements of educational management which is answerable to the parents, the higher authorities, the society etc.

Supervision:

The purpose of supervision is to bring about a continuing improvement in the instructional programme. Cox and Langfitt write, "Management executes, directs; supervision advises, stimulates, explains, leads, guides and assists. Both plan, both diagnose, both inspect, but management decides and orders execution, while supervision helps to decide and assist in improving instruction."

2.8 LET US SUM UP

This lesson deals with the management and leadership for education Leadership involves influence, as does management. Leaders and managers require working with people. Leadership is concerned with effective goal accomplishment and so is management. In general, many of the functions of management activities

are consistent with the definition of leadership. Kotter (1990) argues that the functions of the two are quite dissimilar. The function of management is to provide order and consistency to organisations, whereas the primary function of leadership is to produce change and movement. Leaders are people who shape the goals, motivations, and actions of others. Frequently they initiate change to reach existing and new goals. Leadership takes much ingenuity, energy and skill. Managing is maintaining efficiently and effectively current organisational arrangements.

2.9 LESSON END EXERCISE

- Q.1. Define leadership along with its characteristics.
- Q.2. Explain the importance of leadership.
- Q.3. Discuss loyalty and consistency as guidelines of leadership.
- Q.4. Discuss leadership and management for education.

2.10 SUGGESTED FURTHER READINGS

Ackerman, L. (1985). Leadership vs. managership. Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 6 (2), 17-19.

Avolio, B. J., & Bass, B. M. (1998). You can drag a horse to water but you can't make it drink unless it's thirsty. Journal of Leadership Studies, 5 (1), 4-17.

Bush, T. (2008). Leadership and Management Development in Education. Retrieved from https://www.pdfdrive.net/leadership-and-management-development-in-education-education-e1088306.html

Bass, B. M. (1985). Leadership and performance beyond expectations. New York: The Free Press

Bass, B. M. (1990). Bass and Stogdill's handbook of Leadership: Theory, research and managerial applications. 3rd Edn. New York: Free Press.

Burns, J. M. (1978). Leadership. New York: Harper & Row.

Capowski, G. (1994). Anatomy of a leader: Where are the leaders of tomorrow? American Business Leaders, 83 (3).

Koontz, H., & Weihrich, H. (2010). Essentials of Management: An International Perspective. New Delhi: Tata McGraw Hill Education Private Limited

2.11 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1-D, 2- C, 3- C, 4 - followers, virtue of his position in the organisation, 5 order and consistency, change & movement.

Lesson No. 3 Unit-I

THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

CT	DΤ	ICT	ГII	DI	7
	N I			п	١,

•	1	T .	1	. •
4	I	Intro	duc	f10n

- 3.2 Objectives
- 3.3 Theories of Leadership
- 3.4 Distributed Leadership
 - 3.4.1 Structure of Distributed Leadership
 - 3.4.2 Characteristics of Distributed Leadership
 - 3.4.3 Aspects of Distributed Leadership
 - 3.4.4 Strengths of Distributed Leadership
 - 3.4.5 Weaknesses of Distributed Leadership
- 3.5 Transformational Leadership (TL)
 - 3.5.1 Styles of Transformational Leadership
 - 3.5.2 Comparison between Transactional and Transformational Leadership
 - 3.5.3 Components of Transformational Leadership
 - 3.5.4 Strengths of Transformational Leadership
 - 3.5.5 Weaknesses of Transformational Leadership
- 3.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 3.7 Lesson End Exercise
- 3.8 Suggested Further Readings
- 3.9 Answers to Check Your Progress

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous lesson, you have studied about the concept of leadership, guidelines for leadership, importance of leadership and management for education. In the present lesson, you will learn about leadership theories i.e. Distributed Leadership and Transformational Leadership. An understanding of leadership theory and

how it has evolved, particularly over the past few years, will help you to appreciate and analyze some of the leadership success and failures of recent years. Here you are invited to study these theories, however, bearing in mind the basics of leadership. Leadership is a complex phenomenon that exists in any organization whereby an individual influences a group of individuals in order to achieve a common goal in the organization. The quality of leadership determines the motivation of teachers and the quality of teaching in the classroom.

3.2 **OBJECTIVES**

After reading this lesson, you shall be able to:

- Introduce and critically discuss concepts of Distributed Leadership.
- Explore the differing views of what Distributed Leadership represents in organizations.
- Acquire knowledge about strengths and weaknesses of Distributed Leadership.
- Explain about the concept of Transformational Theory of Leadership.
- Differentiate between Transactional and Transformational theory.
- Enlist the strengths and weaknesses of Transformational leadership.

3.3 THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

Leadership models and theories draw from different subject disciplines, including management theory, psychology and sociology. Each of the model or theory helps us to understand more about what leadership is, what leadership means to leaders themselves and to their followers and the impact of what leaders do on organizations.

In broad terms there has been a relatively recent shift from the way in which, prior to the 1980s, leadership was seen very much as a subset of management, often concerned with leading teams or groups, through the rise and fall of the 'hero' or transformational leader, to current thinking which emphasizes the 'thoughtful', 'value led' leader, highlighting the role of followers, the notion of 'leadership at all levels' and bringing to the fore ideas concerning 'collaborative leadership' and 'learning leadership.'

3.4 DISTRIBUTED LEADERSHIP

Distributed leadership is distributing leadership practices. In this leadership style, the leader and his/her followers interact. Compared to centering on position; individual expertise is the central concept in distributed leadership. Hence, distributed leadership is not simply assigning individuals to specific tasks and sharing duties. In this type of leadership, collective work as well as collective learning by working on goals through communication and interaction is prominent, rather than individual work. For example, capacity building of one teacher by another teacher is an example of this process.

According to Leithwood (2007), distributed leadership 'assumes a set of direction-setting and influence practices potentially enacted by people at all levels rather than a set of personal characteristics and attributes located in people at the top'.

The distributed leadership approach addresses leadership together with teams, groups, and organizational characteristics. In practice, this approach opposes the supposition that change requires the leadership and guidance of some specific individuals. The responsibility of managing various complex tasks in organizations is distributed among many individuals and roles.

3.4.1 Structure of Distributed Leadership

The following table summarizes the structure of Distributed Leadership:

It is leadership approach used since the 1950s.	(Gibbi, 1954; Gronn, 2002)
The focus of distributed leadership is on student achievement and progress towards development in teaching	(Chen et al., 2007)
This perspective regards leadership as the shared contribution of all leaders to total leadership and distinguishes it from other theories	(Harris 2005; Printy, 2008)
The leader cannot be composed of only one person, and leadership should be shared	(Gibb, 1954)
Creation of an environment that regards learning as the "common good" is very important in distributed leadership	(Elmore, 2000)
It is a participatory or cooperative decision-making process in which administrators, teachers, students, and parents also take part	(Symlie, Lazarus & Conyers, 1996)
Distributed leadership is the guide and moderator of educational development	(Elmore, 2000)
It has a much larger effect than the sum of all leaders in a school and their efforts to reach a larger scale leadership behavior	(Spillane, 2006)
There is the belief that it is always batter to distribute leadership among too many individuals than to allow one leader act solely	(Kempster, Cope, & Parry, 2010)
There is a positive relationship between distribution of leadership and capacity development	(Baloglu, 2011)
By respecting and accepting different expertise areas, distributed leadership makes all kinds of products the shared capital of the organization.	(Gunduz & Korkmaz, 2011)

3.4.2 Characteristics of Distributed Leadership

- The leader cannot be a single individual and leadership needs to be shared. This perspective regards leadership as the collective contribution of all leaders to the organization and therefore it is distinct from all other theories.
- Leadership role is not assigned to an individual in the group; all members of the group undertake this function willingly as if it is their fundamental duty.
- Distributed leadership is classified under two dimensions as adaptive and quantitative behaviors. Adaptive behavior is related to different units/departments in interaction to behave in a coordinated manner and quantitative behavior is related to the belief that all individuals in the organization can be leaders at some point.
- Distributed leadership is the distribution of tasks between the leader and the audience and integration of these tasks in the long run.
- Distributed leadership can be said to focus on three themes: leadership is shaped as the common product of the group and as a result of interaction among individuals; borders in leadership are not definitive and strict, they are open-ended and diversity in practice is obtained with a part or even all of the members.
- It is distributing organizational tasks to the entirety of the organization.
- It is related to distributing leadership functions to the members of the organization or the team instead of focusing on the hero concept that undertakes all leadership functions by himself/herself.
- Distributed leadership is born from cooperation as an important constituent of organizational life.
- When leadership is distributed, power of formal leaders is not erased but each leader mutually strengthens the position of the other. There is a positive relationship between distribution of leadership and development of capacity.
- Leadership is created as a result of ties among individuals. With the help of distributed leadership, cooperation is created among the actions of individuals and leadership is realized in this manner. There is the belief that "it is better to distribute leadership among many people than for a single leader to act alone" (Kempster, Cope and Parry, 2010).
- It is re-distribution of power and re-arranging authorities in the organization.
- It is very important for distributed leadership to create a climate in which learning is regarded as the "common good" for everyone's benefit.
- It is a perceptive or cooperative decision making process that includes administrators, teachers, students and parents.
- It has more influence than the sum of all leaders and their efforts to arrive at a larger scale leadership behavior.

- Distributed leadership is based on expertise, knowledge and contributions created as a result of relationships network among individuals who direct, guide and work with teachers in the process of improving education.
- Student achievement and orientation towards development in teaching are the foundations of distributed leadership.

Most of the authors agree upon two principles as underpinning the concept of distributed leadership: firstly, leadership is a shared influence process to which several individuals contribute and secondly, leadership arises from the interactions of diverse individuals, which together form a group, or network in which essential expertise is a dispersed quality.

The importance given to the idea of "leadership" has grown enormously in virtually all sectors, and education has been no exception. In addition, distributed leadership is a developing process involving different forms of leadership practices. MacBeath (2005) interviewed and shadowed head teachers of schools, which exemplified distributed leadership and were interested in becoming distributive in their practices in order to explore what "distributed leadership" means in the day-to-day life in schools in the United Kingdom. The research findings suggest that distributed leadership is a developing process. Under the developing process, six categories of distributed leadership practice were defined: distribution formally, pragmatically, strategically, incrementally, opportunistically, and culturally, and each of them represents a different way of thinking about leadership and exemplifies differing processes of distribution.

3.4.3 Aspects of Distributed Leadership

In 2004, the Hay Group Education (UK) developed a continuum consisting of five aspects of distributed leadership. Their sliding scale shows accents in initiatives and scope of decision making as follows:

- Instruct: where initiatives and ideas come only from leaders at or near the top of a hierarchical organisational structure;
- Consult : where staffs have the opportunity for input but decisions are still made at a distance from them by others near or at the top;
- Delegate: where staffs take initiative and make decisions within predetermined boundaries of responsibility and accountability;
- Facilitate: where staffs at all levels are able to initiate and champion ideas;
- Neglect: where staffs are forced to take initiative and responsibility due to a lack of direction at the top.

3.4.4 Strengths of Distributed Leadership

Distributed leadership has the strengths of 'increasing initiative, creativity and spontaneity and therefore individuals have the power to influence events'.

Strengths are-

More responsive to customer/market requirements.

- Improved quality of decision making, i.e., leads to stronger sense of ownership.
- Increases financial transparency (of financial devolution).
- More entrepreneurial, therefore generates more initiatives and ideas.
- Generates improved levels of motivation and enthusiasm.
- Convenient way to manage desired complex demands.
- Providing an opportunity to see role and the work of leaders and how to develop towards these roles.
- Promoting shared knowledge and reduces the likelihood of one person holding key information (reduces threats).

3.4.5 Weaknesses of Distributed Leadership

- Work will become fragmented if there is no core value and mission that is worked towards.
- There may be a lack of clarity about roles and present possibilities to bypass a level of authority.
- Decision-making process may slow down with the involvement of more people.
- May devalue leadership role, with everyone thinking they can do it.
- Focus for leadership development may reduce.

Thus, the key concepts of distributed leadership can be grouped around four categories:

Distributed leadership practice

- Distributed leadership is about leadership activities and decision-making exceeding the formal positions.
- It is expressed in cooperation, sharing expertise and knowledge, initiating, responsibility and accountability.

Roles and tasks of the formal school leader and staff

- The formal school leader: the responsibility of the school leader is to provide guidance and direction, acknowledge abilities, encourage professionals to share knowledge, to make decisions and to show initiative. These tasks and related responsibilities are necessary to strengthen the engagement and empowerment of the professionals.
- Staff: professionals have a reciprocal responsibility to substantiate this by showing initiative and actively participate and contribute and take their responsibility.

Cultural and formal school features

 An open climate, trust, learning organization, respect, high standards, common values and a shared vision. Although cultural distribution seems to be the advanced model of distributed leadership, formal structures are not the opposite of distributed leadership because they could be helpful in distributing leadership.

Autonomy as a necessary condition

• To make distributed leadership possible in schools, sufficient influence and a sufficient amount of autonomy is necessary in order that people can make their own policy choices. This can be seen as an important condition of distributed leadership practice.

3.5 TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP (TL)

"The leader who looks around and sees only followers will surely fail as a transforming leader" (Bate, 2000)

James MacGregor Burns writing in his book 'Leadership' was the first to put forward the concept of "transforming leadership". To Burns transforming leadership "is a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents". Burns went on to also further define it by suggesting that:

"Transforming leadership occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality..."

Burns draws upon the humanistic psychology movement in his writing upon 'transforming leadership' by proposing that the transforming leader shapes, alters, and elevates the motives, values and goals of followers achieving significant change in the process.

Bernard Bass developed Burns' concept of transforming leadership in 'Leadership and Performance Beyond Expectations' into 'transformational leadership' where the leader transforms followers - the direction of influence to Bass is thus one-way, unlike Burns' who sees it as potentially a two-way process. Bass, however, deals with the transformational style of executive leadership that incorporates social change, a facet missing from Burns' work. For Bass 'transformational leaders' may:

- a) expand a follower's portfolio of needs
- b) transform a follower's self-interest
- c) increase the confidence of followers
- d) elevate followers' expectations
- e) heighten the value of the leader's intended outcomes for the follower
- f) encourage behavioral change
- g) motivate others to higher levels of personal achievement (Maslow's 'self-actualisation').

Bass writing with a research colleague Avolio suggested "Transformational leadership is closer to the prototype of leadership that people have in mind when they describe their ideal leader, and it is more likely to provide a role model with which subordinates want to identify". Transactional leadership has been the traditional model of leadership with its roots from an organisational or business perspective in the 'bottom line'. Both kinds of leadership are necessary. Transactional leadership has remained the organisational model for many people and organisations—that have not moved into or encouraged the transformational role needed to meet the challenges of our changing times.

3.5.1 Styles of Transformational Leadership

According to Bass and Avolio, transformational leaders display behaviors associated with five transformational styles:

Transformational Style	Leader Behavior					
1) Idealized Behaviors: living one's ideals	 Talk about their most important values and beliefs. Specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose. Consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions. Champion exciting new possibilies. Talk about the importance of trusting each other. 					
2) Insporational Motivation: inspiring others	 Talk optimistially about the future. Talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished. Articulate a compelling vision of the future. Express confidence that goals will be achieved. Provide and exciting image of what is essential to consider Take a stand on controversial issues. 					
3) Intellectual Stimulation: stimulating others	 Re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate. Seek differing perspective when solving problems. Get others to look at problems from many different angles. Suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments. Encourage non - traditional thinking to deal with traditional problems. Encourage rethinking those ideas which have never been questioned before. 					
4) Individualized Consideration: coaching and development	 Spend time teaching and coaching. Treat others as individuals rather than just as members of the group. Consider individuals as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others. Help others to develop their strengths. Listen attentively to other's concerns. Promote self dvelopment. 					
5) Idealized Attributes Respect, trust, and faith	 Instill pride in others for being associated with time. Go beyond their self-interests for the good of the group. Act in ways that build other's respect. Display a sense of power and competence. Make personal sacrifices for other's benefit. Reassure others that obstacles will be overcome. 					

Transformational leadership is particularly relevant for complex and complicated environments such as healthcare where change is essentially the norm. Leaders are seen as engaging with their followers, successfully conveying their vision of the future so that it becomes a common goal. In the process, such leaders become strong role models encouraging others to emulate them. Transformational leadership theory has been seen as particularly relevant to large statutory organizations, especially those in the major restructuring and reform. One example is the NHS Leadership Centre that developed the NHS Leadership Qualities Framework (2006) around this approach.

There are fifteen qualities within the Framework covering a range of Personal, Cognitive, and Social Qualities. They are arranged in three clusters: Personal Qualities, Setting Direction and Delivering the Service (NHS Leadership Qualities Framework, 2006).

PERSONAL QUALITIES	SETTING DIRECTION	DELIVERING THE SERVICE				
 Self-belief Self-awareness Self-management Drive for improvement Personal Integrity 	 Seizing the future Intellectual flexibility Broad Scanning Political astuteness Drive for results 	 Leading change through people Holding to account Empowering others Effective and strategic influencing Collaborative working 				

In the concept of Transformational Leadership, there are basically two styles of leadership- Transactional and Transformational.

Transactional leaders determine what subordinates need to do to achieve their own and organizational objectives, classify those requirements and help subordinates become confident that they can reach their objective by expanding the necessary efforts. Transformational Leadership implies a process whereby an individual attempts to elevate his or her consciousness so that various commonplace conflicts and dualities begin at higher levels of synthesis.

Transformational leadership attempts to change the whole organization from one style or culture to another. Transformational leadership has the ultimate aim of raising the level of human conduct and ethical aspiration of both the leader and the led. The leader's main thrust is to elevate, inspire and evangelize his or her followers to higher things in life.

Transformational leaders are characterized by distinct skills. These are:

- Anticipatory Skills: foresight into a constantly changing environment.
- Visionary Skills:a process of persuasion and example by which a person or leadership team induces a group to take action in accord with the leader's purposes or, more likely, the shared purposes of a larger group.
- Value- Congruence Skills: the need of corporate leader to be in touch with employees' economic, safety, psychological, spiritual, sexual, aesthetic and physical needs in order to engage people on

the basis of shared motives, values and goals.

- Empowerment Skills: the willingness to share power and to do so effectively.
- Self-understanding: introspective or self-understanding skills as well as frameworks within which leaders understand both their own needs, and goals of those of their employees.

3.5.2 Comparison between Transactional and Transformational Leadership

The Transformational Leadership theory states that this process is by which a person interacts with others and is able to create a solid relationship that results in a high percentage of trust, that will later result in an increase of motivation, both intrinsic and extrinsic, in both leaders and followers. The essence of transformational theories is that leaders transform their followers through their inspirational nature and charismatic personalities. Rules and regulations are flexible, guided by group norms. These attributes provide a sense of belonging for the followers as they can easily identify with the leader and its purpose.

Transactional theories, also known as exchange theories of leadership, are characterized by a transaction made between the leader and the followers. In fact, the theory values a positive and mutually beneficial relationship. For the transactional theories to be effective and as a result have motivational value, the leader must find a means to align to adequately reward (or punish) his follower, for performing leader-assigned task. In other words, transactional leaders are most efficient when they develop a mutual reinforcing environment, for which the individual and the organizational goals are in sync. The transactional theorists state that humans in general are seeking to maximize pleasurable experiences and to diminish un-pleasurable experiences. Thus, we are more likely to associate ourselves with individuals that add to our strengths.

	TRANSACTIONAL	TRANSFORMATIONAL			
	LEADERSHIP	LEADERSHIP			
Creating the Agenda	Planning and Budgeting:	Establishing Direction:			
	Developing a detailed	Developing a vision that			
	plan of how to get the	describes a future state			
	results	along with a strategy for			
		getting here			
Development of human	Organizing and Staffing:	Aligning People: A major			
resources	Which individual best fits	communication challenge,			
	each job and what part of	getting people to			
	the plan fits each	understand and believe the			
	individual	vision			
Execution	Controlling and Problem	Motivating and Inspiring:			
	Solving: Monitoring	Satisfying basic human			
	results, identifying	needs for achievement,			
	deviations from the plan	belonging, recognition,			
	and solving the problems	self-esteem, and a sense of			
		control			
Outcomes	Produces a sense of	Produces changes, often to			
	predictability and order	a dramatic degree			

Check Your Progress - 1							
Note	:	(a) Answers the questions given below					
	(b) Co	ompare your answers with those given at the end of the lesson					
1) Le	eadershi	ip is					
	a) the	process of influencing a group toward the achievement of goals					
	b) a gi	roup that achieves goals					
	c) the	function of influencing a group towards the achievement of goals					
	d) dire	ecting a group towards the achievement of goals					
2) W	hich of	the following statements about leadership is false?					
	a) Lea	adership does not necessarily take place within a hierarchical structure of an organization					
	b) Wh	nen people operate as leaders their role is always clearly established and defined					
:)	Not ev	very leader is a manager					
d)	All the	e above					
3) Le	eadershi	ip today is increasingly associated with the concept of					
	a)	Strategy					
	b)	Control					
	c)	Command					
	d)	Getting others to follow					
4) A	transact	tional leader is one who:					
	a) Insp	pires people and has strong interactions with them					
	b) Do	es deals with people in order to get them to do things the leader wants					
	c) Is t	he ideal form of leadership					
	d) Wo	rks for long-term goals of the organization					
5) W	ho is a	transformational leader?					
	a) Soi	meone who is involved in organizational change.					
	b) A le	eader, like Taylor, who provided new ways of carrying out management.					
	c) A le	eader who inspires the workers to new levels by offering them a vision of a better future.					
	d) A le	eader who tries to transform their staff by giving them rewards for what they do.					
6) W	hat is d	listributed leadership?					
	a) An	idea about ensuring everyone participates in decision making.					

b) A way of spreading responsibility across an organization								
c) The view that leadership is more a process spread across the organization rather than a person								
at the top of it.								
d) Ensuring that leaders distribute power to others								
7) What are the key characteristics of transactional leaders?								
a) Guiding, mentoring and motivating								
b) Guiding, commanding and motivating								
c) Guiding, demonstrating and motivating								
d) Guiding, mentoring and demonstrating								
8) Distributed leadership has often been argued to be a key driver of what type of approaches to leadership?								
a) followership approaches								
b) charismatic approaches								
c) post-heroic approaches								
d) cultural approaches								
9) Most distributed leadership models see leadership located								
a) at the top of the organization								
b) throughout the organization								
c) in key hierarchical positions								
d) in self-directed teams only								
10) The network approach has been argued to be linked to distributed leadership as both approaches								
look at leadership as a phenomenon:								
a) individual b) social c) psychological d) collective								

3.5.3 Components of Transformational Leadership

Two major components of transformational leadership are (1) Charismatic leadership (2) Stewardship and servant leadership

Charismatic Leaders

Traditionally, charisma is defined as "perception of divine, exceptionally gifted qualities" of a leader. It is this perception of extraordinary that compels the followers to believe in their leader's radical vision rather than any rational judgement. Charismatic leaders have exceptional abilities to influence their followers,

they are strong role models and the followers want to emulate their behavior. They are very well respected and deeply trusted by their subordinates. Charismatic leaders by nature have high capacity to transform the organization and its environment, though some contend that it's not essential component of transformational leadership. It's true that transformations can also be accomplished by following a more ethical code, more consideration of subordinate interests and development, however without charisma, it would be a mere inanimate process without any human touch. Some of the key characteristics of Charismatic leadership are

- Vision: Charismatic leaders have natural inclination to be dissatisfied with status quo and always search for a radically different vision.
- Strong leadership traits: Charismatic leader develop all the necessary traits of leadership, ability to inspire, establish credibility and are very strong in their communication skills.
- Strong Self-Belief: Charismatic leader have strong inner conviction about their vision and strategies. They have gone through the phases of inner conflicts and have successfully overcome their inner conflicts to realize their full potential. The completion of self-discovery results in exceptional confidence, an attribute that only makes them more compelling and dominant.
- Activist Mindset: Their inner conviction and desperation for change makes them self-promoting for their cause and belief. They are willing to pursue risky endeavors, their courageousness is a great influence on the followers, and people expect and admire leaders who are courageous.
- Exemplary: Charismatic leaders practice high moral values, they are very ethical in their actions and follow a code of conduct at the expense of self.

Servant Leadership

Servant leadership is employee-oriented process that aims to empower subordinates with greater ownership and responsibilities while the leader acts as self-sacrificing facilitator. However this doesn't imply that leader is less concerned with the business or other objectives of the organization, but rather formulates a collective vision that serves both employees and the organization's stakeholders. Some of the key characteristics of servant leadership are:

- Create atmosphere of partnership: Servant leaders consciously desist from using their positional power unless really required. They try to lead at the ground level, considerably eliminating the perception of organizational hierarchy.
- Active Listener: Servant leaders are more like negotiators rather than commanders; they listen carefully to the problems of others and then engage in range of satisfying solutions.
- Subordinate development: Servant leaders view continual development of subordinates as vital to health of the organization. This implies establishing a fair process of performance evaluation and making sure it is effective and well received by the subordinates.

3.5.4 Strengths of Transformational Leadership

• Broadly researched: TL has been widely researched, including a large body of qualitative research

centering on prominent leaders and CEOs in major firms.

- Intuitive appeal: People are attracted to TL because it makes sense to them.
- Process-focused: TL treats leadership as a process occurring between followers and leaders.
- Expansive leadership view: TL provides a broader view of leadership that augments other leadership models.
- Emphasizes follower: TL emphasizes followers' needs, values, and morals.
- Effectiveness: Evidence supports that TL is an effective form of leadership.
- Most Popular: Transformational leadership is most intuitive and easily recognized by people; it fits the popular notion of a leader. Mahatma Gandhi, Martin Luther King, Adolf Hitler, Obama are all examples of transformational leaders.

3.5.5 Weaknesses of Transformational Leadership

- Too Complicated: Transformational leadership is a combination of various leadership theories, making it unreasonable to be trained or taught.
- Potential to be abused: Transformational leadership's high effectiveness in leader's vision makes it undemocratic; the leader's purpose is largely unchallenged, thus liable to be misused by the leader. There is plenty of historical evidence supporting its misuse, Adolf Hitler being one of the most prominent one.
- Lacks conceptual clarity
 - Dimensions are not clearly delimited.
 - Parameters of TL overlap with similar conceptualizations of leadership.
- Measurement questioned

Some transformational factors are not unique solely to the transformational model.

- TL treats leadership more as a personality trait or predisposition than a behavior that can be taught.
- TL is restricted and antidemocratic.
- Suffers from heroic leadership bias .
- TL is based primarily on qualitative data.

Transformational leadership is a vital role for effective managers because leader effectiveness determines the success level of the organization. This type of leadership is effective in crisis and emergency situations, as well as when projects need to be carried out in a specific fashion. Transactional leaders are willing to work within existing systems and negotiate to attain goals of the organization. They tend to think inside the box when solving problems.

Transformational leadership can be applied in one-on-one or group situations. Using this approach, the

manager (leader) and the associates (followers) are "transformed" to enhance job performance and help the organization be more productive and successful.

3.6 LET US SUM UP

In this lesson, we were dealing with the theories of leadership- Distributed Leadership, Transactional Leadership and Transformational Leadership. We discussed the concept and characteristics of Distributed Leadership. We put forward the concept, components, styles, strengths and weaknesses of Transformational Leadership. In this lesson, we also learnt about the differences between Transactional and Transformational Leadership.

3.7 LESSONS END EXERCISE

- 1) Throw light on the concept of Distributed Leadership highlighting its features.
- 2) Explain the strengths and weaknesses of Distributed Leadership.
- 3) Discuss the various components of Transformational Leadership.
- 4) Differentiate between Transactional and Transformational Theories of Leadership.
- 5) What are the strengths and weaknesses of Transformational Leadership?

3.8 SUGGESTED FURTHER READINGS

Aswathappa, K. (2010). OrganisationalBehaviour: Text, Cases & Games.New Delhi: Himalaya Publishing House.

Bass, B. M. (1990). Handbook of Leadership Theory Research & Managerial Application. New York: The Free Press

Bass, B. M. (1990). From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision. Organisational Dynamics, 18, 19-31.

Bass, B. M. (1997). Does the Transactional-Transformational Leadership Paradigm Transcend Organisational and National Boundaries. American Psychologist, 52(2), 130-139.

McKimm, J., & Held, S. (2009). The emergence of leadership theory: From twentieth to the twenty-first century. In: McKimm, J., Phillips, K. (eds) Leadership and Management in Integrated Services - Creating Integrated Services, Exeter: Learning Matters Ltd, pp. 1-19.

Spillane, J. P. (2006). Distributed leadership (1st ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Spillane, J. P., Halverson, R., & Diamond, J. B. (2001). Investigating school leadership practice: Adistributed perspective. Educational Researcher, 30(3), 23-28.

3.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1) a 2) b 3) d 4) b 5) c 6) d 7) a 8) c 9) b 10) d

Lesson No. 4 Unit-I

MODERN TRENDS IN EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

STRUCTURE

- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Objectives
- 4.3 Decision Making-
 - What is Decision- Making
 - Approaches in Decision- Making
 - Five steps in Decision-Making
- 4.4 Organisational Compliance
- 4.5 Organisational Development-
 - Organizational Development Characteristics
 - Objectives of Organizational Development
 - Why is change needed in Organisation?
 - How to know Organisation is having Problems?
- 4.6 PERT Program Evaluation and Review Technique
- 4.7 Let Us Sum Up
- 4.8 Lesson End Exercise
- 4.9 Suggested Further Readings
- 4.10 Answers to Check Your Progress

4.1 INTRODUCTION

You have studied previously the concept and types of leadership styles. You have also studied the components, strengths and weaknesses of distributive and transactional leadership. In present lesson, the purpose is to make you understand specifically the concept of Organisational climate and organisational development (OD) to bring about a positive change in organisation efficiency and effectiveness. You will also come to know about PERT which is time-event network analysis system for scheduling of activities in a project or a program.

Organisations are facing numerous challenges and threats to its effectiveness and probability from turbulent

environments, global competition and profitability from turbulent environments, global competition, changing customer needs, ever changing technologies and emerging employees aspirations. Keeping the organisations survive and grow is the real challenge. Efficiency of an organisation depends upon: the structure of the Industry, Organisational climate, Organisational development and the strategy of the company. One without the other is useless: you can have the world's best strategy in a very poor industry structure, or you can be in a wonderful monopoly with a poor strategy, you will lose money in both situations.

4.2 OBJECTIVES

After reading this lesson, you shall be able to:

- Analyze decision-making as a rational process.
- Explain time-event network analysis as a major technique of planning and control.
- Describe the nature of Organisational development and reasons for change in organisation.
- Discuss the nature of Organisational compliance and factors affecting it.
- Describe PERT in Educational Management.

4.3 **DECISION MAKING**

Definition

Decision making is defined as the selection of a course of action from among alternatives: it is at the core of planning. A plan cannot be said to exist unless a decision-a commitment of resources, direction or reputation has been made. Managers sometimes see decision-making as their central job because they must constantly choose what is to be done, who is to do it and when, where, occasionally, even how it will be done. Decision making is however, only a step in planning. It is also part of everyone's daily life.

Three Approaches in Decision- Making

Managers can use three basic approaches: i) experience ii) experimentation iii) research and analysis.

- i) Experience-To some extent, experience is the best teacher. The very fact that managers have reached their position appears to justify their past decisions. Relying on past experience as a guide for future action can be dangerous. In the first place, most people donot recognize the underlying reasons for their mistakes or failures. In the second place, the lessons of experience may be entirely inapplicable to new problems. Good decisions must be evaluated against future events, while experience belongs to the past.
- On the other hand, if a person carefully analyzes experience, rather than blindly following it, and if he or she instills from experience the fundamental reasons for success or failure, then experience can be useful as a basis for for decision analysis.
- ii) Experimentation- as obvious way to decide among alternatives is to try one of them and see what happens. Experimentation is often used in scientific inquiry. People often argue that it should be employed more often in managing and that the only way a manager can make sure some plans are right-especially in view of the intangible factors- is to try the various alternatives and see which is the best.

The experimental technique is likely to be the most expensive of all techniques, especially if a program requires heavy expenditures of capital and personnel and if the firm cannot afford to vigorously attempt several alternatives. Besides, after an experiment has been tried, there may still be doubt about what it proved, since the future may not duplicate the present. This technique, therefore should be used only after considering other alternatives.

- Research and analysis- One of the most effective techniques for selecting from alternatives when major decisions are involved is research and analysis. This approach means solving a problem by first comprehending it. Solving a planning problem requires breaking it into component parts and studying the various quantitative and qualitative factors.
- iv) Research and Analysis

One of the most effective techniques for selecting from alternatives when major decisions are involved is research and analysis. This approach means solving a problem by first comprehending it. It thus involves a search for relationships among the more critical of the variables, constraints and premises that bear upon the goal sought. It is the pencil and paper (or, better, the computer-and-printout) approach to decision making. Solving a planning problem requires breaking it into its component parts and studying the various quantitative and qualitative factors. Study and analysis are likely to be far cheaper than experimentation. The hours of time and reams of paper used for analysis usually cost much less than trying the various alternatives

For example, if careful research did not precede the building and testing of the prototype airplane and its parts, the resulting costs would be enormous.

Five Steps In Decision Making

The five steps or phases of decision- making are discussed as below:

- I) Specify the aim: Almost all books and articles on decision making highlight the importance of being sure that you know what you want to do.
- II) Reviewing the factors: Factor analysis has received much attention and we can summarise the advice which the text-books offer us.
- List and name all the major factors which are important and those minor ones which could have some influence on the achievement of the aim.
- Search for the critical factor, the one upon which the making of the decision really hinges. It is not always there, but seeking for it is a valuable way of turning over the ground.
- Look at all the factors taken together.
- III) Courses open: Having examined and turned over all the relevant factors it should become clear that there are a number of courses of action or possible decisions open to us. These again have to be listed, either mentally or on paper.
- IV) Making the decision: The analytical, synthetic and valuing methods of thinking then get to work

exploring and weighing the different courses of action. Obviously these considerations overlap, and the difference between them are partly semantic. But the major intellectual activity at this point is valuing. Sometimes, where the only relevant criteria are quantifiable, the decision may be easily reached.

V) Implementing the decision: the act of decision may take place anywhere in the continuum of the surface and depth minds, but the process is not complete until it is implemented and we have learnt to live with the consequences. Decisions are often lost at this point and resolute choice gives way to wavering indecision

Various decision Styles

Programmed and Non-programmed Decisions-

A programmed decision is applied to structured or routine problems. This kind of decision is used for routine and repetitive work; it relies primarily on previously established criteria. Example of a programmed decision is the reordering of standard inventory items.

A non-programmed decisions are used for unstructured, novel, and ill-defined situations of a non-recurring nature. Examples are the introduction of the Macintosh computer by Apple computer or the development of the four-wheel-drive passenger car by Audi.

Most decisions are neither completely programmed nor completely non-programmed; they are the combination of both. Most non-programmed decisions are made by upper-level managers; this is because upper-level managers have to deal with unstructured problems. Problems at lower levels of the organization are often routine and well structured, requiring less decision discretion by managers and non-managers.

Decision-Making under Certainty, Uncertainty and Risk

Virtually all decisions are made in an environment of at least some uncertainty. There are certain risks involved in making decisions.

In a situation involving certainty, people are reasonable sure about what will happen when they make a decision. The information is available and is considered to be reliable and the cause and effect relationships are known.

On the other hand, in a situation of uncertainty, people have only a meagre database, they do not know whether or not the data are reliable, and they are very unsure about whether or not the situation may change. For example, a corporation that decides to expand its operation to an unfamiliar country may know little about the country's culture, laws, economic environment and politics.

In a situation with risks, factual information may exist, but it may be incomplete. To improve decision-making, one may estimate the objective probability of an outcome by using, for example, mathematical models. On the other hand, subjective probability based on judgement and experience, may be used.

Check Your Progress - 1

Note: (a) Answer the questions given below

(b) Compare your answer with those given at the end of the lesson

- 1. Which of the following factors have researchers identified in groups as interfering with effective decision making?
- A) Reluctance of members to exchange information
- B) Members whose social needs prevent them from attending to the group task
- C) When one or two members dominate discussions
- D) All of the above.
- 2. Which of the following is a disadvantage when group decisions are made primarily by the leader?
 - A) The decision may be difficult or impossible to achieve.
 - B) The decision usually takes more time.
 - C) The decision lacks other member's input.
 - D) All the above.
- 3. Decision making involves cognitive information processing and what other type of information processing?
 - A) Group
- B) Communicative
- C) Critical
- D) Psychological
- 4. Which of the following methods for group decision making is the most common?
- A) by the designated leaders
- B) by majority vote
- C) by consensus
- D) all of the above

4.4 ORGANISATIONAL COMPLIANCE

According to Merriam Webster dictionary, "Compliance is theact or process of complying to a desire, demand, proposal, or regimen, or to coercion".

Compliance is an outcome of conforming to a rule. This rule can be arising from an external source such as a law or regulation, or an internal source such as a policy or control. Compliance with these external and internal sources leads to external and internal compliance. Organisational compliance implies solid efforts of an organization to stop, detect, and act in response suitability to illegal behaviour linked with the activities of those individuals working on behalf of an organisation. This includes administrators, managers, executives, employees, agents. Besides, on practical grounds, a compliance programme provides a support to the organization's goals, knows the limits of legal and moral activities, and produces a system to make the

management aware of situations when the organization is getting close to or crossing a limit towards any complication that prevents the attainment of an objective.

The core of effective organisation compliance programme bears around and well communicated code of ethics. This code should describe the desired outcome of behaviour within an organization. A faultless code can reinforce the power and capability of the management of the organization to lead outstandingly.

Objectives of Organizational Compliance

Organizational objectives have similar goals that an organization triesto achieve in short or medium span. An organization's objectives will play a lead part in developing organizational strategies and determining the allocation of organizational resources. Achievement of objectives helps an organization reach its overall planned objectives. Target objectives can include many points. One can set a single objective for one's organization or number of objectives. One can set target deadlines for the achievement of objectives. The decision-makers must be committed to complete the objectives. Organizational policies will come into play, with distinct interests supporting the advance of objectives that are best for them. This normally results in bargaining between various interest groups in the organization, which results in objectives that are satisfactory to the key organizational groups. Finally, we must take into account factors that can hinder setting and achieving objectives, such as:

- Time.
- Institutional,
- Financial,
- and Environmental constraints.

Elements of Compliance Program

There are eight elements of effective compliance programs that fall within three approaches:

1. Prevention

- Written code of conduct
- Compliance officer and oversight
- Training or awareness

2. Detection

- Reporting
- Monitoring/auditing
- No harassment

3. Corrective Action

- Investigations
- Disciplinary policies

How to Manage Compliance in the Education Field?

Compliance failures can be incredibly damaging for the numerous universities and colleges throughout the world, especially with increasing media vigilance. There have been many high-profile examples of costly fails.

Universities use great resources to ensure high standards of operations in education, research, preservation of knowledge and other significant activities. Each and every member of an institution has their responsibility in management of the resources (time, budget, attention, personnel and other resources). Professional and ethical practices and processes serve as control mechanisms throughout every operation. Compliance management supports responsible operations ranging from admission processes to quality control by focusing on compliance with laws and regulations.

The most obvious penalties of major compliance failures are monetary fines and expenses. But, there are other negative outcomes, including restrictions on programs &human resources. Moreover, there are problems of potential lawsuits, and damage to the reputation and financial stability of one's institution.

Suggestions for Implementing of an Effective Compliance Program

Create Solid Programme and Policies

A well-defined code of conduct, along with organization's policies and procedures are the foundation of organisation's compliance program. Their ultimate purpose should be to protect the organization from risk - both external, legal risks as well as internal ones.

Staff Training

Policies and procedures won't do much unless institution's staff is familiar with them. Education and training are also an essential part of an effective compliance program. Remember that new employees aren't the only ones who need training. Ongoing training and education based on areas of risk are important. They are a part of maintaining an active culture of compliance.

Effective Communication

It is important to maintain open lines of communication between employees and management, between students and teachers & management and partner organizations. It is vital to create an environment where people feel safe bringing up concerns or mistakes.

Internal Audits

By conducting regular audits, educational institutions can identify areas of risk before they become a problem. After that it is better to prioritize areas for improvement, and gain a deeper understanding of processes and procedures, since they currently exist at the facility of the institution.

Documents and Record Keeping

Documentation and record keeping is an important part of an effective compliance program and this means having effective technology in place. Spreadsheets can only go so far in effectively tracking compliance before the struggle with scalability and reliability becomes too difficult to manage. With a system in place,

educational manager can easily track and report out on the errors in compliance so that he can remedy risk areas with targeted education.

Effective programs ensure that educational organizations are:

- Operating in accordance with applicable laws and regulations
- Creating a culture of honesty and integrity
- Meeting high ethical and professional standards
- Preventing fraud and abuse and other compliance issues
- Detecting compliance issues at earlier stages
- Assuring prompt corrective action
- Creating a culture of ethical and compliance behaviour
- Building employee trust and confidence

Precisely speaking, compliance is a result of conforming to rules. Organisation compliance is effected by these rules. Mostly compliance with set rules is effected by time, institutional and financial constraints. One can overcome these hurdles with proper record keeping, effective communication, honest and integrated environment and by building confidence and trust.

Check Your Progress-II

Note: a) Answer the questions given below

- b) Compare your answer with those given at the end of the lesson
- 1. Effective programme for organisational compliance ensures:
- A. Creating a culture of honesty and integrity
- B. Assuring prompt corrective action
- C. Creating a culture of ethical and compliance behaviour
- D. All of the above
- 2. Approaches of compliance programme includes:
- A. Prevention
- B. Detection
- C. Correction
- D. All of the above

4.5 ORGANISATION DEVELOPMENT (OD)

OD offers an approach to bringing about a positive change in organisation efficiency and effectiveness. OD is a process of planned change organisation-wide to increase organisation effectiveness through changing the methods or process by which work is done.

OD takes organisations to higher levels of performance by excelling. It aims at building internal competencies and teams in the organisation. It focuses on behaviour and uses various behavioural tools.

Features of OD

Some important features of OD are:

- Planned change is needed due to various factors both external and internal to the organisation.
- OD's major focus is to improve the functioning of individuals, teams and the total organisation.
- OD aims at teaching members in the organisation to continuously learn to improve their functioning and able to solve their own problems.
- OD emphasis is in improving organisation's, effectiveness and culture objectives of OD

Some important objectives or benefits which OD achieves are:

- OD represents a viable strategy for improving organisation effectiveness and enhancing the quality of work life of members.
- It makes organisation better able to achieve both the goals of the organisation and goals of individuals within the organisation. OD helps solve problems that adversely affect the operational efficiency at all levels.
- OD keeps work organisation productive as well as hospitable for members.
- Its focus is in developing total organisation.
- OD is collaborative management of organisation culture. To enhance human values which members consider important in organisation life.

Why is change needed in organisation?

There are many answers. The reasons may be due to developments in the external environment to which organisation may respond such as customer expectations, service needs, technological changes leading to process and product innovations, global market and competition, etc. However, change is sometimes required because of the organisation is having internal problems. For example, if the employees are angry because management has been unresponsive to certain human relations problems, there is need to change part of management.

How to know organization is having problems?

One way of getting some feedback on the organisation at large is to examine its organisational climate. Organisational climate is determined by knowing the attitudes and perceptions the employees have about the organisation's leadership, products, pay, employee benefits, discipline, policies and goals. It includes two aspects: Formal and informal aspects.

Formal aspects are readily observable and oriented to structural considerations.

Informal aspects are hidden from view and oriented to social-psychological process and behavioural considerations.

The major difference between formal and informal organisational aspects are that the formal aspects are visible and also that if there is something wrong with the formal aspects, we can adjust them. If someone is inefficient, we can find why and try to deal with the problem. However, if there is a lack of trust and openness in the organisation, how does one identify this problem before it begins to create trouble. Usually we do not know what is going on in the informal organisation until problems begin.

Trends and future of OD

In the changing environment OD focus has also grown. OD has gained certain fundamental strengths.

Kirk Patrick has stresses three aspects:

- I. Empathy: Managers should empathise with feelings and reactions of those who are affected by change.
- II. Communication: It is important in sharing about expected change and reasons for it. It has to be well in advance.
- III. Participation: It can be done in two ways: one way is to receive input from subordinates before change is made. And other way is to allow participate input into the change itself.

Ernst and Young have focused on learning approach, i.e. learning at individual and group levels applicable to organisational change, i.e.

- Learning applying to work
- Sharing learning (knowledge) with others
- We learn unconsciously.
- Helping others to set and meet learning goals
- Establishing an environment conducive to work place learning
- Providing feedback to others on their learning accomplishments so that they can improve performance.
- Recording and transferring learning.

Check Your Progress - 3

Note:(a) Answer the questions given below.

- (b) Compare your answers with those given at end of the lesson.
- 1. The inherent challenge of organizational development and change is
 - A) the retention of employees
 - B) the need to develop learning mechanisms
 - C) maintaining a competitive advantage
 - D) none of the above
- 2. Which of the following is not an integral component of an organization?

- A) Innovation
- B) work design
- C) culture
- D) learning
- 3. The process of organizational change includes
 - A) organizational learning
 - B) the management of change
 - C) organizational development
 - D) all of the above
- 4. Which one of these is not a characteristic of OD?
 - A) Aimed at increasing Organization effectiveness
 - B) Planned
 - C) Long term

4.6 PERT- PROGRAM EVALUATION AND REVIEW TECHNIQUE

Developed by the special projects office of the US Navy, PERT was first formally applied to the applied to the planning and control of the Polaris Weapon System in 1958 and worked well in expediting the completion of that program. For a number of years, it was so enthusiastically received by the armed services that it became virtually a required tool or major contractors and subcontractors in the armament and space industry. Although PERT is no longer much heard of in defence and space contracts, its fundamentals are still essential tools of planning and control. Moreover, in a host of nongovernmental applications, including construction, engineering and tooling projects and even such simple tasks as the scheduling of activities to produce monthly financial reports, PERT or its companion network techniques , the critical path method, may be used.

PERT have been used for a variety of projects, including the following types.

- 1. Construction of a new plant
- 2. Research and development of a new product
- 3. NASA space exploration projects
- 4. Movie productions
- 5. Building a ship
- 6. Government-sponsored projects for developing a new weapons system
- 7. Relocation of a major facility
- 8. Maintenance of a nuclear reactor
- 9. Installation of a management information system

10. Conducting an advertising campaign

Major features of PERT

PERT is a time-event network analysis system in which the various events in a program or project are identified, with a planned time established for each. These events are placed in a network showing the relationships of each event to the other events. In a sense, PERT is a variation of milestone budgeting.

The Basic of a PERT Chart

PERT is an acronym for Program Evaluation Review Technique which is a visual representation of steps for a project to efficiently finish it on time.

It's usually the product of breaking down huge tasks, listing it according to priority, and arranging it into a chart or graph for a bird's eye view of the whole project-making it clear and motivating to accomplish. There are a lot of styles and formats to choose from online and it doesn't have a standard way of doing it. You can use whichever is convenient for you. The goal is to start plotting tasks backwards from the due date to ensure that you'll accomplish the project on time. Writing it out on paper is the best way to plot tasks and sequence of events. But if you find it comfortable to directly create it on a computer application or program, do it.

Creating a PERT Chart

A PERT chart needs the full outline of a project with a checklist and a specific timeline. Project managers are the ones in charge of overseeing progress and the people who know best to construct a PERT chart. They know the details of the project, can breakdown tasks, accurately categorize it in order of priority, assigning people responsible for each task, as well as estimate the deadlines for each milestone.

Once all the goals, tasks, people involved, etc. are laid out, a PERT chart can now be created. Depending on the size and scope of the project, it can span from simple to highly complicated. The remarkable thing about using a PERT chart is that it's not convoluted and therefore, team members can easily see what's next on the list.

To successfully manage your project using a PERT chart, consider the following tips:

- **Tip 1:** Whether or not you're the one setting the deadline, think things carefully before mapping out the PERT chart. Pay attention to details and check if the due dates are feasible along with the workload involved.
- **Tip 2:** When working backwards from the due date, assume the necessity for wiggle room, in case a setback occurs and rattles the project timeline-or the unexpected happens.
- **Tip 3:** Use the Critical Path Analysis (CPA) planning tool to assist you in organizing your PERT chart. It can help you identify which tasks can be delayed, if necessary, and which ones must not fall behind.

Strengths and Weaknesses of PERT

There are five important advantages of PERT. First, it forces managers to plan because it is impossible to make a time-event analysis without planning and seeing how the pieces fit together. Second, it forces planning all the way down the line because each subordinate manager must plan the event for which he or she is responsible. Third, it concentrates attention on critical elements that may need correction. Fourth, it

makes possible a kind of forward-looking control; a delay will affect succeeding events and possibly the whole project, unless the manager can make up the time by shortening the time allocated to some action in the future. Fifth, the network system with its subsystems enables managers to aim reports and pressure for action at the right spot and level in the organization structure at the right time.

PERT also has certain limitations. Because of the importance of activity time to its operation, the technique is not useful when a program is nebulous and no reasonable "guesstimates" of schedule can be made. When a project is extremely complex, it would be difficult to break it down into workable sections.

Check Your Progress - 3

Note: (a) Answer the questions give below

- (b) Compare your answer with those given at the end of the lesson.
- 1. Which is not a feature of PERT
 - A) An estimate of how long a project will take.
 - B) A graphical display of project activities
 - C) An indication of critical activities.
 - D) All are features.
- 2. The distribution that is used to represent path times is the
 - A) Bivariate
 - B) Beta
 - C) Normal
 - D) Poisson
- 3. An important assumption in PERT calculations is:
 - A) activity times are normally distributed.
 - B) activity times are independent
 - C) a computer will be available to do the calculations
 - D) Both a and c
- 4. Using a PERT chart helps a supervisor determine
 - A) Hiring needs
 - B) Choice of suppliers
 - C) Sequence of critical events
 - D) All of the above
- 5. An organization's strategic plan
 - A) Is developed by teams of front-line employees

- B) Includes input from suppliers
- C) Examines opportunities, threats, strengths, and weaknesses
- D) All of the above

4.7 LET US SUM UP

The future belongs to organisations that can provide enough variety to their employees'. Leadership will be everything Structures will have to flatter, with greater emphasis on teams and partners. There is a change in the corporate mindset. Senior managers are becoming aware that financial performance is a lagged outcome measure, and should be treated as such. What matters is measures like what happens deep within the firm, in particular the trust and commitment employees feeltowards their organisation and the context of skill-building which occurs. Power has shifted from organisations to individuals. The generation which is now entering the workforce is very different from the ruling one. More autonomous, more keen to establish a balance between work and life outside of work, they see themselves as free agents.

4.8 LESSON END EXERCISE

- 1) What is OD? Why is it undertaken by the organisations?
- 2) How organisational compliance of an organisation can be determined?
- 3) Discuss the strengths and weaknesses of PERT
- 4) Explain objectives of Organisational compliance. How can compliance in education field be managed ?
- 5) Differentiate between Programmed and non-programmed decisions

4.9 SUGGESTED FURTHER READINGS

Adair, J. (1984). Skills of Leadership. England: Gower Publishing Limited

Aswathappa, K. (2010). Organisational behaviour: Text, cases & games. New Delhi: Himalaya Publishing House

Bhatia, S.K. (2003). Management of change and organisation development: Innovative approaches and strategies. New Delhi: Deep & Deep publications

Koontz, H., & Weihrich, H. (2010). Essentials of Management: An International Perspective. New Delhi: Tata McGraw Hill Education Private Limited

4.10 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Check your progress -1 1-D, 2-C, 3-D, 4-D

Check your progress - 2 1-D, 2-D,

Check your progress -3 1-B, 2-A, 3-D, 4-D

Check your progress -4 1-D, 2-C, 3-B, 4-C, 5-C

Lesson No. 5 Unit-1I

APPROACHES TO EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

STRUCTURE

5.1	Introduction
5.2	Objectives
5.3	Concept of Educational Management
5.4	Significance of Approaches in Educational Management
5.5	Concept of Trait Based Approach to Educational Management
5.6	Adaptability of Trait Based Approach to Educational Management
5.7	Limitations of Trait Based Approach to Educational Management
5.8	Concept of Behaviour Based Approach to Educational Management
5.9	Principles of Behaviour Based Approach
5.10	Adaptability of Behaviour Based Approach to Educational Management
5.11	Limitations of Trait Based Approach to Educational Management
5.12	Let Us Sum Up
5.13	Lesson End Exercise
5.14	Suggested Further Readings

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Education management generally refers to the work and positions within a system of education that are not directly involved in the education of students. In other words, education administrators are those people who work at a school or school district in a managerial capacity but are not teachers, such as principals, vice principals, and school district administrators. These administrators typically work to ensure teachers are able to do their jobs and are properly instructing students as well as managing budgetary issues for a school and district, and setting curriculum standards and achievement goals for students in a district. Education administration is typically performed by people who were previously teachers or by other individuals with a degree in education.

Management of any organization, education or otherwise, may be defined as working with the through individuals and groups of individuals to accomplish its goals. This is exactly what a manager or a leader is required to do. He has to manage his institution. It means he must achieve the goals of the organization with the help of other people working in the organization and also with the help of the needed technology and all the inputs available. For effective educational management, some appropriate approaches need be adopted.

5.2 **OBJECTIVES**

After reading this lesson, you shall be able to:

- Describe the concept of Trait Based Approach of Educational management.
- Explain the key principles of Trait Based Approach.
- Explain the adaptability of Trait Based Approach in Indian setup.
- Analyse the limitations of Trait Based Approach.
- comprehend the concept of Behaviour Based Approach of Educational management.
- Describe the key principles of Behaviour Based Approach.
- Explain the adaptability of Behaviour Based Approach in Indian setup.
- List out the limitations of Behaviour Based Approach.

5.3 CONCEPT OF EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

Management implies an orderly way of thinking. It describes in operator terms what is to be done, how it is to be done and how we know when have done. Management is not a mystique. It is a method of operation. Good management should result in an orderly integration of education and society "School management, as a body of educational doctrines, comprises a number of principles and precepts relating primarily to the technique of classroom procedure and derives largely from the practice of successful teachers. The writers in the field have interpreted these principles and precepts in various ways, usually with reference to longer and more fundamental principles of psychology, sociology and ethics.

There is no single all-embracing theory of educational management. In part this reflects the astonishing diversity of educational institutions, ranging from small rural elementary schools to very large universities and colleges. It relates also to the varied nature of the problems encountered in schools and colleges, which require different approaches and solutions. Above all, it reflects the multifaceted nature of theory in education and the social sciences.

Educational management operates in educational organizations. As Tony **Bush** (1986), puts it as, "Most of the definitions of educational management which have been offered by writers are partial because they reflect the particular sense of author. Those which attempt a broader approach are often bland."

Educational Organizations should be considered socio-technical systems. They are unique organizations whose basic components are the individuals and technology. There is, however, little technology used by educational organizations. Largely, it is the manpower and human resource on whose manipulation they survive and make

progress. The individuals constitute, by and large, the most important unit of these organizations. In every society one can find various types of educational organizations from nursery schools to universities and research organizations besides highly differentiated and complex administrative department's set-up by the governments. These organizations are established for the purpose of achieving certain specific goals.

5.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF APPROACHES IN EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

Educational management is the study and practice of managing the resources, task and communication involved in running school. Educational management is a discipline within the study of education that examines the administrative theory and practice of education in general and educational institutions and educators in particular. Educational management has a vast area of operation ranging from planning to budget in an effort to make the educational process purposive and functional.

There is no single all-embracing theory of educational management. In part this reflects the astonishing diversity of educational institutions, ranging from small rural elementary schools to very large universities and colleges. It relates also to the varied nature of the problems encountered in schools and colleges, which require different approaches and solutions. Above all, it reflects the multifaceted nature of theory in education and the social sciences.

5.5 CONCEPT OF TRAIT BASED APPROACH TO EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

Prior to 1960 it was assumed that effective leaders have certain unique personality qualities. Everyone cannot succeed as a leader. Only those persons who are endowed with certain personality traits are likely to succeed as leaders. These qualities may be termed as leadership qualities. According to these views personality of the individual was considered to control his leadership role. Hence, all Educational research in this field prior to 1960 concentrated on finding out if personality traits were in any way associated with leadership. A large number of researches were conducted with this aim in view But, the results were disappointing. As early as 1948 Ralph Stogdil, after a thorough survey of literature, had concluded that there was little to support the hypothesis that personality traits were related to effective leadership. Research in the field did not find any relationship between personal characteristics and leadership. Richard Mann also reported a similar view in 1959. Bernard Bass said the same thing in 1960. Hence the trait, approach to leadership was soon discarded in the late 1950s. Then, came behavioural approaches which shifted the emphasis from personality traits to actual behaviours of the leaders and tried to identify those behaviours that make for success as leaders. The trait model of leadership is based on the characteristics of many leaders-both successful and unsuccessful and is used to predict leadership effectiveness. The resulting lists of traits are then compared to those of potential leaders to assess their likelihood of success or failure.

5.5 PRINCIPLES OF TRAIT BASED APPROACH

Some key principles have been identified, which are outlined as follows:

• Individual Behaviour: Individual behaviour is closely linked with the Behaviour of the group to which he belongs. The group dictates changes in his Behaviour. Individuals observe those work standards which are prescribed by the group.

- **Informal Leadership:** Informal leadership, rather than formal authority of managers is more important for setting and enforcing group standards of performance. A leader/manager may be more effective and acceptable to subordinates, if he adopts the democratic style of leadership.
- Participation: If the subordinates are encouraged and allowed to participate in establishing goals, there will be positive effect on their attitude towards work. If employees are involved in planning, designing the jobs and decision-making, there will be least resistance to changes effected in technology and work methods.
- Motivation by Self-Control and Self-Development: Behavioural scientists maintain that by nature most people enjoy work and are motivated by self-control and self-development. Managers should try to identity and provide necessary conditions conducive to the proper and sufficient use of human potential. The manager's attitude towards human behaviour should be positive. They should know that average man is not lazy by nature. But he is ambition. Every man likes to work and prefers to assume responsibilities. MacGregor maintains that employees favour self-direction and self-control. Behaviourists believe that in place of the concept of social man the concept of self-actualizing man would be more appropriate to explain human motivations. Chester I. Bernard pointed out that material reward is of crucial signification only up to a definite point. The incentives of status, power, good physical conditions opportunities of participation and good social (i.e., cultural interrelationships) are very important.
- **Informal Organization:** Behaviourists particularly Bernard, consider informer organization as an essential part of the formal organization. Informer organization must always be taken into account while determining managerial behaviour.
- General Supervision Not Close One: As regards supervision of subordinates, Behaviourists particularly Likert, are not in favour of close supervision. They advocate general supervision, which tends to be associated with high productivity.

5.6 ADAPTABILITY OF TRAIT BASED APPROACH TO EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

Trait theory also focuses on the difference between leaders and followers. With the assumption that people in leadership positions would display more traits than those in subordinate positions. However, there are relatively few traits that distinguish between the two. Leaders tend to be higher in things such as extroversion, self-confidence, and height, while the differences tend to be small. For example, if the leader is extroverted, that individual is outgoing, straight-forward, and usually has a huge ego. If he or she is introverted, they are usually timid, have terrible social skills and usually lack the ability to lead followers.

The strength of the trait perspectives is their ability to categorize observable behaviours. Researchers have found that examining the aggregate behaviours of individuals provides a strong correlation with traits; in other words, observing the behaviours of an individual over time and in varying circumstances provides evidence for the personality traits categorized in trait theories. Trait theories use objective criteria for categorizing and measuring behaviour. One possible proof of this is that several trait theories were developed independently of each other when factor analysis was used to conclude a specific set of traits. While developing their theories

independently of each other, trait theorists often arrived at a similar set of traits

5.7 LIMITATIONS OF TRAIT BASED APPROACH TO EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

- i. It is naturally pleasing theory and valid as lot of research has validated the foundation and basis of the theory.
- ii. It serves as a yardstick against which the leadership traits of an individual can be assessed. It gives a detailed knowledge and understanding of the leader element in the leadership process. Nonetheless, defining expertise solely with personality traits would undermine previous research findings, which assert that expertise is also a matter of skills, mainly problem-solving skills

Check your progress: 1							
Note: a) Answer the questions in the space given below.							
b) Compare your answers with the above sub section.							
1. List out the key principles of Trait based approach.							
2. What are the main limitations of Trait based approach to educational management							

5.8 CONCEPT OF BEHAVIOUR BASED APPROACH TO EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

The shortcomings of the trait theory led to a significant change in the emphasis of leadership approach. This shift in emphasis began to focus attention on the actual behaviour and actions of leaders as against personal qualities or traits of leaders. According to this approach, leadership involves an interpersonal relationship between a leader and subordinates in which the behaviour of the leader towards the subordinates constitute the most critical element. The good behaviour of the leader raises the morale, builds up confidence and spirit among the team members and lack of good behaviour will discard him as a leader.

The behavioural theory of leadership focuses on what leaders do and how they behave. As theorists shifted their focus from traits to behaviours, they also moved from notions of "leaders" to "leadership", which became the dominant style of approaching organizational leadership in the 1950s and early 1960s. Different patterns of behaviour were grouped together and labelled as styles. The theory assumes that certain leadership styles will be effective while others will not. Determining goals, motivating employees for achieving the goals, effective communication, ability to interact effectively, building team spirit, etc. are the functional behaviours of a successful leader.

The theory's key divergence from trait theory is that it gives greater credence to the belief that leadership can be taught and developed, and that behaviours can be conditioned so that a leader or manager can have a

specific response to specific stimuli. Rather than identifying inherent traits this theory looks at what leaders actually do by studying their behaviours in response to different situations, assessing the success of these behaviour types and then correlating significant behaviours with success. The practical application of the theory is that leader's behaviour affects their performance and different leadership behaviours could be appropriate at different times. The best leaders are those who are able to adapt their behavioural style, and choose the appropriate one for each situation.

Management principles developed during the classical period were simply not useful in dealing with many management situations and could not explain the behaviour of individual employees. In short, classical theory ignored employee motivation and behaviour. As a result, the behavioural school was a natural outgrowth of this revolutionary management experiment. The period of the behavioural approach is characterized by efforts of various persons and group to apply the knowledge from the behavioural sciences to refine and extend the scientific and human relations approaches. The approach requires the management or administrator to apply the knowledge of human behaviour as obtained in various disciplines such as psychology, sociology, economics, authorial anthropology and psychiatry as managerial instrument.

The behavioural theory is sometimes called the human relations movement because it addresses the human dimension of work. Behavioural theorists believed that a better understanding of human behaviour at work, such as motivation, conflict, expectations, and group dynamics, improved productivity. The theorists who contributed to this school viewed employees as individuals, resources, and assets to be developed and worked with - not as machines, as in the past. Several individuals and experiments contributed to this theory.

Behavioural approach reflects the findings of rigorous studies carried out by Behavioural scientists like Chester I Bernard, Douglas McGregor, Chris Argyris, A.H. Maslow, Herzberg, Rensis Likert etc. Many of the conclusions of the Hawthorne studies have been reaffirmed by subsequent research studies. Moreover, certain ideas have been refined, extended and these behaviour scientists have highlighted other important ideas. These scientists have tried to eliminate the exaggeration of the importance of informal relations These approaches focussed on not what leaders are like, but on what they do to help groups accomplish their tasks. The major assumption underlying these theories was that leadership is a highly dynamic relationship between an individual and other members of the group in a specific environment. The relationship must be expressed in certain specific behaviours. Hence, it should be explored through research, what these behaviours are that contribute to effective leadership.

Research, now, was directed to identifying behaviour patterns or styles of effective leadership. Voluminous research accumulated in the field which was, finally, crystallized into certain theories of leadership. Most of these studies were conducted during the 1960s and 1970s. A systematic analysis of the behaviour patterns of persons in positions of leadership was made. In recognition of the fact that leader's behaviour patterns may change in accordance with the situation, attention was shifted towards a situational or contingency approach.

5.9 PRINCIPLES OF BEHAVIOUR BASED APPROACH

There are various principles of Behaviour based approach of educational management, which should be followed to maximize the results.

a) Negative consequences sometimes change behaviour, but they do not change attitude.

In children who consider consequence structures, negative on sequences such as time out, sentence writing, restriction of privileges, verbal correction, and physical punishment, as well as others, will effect at least temporary behaviour change. Unless used in combination with equally powerful positive reinforcement strategies, they will, however, worsen the negative attitudes that underlie the misbehaviour and increase the likelihood of subsequent misbehaviour.

Only positive reinforcement strategies produce long-term attitudinal change.

As children grow older and into adulthood, positive behaviour is not maintained through the threat of negative consequences; it is maintained because the individual has an internal attitude or value system, which discriminates between right and wrong behaviours. In the long term, children behave properly because they want to, not because they are forced to.

c) Negative consequences do not improve the behaviour of impulsive children and frequently increase the frequency and intensity of misbehaviour.

Impulsive children, by definition, do not consider the consequence structure prior to initiation of the behaviour. No matter how negative the consequence, it cannot influence behaviour unless it is considered prior to the behaviour itself. In impulsive children, the consideration of the consequences comes after the behaviour, meaning that it has been outside conscious cognitive control. When punished for behaviours that are outside their control, they learn helplessness and respond emotionally with anger, resignation, and eventually depression.

d) Cognitive control of behaviour can be learned through the use of appropriate positive reinforcement systems.

Even very impulsive and behaviourally difficult children can learn greater behavioural control through cognitive strategies. Time out works very well if used for brief periods for the purpose of establishing emotional control and behavioural calm, and if the time-out period is followed by cognitive discussion of the reasons for misbehaviour with appropriate positive alternatives. Where possible, the alternative positive behaviours should be practiced and positively reinforced, even if the behaviour occurs only with the direct instigation of an adult. Cognitive cueing strategies, which rely on nonverbal cues for self-control, are the most effective long term strategy for controlling impulsive behaviour, but their effective use requires much consistency and patience on the part of the adults involved in the behaviour management system.

e) Positive reinforcement systems must be incremental in nature such that the child can directly observe even small improvements in behaviour.

Many children with significant behavioural problems are very discouraged regarding the possibility that they can effect positive changes in their lives. Positive reinforcement systems which have expectations set too high, such that it is difficult for the child to earn rewards at the outset are a cause of further discouragement and have a negative effect on esteem. Systems that have expectations too low however, where almost all children involved in the program receive the same reward, devalue the accomplishments of the child who makes very significant progress, and can be equally esteem defeating. Well-designed positive reinforcement

systems rely on incremental rewards where the range of reinforcement varies from no reinforcement to mild reinforcement to moderate reinforcement to intense reinforcement, so that the child can witness in a visible and tangible way relative levels of progress.

f) You must always reinforce the final compliance with adult authority no matter how long it takes to get there.

Many children in management systems require numerous requests, or even commands, before their behaviour finally complies with adult expectation. The tendency is to not provide positive reinforcement after many reminders, since adult patience is limited and the adult expectation is that the child should do what he is told the first time. Unfortunately, if no positive reinforcement is provided following the final compliance, all that children learn is that there is no reason to comply. The imposition of negative consequences following compliance only increases the likelihood that non-compliant behaviour will occur in the future.

5.10 ADAPTABILITY OF BEHAVIOUR BASED APPROACH TO EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

The Behaviour based approach's key divergence from trait theory is that it gives greater credence to the belief that leadership can be taught and developed, and that behaviours can be conditioned so that a leader or manager can have a specific response to specific stimuli. Rather than identifying inherent traits this theory looks at what leaders actually do by studying their behaviours in response to different situations, assessing the success of these behaviour types and then correlating significant behaviours with success. The practical application of the theory is that leader's behaviour affects their performance and different leadership behaviours could be appropriate at different times. The best leaders are those who are able to adapt their behavioural style, and choose the appropriate one for each situation.

These two dimensions, since then, have been used by a number of researchers and experts in the field with different nomenclatures. Parsons (1951) and Bales (1953) have termed them as instrumental and expressive dimensions. Stogdill and Coons (1957) and Brown (1967) have named them as System Oriented and Person Oriented dimensions. Brown (1967) has also given them the names of control and cathectic dimensions. Getzels and Guba (1957) have titled them as nomothetic and idiographic dimensions. Fiedler (1967) used the terms task-oriented and relationship-oriented for these two dimensions. All these names and terms mean the same thing. The history of theoretical considerations underlying these two leader-behaviour dimensions may be traced back to the reflections of two of the earliest schools of thought, scientific management and human relations theory. Scientific management or Taylorism started by Frederick Winslow Taylor in the early 1900s emphasized increased production (task) by manipulating men, machines, and technology. Setting up performance criteria to meet organizational goals by the leader was considered by him supreme. Focus on needs of the organization was of supreme importance for him.

On the other hand, human relations movement initiated by Elton Mayo and his associates in the 1920s and early 1930s argued that apart from Considering the task important, it was also beneficial to look into human affairs, interpersonal relations being the real power-centres in the organizations. The factions of the leader, as emphasized by this theory, were also to facilitate cooperative goal attainment among followers.

Individual needs, growth and development of the workers were also equally important. This is the same as relationship orientation dimension. But, in the 1950s and 1960s three theoretical considerations were verified and validated on the basis of liberal empirical research. They were also operationally defined so that their measurement could be possible. Not all of these experts have, however, defined these dimensions exactly in the same way. According to **Stogdill (1963)** each of his system-oriented and person oriented dimension of leader behaviour was thought to be consisting of six sub-sets of behaviour as follows:

- (a) **Systems-Oriented Behaviour Dimension :** This consists of the following six types of behaviours:
- i. Production emphasis
- ii. Initiating structure: i.e., establishment and clarification of roles, setting standards, assigning tasks of others and telling them what is expected of him and of others.
- iii. Representation: It entails acting as the spokesperson of the group, publicising the activities of the group, speaking for the group.
- iv. Role Assumption: Active exercise of the leadership position as opposed to surrendering it, exercising authority, assuming responsibility.
- v. Persuasiveness: Having firm conviction and also convincing others of his point of view, being assertive.
- vi. Superior-Orientation: Maintaining cordial relations with the superiors, exercising influence with higher authorities.
- **(b) Person-Oriented Behaviour Dimension:** This also consists of the following six subsets of behaviours:
- i. Tolerance of Uncertainty: It means leader's ability to accept postponement and indefiniteness without becoming anxious or upset waiting patiently for results.
- ii. Consideration: Leader's regard for the comfort, well-being, status and contribution of followers.
- iii Tolerance of Freedom: Permissiveness
- iv. Demand Reconciliation: Resolving complex problems efficiently, dealing with conflict demands.
- v. Integration: Maintaining a closely well-knit group
- vi. Predictive Accuracy: Able to anticipate outcomes, interpreting trends. Stogdill, however, said that no leader can be wholly system-oriented or wholly person-oriented. According to Brown (1967) leaders can be classified into three categories: (a) More system-oriented and less person-oriented. (b) More person-oriented and less system-oriented. (c) Equally system and person oriented. This is called by him a transaction style. It has been found that highly transactional style is associated with most measures of leader effectiveness

Check your progress 2:

Note: a) Answer the questions in the space given below.

- b) Compare your answers with the above sub section.
- 1. List out the main principles of Behaviour based approach to educational management (answer in about 40 words)

2.	Li	st ou	t the	issue	es pe	rtainin	g to	the	Beha	aviou	r bas	sed	appr	oach	to ec	lucation	onal	manage	ement
							• • • • • •												

5.11 LIMITATIONS OF BEHAVIOUR BASED APPROACH TO EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

This approach does not take into consideration the situational variables. A particular leadership style may be effective in one situation, but it may not be so effective or ineffective in another situation. In fact, the situation determines the effectiveness of a particular leadership style.

1. This approach does not consider the time factor also. A particular behaviour or action of the leader may be effective at one point of time while the same may be ineffective at some other point of time. Several theories where developed during 1950s and 1960s that approached leadership from the standpoint of actual behaviour of leaders.

5.12 LET US SUM UP

By the end of this lesson, you have come know that the trait approach focuses on the difference between leaders and followers. With the assumption that people in leadership positions would display more traits than those in subordinate positions. However, there are relatively few traits that distinguish between the two. Leaders tend to be higher in things such as extroversion, self-confidence, and height, while the differences tend to be small. Whereas, the behavioural theory of leadership focuses on what leaders do and how they behave. As theorists shifted their focus from traits to behaviours, they also moved from notions of "leaders" to "leadership", which became the dominant style of approaching organisational leadership in the 1950s and early 1960s. You might have gone through the contents of the lesson and understood the various aspects of Trait based and Behaviour based approaches to educational management.

5.13 UNIT END EXERCISE

- 1. Discuss the concept of Trait Based Approach.
- 2. Describe the key principles of Trait Based Approach with suitable examples.
- 3. Discuss the adaptability of Trait Based Approach in Indian Set up.
- 4. What are the major limitations of Trait Based Approach as a theory of management?
- 5. What is the concept of Behaviour Based Approach?
- 6. Describe the key principles of Behaviour Based Approach with suitable examples.
- 7. Explain the adaptability of Behaviour Based Approach in Indian Set up.

8. Explain the major limitations of Behaviour Based Approach as a theory of management.

5.14. SUGGESTED FURTHER READINGS

Burns, Tom, and G.M. Stalker. (1961) The Management of Innovation. London: Tavistock.

Fiedler, F. E. (2002). The curious role of cognitive resources in educational leader ship. In *Multiple intelligences* and educational leader ship, ed. R. E. Riggio, S. E. Murphy, and F. J. Pirozzolo, 91-104. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Fiedler, F. E., and T. G. Link. (1994). Educational leader intelligence, interpersonal stress, and task performance. In Mind in context: *Interactionist perspectives on human intelligence*, ed. R. J. Sternberg and R. K. Wagner, 152-65. New York: Cam-bridge University Press.

Fiedler, Fred E. A Theory of Educational leader ship Effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1965.

Frensch, P. A., and R. J. Sternberg. (1989). Expertise and intelligent thinking: When is it worse to know better? In *Advances in the psychology of human intelligence*, vol. 5, ed. R. J. Sternberg, 157-88, Hillsdale, N.J.: Erlbaum.

Gresov, Christopher, and Robert Drazin. (1995) "Equifinality: Functional Equivalence in Organizational Design." *Academy of Management Review*.

Groen, G. J., and V. L. Patel. (1985). The relationship between comprehension and reasoning in medical expertise. In *The nature of expertise*, ed. M. T. H. Chi, R. Glaser, and M. J. Farr, 287-310. Hillsdale, N. J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Jensen, A. R. (1995). The g factor: *The science of mental ability*. Westport, Conn.: Greenwood/Praeger.

Lawrence, Paul R., and Jay Lorsch. (1965) Organizations and Environment: Managing *Differentiation and Integration. Homewood: Irwin*.

Lubart, T. I., and R. J. Sternberg. (1995). An investment approach to creativity: Theory and data. In *The creative cognition approach*, ed. S. M. Smith, B. Ward, and R. A. Finke, 269- 302. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.

Polanyi, M. (1966). Tacit dimensions. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday. Sashkins, M. 1985. The visionary educational leader . In *Charismatic educational leader -ship*: The elusive factor in organizational effectiveness, ed. J. A. Conger and R. N. Kananga, 122-60. San Francisco.

Stogdill, R. M. (1945). Personal factors associated with educational leader -ship: A survey of the literature. *Journal of Psychology*, 25, 35-71.

Woodward, Joan. (1965) Industrial Organization: Theory and Practice. London: Oxford University Press.

Wren, Daniel A. (1994) The Evolution of Management Thought. 4th ed. New York: Wiley & Sons.

Lesson No. 6 Unit-II

SITUATION BASED APPROACH TO EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

STRUCTURE

1	1 1	r ,	1	, •
h	1 1	ntro	duc:	tion

- 6.2 Objectives
- 6.3 Concept of Situation Based Approach
- 6.4 Key Principles of Situation Based Approach
- 6.5 Adaptability of Situation Based Approach in Indian Educational Set Up
- 6.6 Key Advantages of Situational Based Leadersip
- 6.7 Limitations of Situation Based Approach
- 6.8 Let Us Sum Up
- 6.9 Lesson End Exercise
- 6.10 Suggested Further Readings

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Situational theory of leadership works on the assumption that the most effective style of leadership changes from situation to situation. To be most effective and successful, a leader must be able to adapt his style and approach to diverse circumstances. Situational leadership is flexible. It adapts to the existing work environment and the needs of the organisation. In the present lesson you will understand the concept and key principles of situation based approach to educational management. You will also learn the adaptability of situation based approach in Indian setup. You will also be exposed to the advantages and limitations of situation based approach to educational management.

6.2 **OBJECTIVES**

After reading this lesson, you shall be able to:

- Describe the concept of Situation Based Approach.
- Illustrate the historical overview of Situation Based Approach.
- Explain the key principles of Situation Based Approach.

- Explain the adaptability of Situation Based Approach in Indian setup.
- Describe the major characteristics of the Situation Based Educational Leadership theory.
- Analyse the limitations of Situation Based Approach.

6.3 CONCEPT OF SITUATION BASED APPROACH

The situational theory of educational leadership believes that educational leadership must be matching with the maturity of their subordinates. Moreover, there is no alternate way to lead affectively but to adapt situation and transform the style whatever the educational leadership possess formerly. This theory demands that the style must be relationship and task oriented (Yukl & Fleet, 1992). Among these factors, changing aspects were grounded upon extent of task behaviour (control, direction & accomplish), the socio-emotive backing, the followers required behaviour, the willingness (commitment and competence) in task performing and last but not least the purpose and objectives.

The factors defining the adaptation of educational leadership style are an assessment of the commitment level and the competence of both the followers and educational leaders. The valuation of the said dynamics can be ascertained if educational leader adapts more supportive and directive style. Situational theory recommends that the effectiveness and the ultimate success of educational leader are contingent upon coherence between particular situation, its format and concerned educational leaders. A situation, within this context, is a "set of values and attitudes with which the individual or group has to deal in a process of activity and with regard to which this activity is planned and its results appreciated. Every concrete activity is the solution of a situation." Situations can be complicated affairs and generally have five elements:

- the structure of interpersonal relationships within the group;
- the characteristics of the group as a whole;
- the characteristics of the group's environment from which members come;
- physical constraints on the group; and
- the perceptual representation, within the group and among its members, of these elements and the "attitudes and values engendered by them".

6.4 KEY PRINCIPLES OF SITUATION BASED APPROACH

Another approach to educational leadership is the situational approach, the basic premise of which is that different situations demand different types of educational leader ship. This approach was developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1969) based on Reddin's (1967) 3-D management style theory.

A situation, within this context, is a "set of values and attitudes with which the individual or group has to deal in a process of activity and with regard to which this activity is planned and its results appreciated. Every concrete activity is the solution of a situation." Situations can be complicated affairs and generally have five elements:

- the structure of interpersonal relationships within the group;
- the characteristics of the group as a whole;
- the characteristics of the group's environment from which members come;
- physical constraints on the group; and
- the perceptual representation, within the group and among its members, of these elements and the "attitudes and values engendered by them" (from the International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences, edited by David L. Sills).

Situational influences thus constrain the educational leader who must adapt his or her style of educational leader ship to the situation at hand. Situational educational leadership, according to Northouse, has both a directive and a supportive dynamic character. A situationally motivated educational leader realizes that the skills and motivation of any group member are not static and the mix of the educational leader's supportive and directive activities must likewise change with the situation. The situational approach has been refined and revised several times since its inception and it has been used extensively in organizational educational leadership training and development. Situational leaders evaluate the situation, the circumstances, and the individuals involved in their approach. Then they choose the most appropriate type of leadership style to use for that given circumstance. Instead of being locked into one general leadership style, all of them are incorporated into their approach.

i. Hersey-Blanchard's situational model

The Hersey-Blanchard Model of Situational Educational leadership, shown in Figure, is based on the amount of direction (task behavior) and amount of socio-emotional support (relationship behavior) an educational leader must provide given the situation and the level of maturity of the followers.

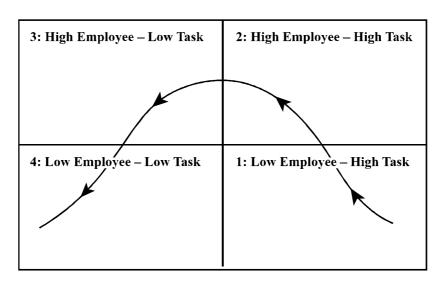


Figure 1

Hersey-Blanchard's Model of Situational Leadership.

- a) Task behaviour is the extent to which the educational leader engages in spelling out the duties and responsibilities to an individual or group. This behaviour includes telling people what to do, how to do it, when to do it, and where to do it. In task behaviour, the educational leader engages in one-way communication.
- b) Relationship behaviour, on the other hand, is the extent to which the educational leader engages in two way or multi-way communications. This behaviour includes listening to, facilitating, and supporting employees. And maturity is the willingness and ability of a person to take responsibility for directing his own behaviour. Employees tend to have varying degrees of maturity, depending on the specific tasks, functions, or objectives that they attempt to accomplish.

To determine the appropriate educational leadership style to use in a given situation, an educational leader must first determine the maturity levels of his or her followers in relationship to the specific task. As employee maturity levels increase, a educational leader should begin to reduce task behaviour and increase relationship behaviour until his or her followers reach moderate maturity levels. As the employees move into above - average maturity levels, the educational leader should decrease not only task behaviour but also relationship behaviour.

Once maturity levels are identified, a manager can determine the appropriate educational leadership style: telling, selling, participating, or delegating.

- i. **Telling.** This style reflects high task/low relationship behavior (S1). The educational leader provides clear instructions and specific direction. Telling style is best matched with a low follower readiness level.
- ii. **Selling.** This style reflects high task/high relationship behavior (S2). The educational leader encourages two-way communication and helps build confidence and motivation on the part of the employee, although the educational leader still has responsibility and controls decision making. Selling style is best matched with a moderate follower readiness level.
- iii. **Participating.** This style reflects high relationship/low task behavior (S3). With this style, the educational leader and followers share decision making and no longer need or expect the relationship to be directive. Participating style is best matched with a moderate follower readiness level.
- iv. **Delegating.** This style reflects low relationship/low task behavior (S4). Delegating style is appropriate for educational leaders whose followers are ready to accomplish a particular task and are both competent and motivated to take full responsibility. This style is best matched with a high follower readiness level.

6.5 ADAPTABILITY OF SITUATION BASED APPROACH IN INDIAN SET UP

The situational leadership theory is based on the premise that there is no best style of leadership, and it all depends on the situation. The situational leader evaluates their team or organization by simply asking about the current situation of the organization. Based on the understanding that is derived by answering this question, they do what is required to successfully lead the team. Since the leadership style is flexible, there are no fixed traits that a situational leader exhibits. These attributes may all come into play depending on the situation. The following are some of the basic characteristics of the situational leadership style.

a. Flexibility:

The fundamental idea of situational leadership is that there is no such thing as a single best or fixed type of leadership. Leadership changes according to the requirements of the group or organization, and successful leaders are able to be flexible and adapt their style of leadership to the level of maturity of the group that they're trying to lead.

b. Changes according to the situation:

The leadership style that the situational leader brings into play will be dependent on the situation at hand and the development level of the individuals involved. If the development level is low, the situational leader becomes more task-oriented. If the individuals are sufficiently developed, the leader will be more supportive.

c. Directing:

Situational leadership will be high on the "directive" aspect when the subordinates are not sufficiently developed and need constant supervision. Here, the leader gives specific instructions about what the goals are, and exactly how the goals need to be achieved. It is similar to a parent supervising the actions of a toddler.

d. Coaching:

If the situation demands it, the leader will also coach their team. This is an extension of the directive approach; the leader still provides detailed instructions but they also focus on encouraging the subordinates, soliciting inputs, and explaining why they have made certain decisions.

e. Participating

The situational leader may try to encourage a team to become more independent performing the tasks by letting them take routine decisions. High-level problem-solving is still under their purview, but they allow team members to actively participate in the decision-making process.

f. Delegating

When dealing with a highly matured and capable team, the situational leader will gradually reduce their supervision and involvement in the daily activities of team members. The leader is involved while discussing the tasks and deciding on the goals to be achieved, but after that team members have complete freedom on how they want to accomplish these goals.

g. Integrity

The situational leader does not change their approach merely to take advantage of the situation. They simply adapt in a way that is most appropriate considering factors such as the maturity level of followers, the organizational structure and culture, and the goals to be achieved. They do so with integrity, and are not motivated by a desire to unfairly capitalize on the weaknesses of the team or organization.

h. Courage

It takes a lot of courage for a leader to try out different leadership approaches and figure out which one is ideal. Most leaders stick to a particular way of doing things - whatever has worked best for them in the past. But situational leader is not afraid to take chances and to adopt a radically different leadership style if the situation demands it.

i. Clear vision

The situational leader has a clear vision of where the team is going. This is what allows a leader to identify and adopt the most effective behaviors and strategies to get to the goal.

j. Humility

The situational leader does not claim to know it all. With a group of highly developed and mature followers, they have the humility to accept limitations and seek the higher wisdom of the group.

Check Your Progress - 1			
Note: (a) Write your answer in the space given below			
	(b) Compare your answer with the above sub section		
1.	List out the key principles of Situation Based approach.		
2.	Enumerate the key characteristics of Situation Based educational leadership theory.		

6.6 KEY ADVANTAGES OF SITUATIONAL BASED LEADERSHIP

→ It recognizes the need for flexibility

In the Situation based leadership, we can all find common ground with other people at some level. We all have different experiences and perspectives that create diversity. Instead of treating everyone equally from a singular perspective, the situational leader recognizes the need to be flexible. They don't insist on a specific set of rules that must be followed by everyone. Instead, they create an environment where people are encouraged to come forward and share so that everyone can find success.

→ Situation based leadership creates a comfortable environment for workers

Situational leaders work to create a style that is based on the readiness level of their team or their needs. For most workers, that creates a situation which allows them to be comfortable with their job duties. When workers are satisfied, they stay more productive. This allows the leader to motivate individual

employees in a way that matches their needs, giving everyone a better chance to reach a positive outcome.

→ Different developmental phases are taken into consideration

The goal of Situation leader is to evaluate the competency of each worker, and then boost motivation levels based on the style which is most useful for that person. This approach improves the effectiveness of a team by maximizing the output of each individual member of the team. Because this leadership style allows for changes to be made, leaders get to switch between the different styles that are most effective at each readiness level.

→ Situation based leadership builds up climate of awareness

Situational leaders must always be on their toes if they are going to be successful. People change and evolve based on the daily circumstances they encounter. If there is a bad morning for a worker, then their capacity for stress will be likely diminished. By adapting to the change, the situational leader can adopt an approach that will help that worker stay productive. At the same time, empathy is developed within the leadership of the agency because each worker must be approached correctly. The only way to get to know someone is to step into their shoes.

→ Team work gets encouraged in situation based leadership

The approach of a situational leader is intuitive and flexible. The maturity of a team is always reflected in their leadership. These leaders can approach direct reports at any level of maturity to provide them with the counsel they may require. This allows team members to find common ground with each other, which reduces the risks of internal conflict developing. When a situational leader is responsible and quick, problems dissipate before they become issues that interrupt the day.

→ Situation leadership streamlines the training routine.

Situational leaders focus on short-term needs. That allows them to tailor training scenarios for new workers that will bring them up to speed quickly. This advantage enables the leader to find educational opportunities for their established workers as well. The goal here is to ensure that every worker receives a chance to improve themselves in some way each day. Although the leader cannot force their direct reports to take these opportunities, there is still a positive response when it is communicated that development options are available.

6.7 LIMITATIONS OF SITUATION BASED APPROACH

\rightarrow Situation based leadership gives more emphasis on immediate needs rather than long-term needs.

Situational leadership is based more on meeting an exact need, at the moment, then an approach which looks toward the long-term needs of a team. Instead of staying focused on the overall objectives, situational managers can fall into a trap where they are evaluating or responding to an immediate circumstance all the time. That allows for fires to be put out and morale to be salvaged, but it also creates issues where personal development can be stalled.

→ Situation based leadership can be ineffective in task-orientated environments.

Educational managers who find themselves in a position where tasks must be completed in specific ways will find the flexibility of being situational to be disadvantageous in many circumstances. That is because they're being asked to follow a particular set of rules, policies, or regulations that are inflexible. When the situational leader cannot be flexible, then their strengths are taken away from them. They're forced to be more in a telling space than a listening space, which means they're stuck in one core leadership style, even when trying to be effective.

→ It can be challenging to define maturity.

Maturity in leadership settings takes on two different meanings. There is the emotional maturity of the worker to consider, as well as the job maturity which comes from employee experience. With situational leadership, it is easy to conflate the two. People who are emotionally mature are not always mature in their job responsibilities.

→ It does not provide enough information for some leaders.

One of the most significant disadvantages of situational leadership is the fact that people respond in different ways to various leadership styles. Although the theory behind this form of leadership attempts to bring equality into the workplace, there is no substitute for real experience. One primary example of this is the difference between men, women, and transgender workers. It is impossible to fully understand a different perspective when it does not apply to you. That causes the leadership traits to change, and the responses offered by the situational leader may be inappropriate for the situation.

→ It is based on the skill level of the leader.

Situational leaders have a skill set, just like any other worker. If the leader is adept at reading changing situations and understands what people need, then they can be useful in their role. If this skill set has not been fully developed for the leader, then their responses will not be as effective. In some situations, the situational leader may do more harm than good because they misread the situation, formulating an answer that is inappropriate.

→ It creates a corporate dependency.

Once a situational leader begins to work, there is no turning back for that team. The institution is forced to stick with that type of leadership because other leadership styles only focus on the structure or process. They do not focus on the developmental aspect of leader/worker relationships. If the situational leader leaves the institution and a suitable replacement cannot be found, it could lead to a complete turnover of the team.

→ It may create confusion within the institution .

Situational leaders will shift their approach to meet the needs of each worker. When direct reports see this change occur, it can leave them with questions. A shift from a delegation style to a telling style might feel like the leader has a growing distrust of the worker. A shift in the other direction could make it

difficult for workers to know what to do, even if they're ready to be working on their own. The only fix to this potential disadvantage is to have frequent and transparent communication, which takes time away from the actual work that may need to be done.

The advantages and disadvantages of situational leadership allow for greater flexibility in the workplace. It gives each team member an advantage because their leader is adapting their personal approaches to meet specific needs. To be successful, the situational must have high emotional intelligence, be empathetic, and continue to keep an eye on long-term strategies while meeting short-term needs.

6.8 LET US SUM UP

The importance of clearly understanding the differences between the categories of leadership theories referred to as situational and that category called contingency theories in developing countries such as Nigeria cannot be over - emphasized. The Universal Basic Education (that is the six year primary and first three years of secondary education) and Senior Secondary Schools are under the supervision of the Universal Basic Education Board and the Secondary Education Board respectively (i.e. Basic and Secondary Education Board) in each state in Nigeria. The boards are in turn under the Supervision of the Ministry of Education in each State. The three situations identified, for example, by Fiedler can be associated with our Secondary Schools - those that are very good schools (with dedicated teachers, serious students, good facilities and good governance). There are also those which are "bad and ugly" - very unfavourable schools, with poor leadership, uncommitted staff, poor facilities and unserious students with uncooperative communities. In such schools, students either refuse to go to school, or go to school late every day, get to class late and unprepared to learn, and with serious disciplinary problems. There is also a third category with, may be, a poor school head, fairly committed teachers and average students and cooperative community. According to Fiedler, this is typically an example of an intermediate favourable school. The ideas from situational and contingency theories will enable officials of the Ministry of Education, if they are trained professional educational administrators, to know what to do in the interest of education and our children. From the personal experience of the author, the Fiedle's contingency theory holds sway here as a useful framework and a guide to educational managers.

6.9 LESSON END EXERCISE

- 1. Discuss the concept of Situation Based Approach.
- 2. Describe the key principles of Situation Based Approach.
- 3. Explain the adaptability of Situation Based Approach in Indian Set up.
- 4. What are the major limitations of Situation Based Approach as a theory of management?

6.10 SUGGESTED FURTHER READINGS

Burns, Tom, and G.M. Stalker. (1961) The Management of Innovation. London: Tavistock.

Fiedler, F. E. (2002). The curious role of cognitive resources in educational leader ship. In Multiple intelligences and educational leader ship, ed. R. E. Riggio, S. E. Murphy, and F. J. Pirozzolo, 91-104.

Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Fiedler, F. E., and T. G. Link. (1994). Educational leader intelligence, interpersonal stress, and task performance. In Mind in context: Interactionist perspectives on human intelligence, ed. R. J. Sternberg and R. K. Wagner, 152-66. New York: Cam-bridge University Press.

Fiedler, Fred E. (1966) A Theory of Educational leader ship Effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Frensch, P. A., and R. J. Sternberg. (1989). Expertise and intelligent thinking: When is it worse to know better? In Advances in the psychology of human intelligence, vol. 5, ed. R. J. Sternberg, 157-88, Hillsdale, N.J.: Erlbaum.

Gresov, Christopher, and Robert Drazin.(1996) "Equifinality: Functional Equivalence in Organizational Design." Academy of Management Review.

Groen, G. J., and V. L. Patel. (1986) The relationship between comprehension and reasoning in medical expertise. In The nature of expertise, ed. M. T. H. Chi, R. Glaser, and M. J. Farr, 287-310. Hillsdale, N. J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Jensen, A. R. (1996) The g factor: The science of mental ability. Westport, Conn.: Greenwood/Praeger.

Lawrence, Paul R., and Jay Lorsch. (1996) Organizations and Environment: Managing Differentiation and Integration. Homewood: Irwin.

Lubart, T. I., and R. J. Sternberg. (1995). An investment approach to creativity: Theory and data. In The creative cognition approach, ed. S. M. Smith, B. Ward, and R. A. Finke, 269- 302. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.

Polanyi, M. (1966). Tacit dimensions. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday. Sashkins, M. 1986. The visionary educational leader. In Charismatic educational leader ship: The elusive factor in organizational effectiveness, ed. J. A. Conger and R. N. Kananga, 122-60. San Francisco.

Stogdill, R. M. (1946). Personal factors associated with educational leader -ship: A survey of the literature. Journal of Psychology, 25, 35-71.

Woodward, Joan. (1965) Industrial Organization: Theory and Practice. London: Oxford University Press.

Wren, Daniel A. (1994) The Evolution of Management Thought. 4th ed. New York: Wiley & Sonsw.

Lesson No. 7 Unit-II

CONTINGENCY APPROACH TO EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

STRUCTURE

- 7.1 Introduction
- 7.2 Objectives
- 7.3 Concept of Contigency Approach
- 7.4 Historical Overview of Contingency Approach
- 7.5 Key Principles of Contingency Approach
- 7.6 Adaptability of Contingency Approach in Indian Set Up
- 7.7 Limitations of Contingency Approach
- 7.8 Let Us Sum Up
- 7.9 Lesson End Exercise
- 7.10 Suggested Further Readings

7.1 INTRODUCTION

It is pertinent to mention here that during the 1960s, management theory and research began to adopt a new orientation, one that embodied a remarkably simple concept and enabled significant advancements in the study of management and organisations. This orientation, now referred to as the contingency approach, emphasizes the importance of situational influences on the management of organisations and questions the existence of a single, best way to manage or organise. The contingency approach to management is based on the idea that there is no one best way to manage and that to be effective, planning, organizing, leading, and controlling must be tailored to the particular circumstances faced by an organization.

In the present lesson you will be able to understand the concept of Contingency approach, its historical overview and its key principles. You will also get exposure of adaptability of Contingency Approach in Indian Setup, its major characteristics and its limitations.

7.2 OBJECTIVES

After reading this lesson, you shall be able to:

• Explain the Concept of Contingency Approach.

- Illustrate the Historical Overview of Contingency Approach.
- Describe the key Principles of Contingency Approach.
- Explain the adaptability of Contingency Approach in Indian setup.
- Demonstrate the Major Characteristics of the Contingency leadership theory.
- Analyse the limitations of Contingency Approach.

7.3 CONCEPT OF CONTINGENCY MODEL

Contingency theories primarily focus on the context of leadership. They look at the effects of the situation on the success of a leader. Put differently, the propose that a leader's effectiveness is heavily determined by the situation 'he' is in. This does not mean that they completely disregard the leader's personality. They consider it but not as the most important factor determining the success of the leader.

The Contingency approach to management is based on the idea that there is no single best way to manage. Contingency refers to the immediate contingent circumstances. Effective educational organizations must tailor their planning, organizing, leading, and controlling to their particular circumstances. In other words, managers should identify the conditions of a task, the requirements of the management job, and people involved as parts of a complete management situation. The leaders must then work to integrate all these facets into a solution that is most appropriate for a specific circumstance.

The essence of Contingency theory is that best practices depend on the contingencies of the situation. Contingency theory is often called the "it all depends" theory, because when you ask a Contingency theorist for an answer, the typical response is that it all depends. While this may sound simplistic, assessing the contingencies on which decisions depend can be a very complex. Contingency theorists try to identify and measure the conditions under which things will likely occur. Contingency theory attempts to relate research on many management variables, for example, research on professionalism and centralized decision making or worker education and task complexity. It allows you to analyze a situation and determine what variables influence the decision with which you are concerned.

Contingency approaches to theory building represent an alternative to searching for universal principles, and instead focus on key situational relationships. These approaches reduce the vast array of combinations a researcher must consider by focusing research on key variables and inter-relationships. Educational leaders have always asked questions such as "What is the right thing to do? Should we have a mechanistic or an organic structure? A functional or divisional structure? Wide or narrow spans of management? Tall or flat organizational structures? Simple or complex control and coordination mechanisms? Should we be centralized or decentralized? Should we use task or people oriented leadership styles? What motivational approaches and incentive programs should we use?" These questions or dilemmas lead to evolution of many domains of thinking to manage the institutions. The Contingency approach to management (also called the situational approach) assumes that there is no universal answer to such questions because organizations, people, and situations vary and change over time.

Contingency theories put forth the idea that the success of a leader hinges on the specific situation at hand. Certain factors come into play that defines whether a particular leader or leadership style will be effective for the given situation. Those factors include the task, the personality of the leader and the composition of the group that is meant to be led. Its basic assumption is that leadership - success or failure - is situational. There are a number of different sub-theories that fall under the general Contingency umbrella. They include: Fiedler's Contingency Theory, the Situational Leadership Theory, the Path-Goal Theory and the Decision-Making Theory. While all similar on the surface, they each offer their own distinct views on leadership.

The Contingency model of leadership also requires the leader to determine their situation. According to Fiedler, situational favorableness depends on three factors: leader-member relations, task structure and a leader's position and power. Leader-member relations refers to the level of confidence and trust team members give their leader. Task structure describes how much the leader and his followers understand about the task at hand. The leader's position and power has to do with how much influence, such as the ability to dole out positive or negative rewards, a leader brings to the situation.

Application of Fiedler's model involves aligning leadership style with situational favorableness for the most effective results. For example, task-structured leaders who have reward power will be more effective in situations where the group has been assigned a clearly defined task, according to Fiedler. Relationship-oriented leaders will be more effective in situations where the task is unclear and requires creativity and where the leader does not have reward authority but enjoys positive relationships with her team. Between these two bookends example are several potential leadership scenarios that depend on leader orientation and situational favorableness. Thus, the right thing to do depends on a complex variety of critical environmental and internal contingencies.

7.4 HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF CONTINGENCY MODEL

After this phase of leadership research. the era of recognizing effective leaders appeared. The question which arose can best be described as: What characteristics differentiate effective leaders from ineffective leaders? Research into leadership effectiveness has produced two major personality characteristic clusters. Subsequent researchers used different dichotomized labels: autocratic vs. democratic leadership (Lewin & Lippit. 1938). initiating structure vs. consideration (Halpin & Winer, 1957). directive vs. participative leadership (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958). Theory X vs. Theory Y (McGregor, 1960), concern for production vs. concern for people (Blake & Mouton, 1964). This type of leadership research was concerned with recognizing which one of the two types of leadership behavior was most effective.

However, research on this subject showed inconsistent results. Neither of the two leadership style Classical management theorists such as Henri Fayol and Frederick Taylor identified and emphasized management principles that they believed would make companies more successful. However, the classicists came under fire in the 1950s and 1960s from management thinkers who believed that their approach was inflexible and did not consider environmental contingencies. Although the criticisms were largely invalid (both Fayol and Taylor, for example, recognized that situational factors were relevant), they spawned what has come to be called the Contingency school of management. Research conducted in the 1960s and 1970s

focused on situational factors that affected the appropriate structure of organizations and the appropriate leadership styles for different situations. Although the Contingency perspective purports to apply to all aspects of management, and not just organizing and leading, there has been little development of Contingency approaches outside organization theory and leadership theory. The following sections provide brief overviews of the Contingency perspective as relevant to organization theory and leadership.

7.5 KEY PRINCIPLES OF CONTINGENCY APPROACH

The Contingency theory is similar to situation theory in that there is an assumption that no simple way is always right. Situation theory, however, focuses more on the behaviors that the leader should use. The Contingency theory takes a broader view that includes contingent factors about leader capability and also includes other variables within the situation. The theory assumes that: (1) a maze of goals govern the development of events; (2) different management approaches may be appropriate within the same organization; and (3) different leadership styles suit different situations. Contingency planning helps the organization to respond to uncertainty in the external environment by identifying possible events that may occur and by preparing alternative strategies to deal with them.

Factors that influence the Contingency theory are numerous. These include the following:

- The size of the organization
- Assumption of managers about employees
- Strategies
- Technologies being used
- How the firm adapts itself to its environment
- Differences among resources and operations activities

Contingency theory is based on the assumption that no single leadership style is appropriate in all situations. According to this theory, leadership style is quite inflexible. Organizational effectiveness depends on matching internal organizational characteristics with environmental conditions. Therefore, effective leadership depends on whether a leader's style matches the needs of the individual case. This theory applies better to educational systems where principal selection is done through an open recruitment process. One useful tool of this theory is Contingency planning or forecasting, a process of identifying the major contingencies and preparing in advance responses and strategies for future conditions and events. This procedure intends to diminish the levels of uncertainty. In educational systems like our country, where the recruitment and selection of school principals lies with central government, situational theory can be a useful tool for principals. When principals are placed in a new school, they should choose the best course of action based upon the current circumstances. Educational leaders should consider the readiness/maturity level of their followers by analyzing the group's willingness and ability. Depending on the level of these variables, they should choose the amount of direction and the amount of socio-emotional support they are going to provide. Flexibility is the key in managing a team effectively.

In order to assess the attitudes of the leader, Fiedler developed the 'least preferred co-worker' (LPC)

scale in which the leaders are asked about the person with whom they least like to work. The scale is a questionnaire consisting of 16 items used to reflect a leader's underlying disposition toward others.

The items in the LPC scale are pleasant / unpleasant, friendly / unfriendly, rejecting / accepting, unenthusiastic / enthusiastic, tense / relaxed, cold / warm, helpful / frustrating, cooperative / uncooperative, supportive / hostile, quarrelsome / harmonious, efficient / inefficient, gloomy / cheerful, distant / close, boring / interesting, self-assured / hesitant, open / guarded. Each item in the scale is given a single ranking of between one and eight points, with eight points indicating the most favorable rating.

Fiedler states that leaders with high LPC scores are relationship-oriented and the ones with low scores are task-oriented. The high LPC score leaders derived most satisfaction from interpersonal relationships and therefore evaluate their least preferred co-workers in fairly favorable terms. These leaders think about the task accomplishment only after the relationship need is well satisfied. On the other hand, the low LPC score leaders derived satisfaction from performance of the task and attainment of objectives and only after tasks have been accomplished, these leaders work on establishing good social and interpersonal relationships.

Past studies were re-analyzed and new studies were performed In order to validate the use of the situational control dimension. Correlations between the leaders' LPC (ASo) · scores and group performances were plotted for the octants. Fiedler (1964. p.164) concluded, the correlations between leader scores and group performance measures within each octant are quite similar in size and direction. Even granting the post hoc nature of the classification, the consistency of the relations within octants is highly non-random in distribution." The median correlations between the LPC (ASo) scores and group performance were plotted against the situational control dimension. The figure indicates that groups of low LPC leaders performed best when they had very high or very low situational control (octants 1,2, 3, and 8). Groups of high LPC leaders performed best in moderately well controlled situations (octants 4, 5, and 7).

7.6 ADAPTABILITY OF CONTINGENCY APPROACH IN INDIAN SET UP

Past studies were re-analyzed and new studies were performed In order to validate the use of the situational control dimension. Correlations between the leaders' LPC (ASo)· scores and group performances were plotted for the octants. Fiedler (1964. p.164) concluded:, "the correlations between leader scores and group performance measures within each octant are quite similar in size and direction. Even granting the post hoc nature of the classification, the consistency. of the relations within octants is highly non-random in distribution." The median correlations between the LPC (ASo) scores and group performance were plotted against the situational control dimension. The exact correlations are shown in Table 3.4 and the general trend of the correlations is depicted in Figure 3.1. The figure indicates that groups of low LPC leaders performed best when they had very high or very low situational control (octants 1,2, 3, and 8). Groups of high LPC leaders performed best in moderately well controlled situations (octants 4, 5, and 7). Dissatisfaction with trait-based theories of leadership effectiveness led to the development of Contingency leadership theories. Fred

Fiedler, in the 1960s and 1970s, was an early pioneer in this area. Various aspects of the situation have been identified as impacting the effectiveness of different leadership styles. For example, Fiedler suggests that the degree to which subordinates like or trust the leader, the degree to which the task is structured, and the formal authority possessed by the leader are key determinants of the leadership situation. Task-oriented or relationship oriented leadership should each work if they fit the characteristics of the situation.

In order to understand the adaptability of Contingency Approach of educational management we need to analyse the characteristics of this approach specially in Indian set up.

Major Characteristics of the Theory

Following are the most important characteristics of this theory:

- Leadership Styles: The theory has assumed that the whole universe of behaviours that a leader is required to adopt in the situations of leadership exercise may be grouped into two broad categories task oriented and relationship oriented. These he calls basic styles, styles of educational leadership which he defines in terms of the underlying need structure to motivate the leader to behave in particular way. Basically, these are two needs structures, need for good relationship with the followers and need for successful accomplishment of the task. This, in other words, means relationship oriented and task oriented educational leadership behviours or styles depending upon which of these is more dominant. Satisfaction of either of these needs results in increased feelings of self esteem, satisfaction and freedom from anxiety.
- ✓ **Maximizing Group Performance:** The focus of the theory is to analyze and identify the style of educational leadership which any maximize the performance of the group so that organizational goals may be achieved.
- ✓ **Group Talk Situation:** The theory emphasizes that the suitability of educational leadership style depends upon the group-task situation, i.e. the nature of the task to be completed and the nature of relationship between the group and the leader. It was considered by Fiedler as an inter-personal setting which could be described in terms of facilitating influence of the leader. The favorableness or the group- task situation can be assessed in terms of three factors leader-members relationship, task structure, and leader's power position in the organization. Situation's favorableness is, then, a composite of these three factors. This can be measured through a questionnaire.

Leadership is not based on position or status, but on authority and prestige. Leadership may come from personal enthusiasm, personal authority, credibility, knowledge, skill, or charisma; it is derived from influence that the leader has on his followers (Darling, 1992). Accordingly, the principal holds the highest position in the school. The tone of the school is mainly influenced by the behaviour and personality of principal and it affects the attitude, climate, progress, co- operation, and direction of efforts in the school. In fact, principal is the hub around which the educational activities revolve.

There is no denying the fact that school is essentially a co-operative enterprise, in which every member big or small, high or low has a vital role to play. The school principal is expected to act as a leader in the school. The success of a school to accomplish the goals depends upon the ability of the head to lead staff members. Leadership is one of the four functions that constitute the administrative process. Planning sets the direction and objectives; organizing brings the resources together to turn plans into action; leadership builds the commitments and enthusiasm needed for people to apply their talents fully to help accomplish plans; and controlling makes sure things turn out right. According to Fayol, (1916) there are four main functions of manager namely planning, organizing, command or leading and controlling. According to Kotter, (1990) the primary function of a leader is to identify the essential purpose or mission of an organization and the strategy for attaining it. By contrast, the job of the manager is to implement that vision. The overriding function of management is to provide order and consistency to organisations, whereas the primary function of leadership is to produce change and movement. Management is about seeking order and stability; leadership is about seeking adaptive and constructive change.

Based on research findings, Contingency theory posits that certain styles will be effective in certain situations. Individuals who are task motivated (low LPC score) will be effective in both very favourable and in very unfavourable situations, that is, in situations that are going along very smoothly or when things are out of control. Individuals who are relationship motivated (high LPC score) will be effective in moderately favourable situations, that is, in situation in which there is some degree of certainty but things are neither completely under their control nor out of their control.

Chec	Check your progress:		
Note:	Note: (a) Write your answers in the space given below		
	(b) Compare your answer with those given at the end of the lesson.		
1.	Briefly describe the historical overview of Contingency model		
2.	What are the main characteristics of Contingency leadership theory?		

7.7 LIMITATIONS OF CONTINGENCY APPROACH

In-spite of the various contributions, Contingency approach has not been acknowledged as a unified theory of management because it suffers from some limitations.

These limitations are of following nature:

a) Inadequate Literature about Contingency Approach

Contingency approach suffers from inadequately of literature. Therefore, it has not adequately spelled out various types of actions which can be taken under different situations. It is not sufficient to say that a managerial action depends on the situation. The approach should provide if this is the situation, this action can

be taken. Unless, this is done, the approach cannot offer much assistance to the practice of management. No doubt, researches have been conducted in this direction but, by and large, they have not satisfied the needs of managers.

b) Complexity in the Contingency Approach

The suggestion of the approach is very simple, that is, managers should do according to the needs of the situation. However, when put into practice, this becomes very complex. Determination of situation in which managerial action is to be taken involves analysis of a large number of variables with multifarious dimensions. Therefore, there is a possibility that managers, who are always short of time, may ignore the thorough analysis of all these variables and may resort to short-cut and easier way.

c) Difficult Empirical Testing

Contingency approach being complex, presents problems in testing the percepts of the theory. For empirical testing of the theory, it is necessary that some methodology is available. No doubt, methodology is available but because of the involvement of too many factors, testing becomes difficult.

d) Reactive not Proactive

Contingency approach is basically reactive in nature. If nearly suggests what managers can do in a given situation. For a given organisation, super system constitutes environment and management can be applied to supra-system also. Therefore, managers are responsible to manage the environment in such a way that they avoid the undesirable aspects of environment.

7.8 LET US SUM UP

Widely respected as the father of the Contingency theory of leadership, Fiedler (1967) has developed the leadership Contingency model by studying the styles of many different leaders who worked in different contexts, primarily military organisations. He assessed leaders styles, the situations in which they worked, and whether or not they were effective. After analysing the styles of hundreds of leaders who were both good and bad, Fielder and his colleagues were able to make empirically grounded generalizations about which styles of leadership were best and which styles were worst for a given organisational context.

The leader who makes a wrong decision in this highly unfavourable type of situation is probably better off than the leader who makes no decision at all. In order to predict effective and ineffective styles of leadership Fiedler in his theory used on the one hand interaction of leader personality as measured by the less preferred co-workers the LPC and situation favourably on the other hand as measured by leader member relations, task characteristics, and leader position power.

7.9 LESSON END EXERCISE

- 1. Discuss the concept of Contingency Approach.
- 2. Describe the key principles of Contingency Approach.
- 3. Explain the adaptability of Contingency Approach in Indian Set up.

4. What are the major limitations of Contingency Approach as a theory of management?

7.10 SUGGESTED FURTHER READINGS

Burns, Tom, and G.M. Stalker. (1961) The Management of Innovation. London: Tavistock,.

Fiedler, F. E. (2002). The curious role of cognitive resources in leadership. In *Multiple intelligences and leadership*, ed. R. E. Riggio, S. E. Murphy, and F. J. Pirozzolo, 91-104. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Fiedler, F. E., and T. G. Link. (1994). Leader intelligence, interpersonal stress, and task performance. In *Mind in context: Interactionist perspectives on human intelligence*, ed. R. J. Sternberg and R. K. Wagner, 152-67. New York: Cam-bridge University Press.

Fiedler, Fred E. A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967.

Frensch, P. A., and R. J. Sternberg. (1989). Expertise and intelligent thinking: When is it worse to know better? In *Advances in the psychology of human intelligence*, vol. 5, ed. R. J. Sternberg, 157-88, Hillsdale, N.J.: Erlbaum.

Gresov, Christopher, and Robert Drazin. (1997) "Equifinality: Functional Equivalence in Organizational Design." *Academy of Management Review*.

Groen, G. J., and V. L. Patel. (1987). The relationship between comprehension and reasoning in medical expertise. In *The nature of expertise*, ed. M. T. H. Chi, R. Glaser, and M. J. Farr, 287-310. Hillsdale, N. J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Jensen, A. R. (1997). The g factor: The science of mental ability. Westport, Conn.: Greenwood/Praeger.

Lawrence, Paul R., and Jay Lorsch. (1967) Organizations and Environment: Managing *Differentiation and Integration*. Homewood: Irwin.

Lubart, T. I., and R. J. Sternberg. (1995). An investment approach to creativity: Theory and data. In The *creative cognition approach*, ed. S. M. Smith, B. Ward, and R. A. Finke, 269- 302. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.

Polanyi, M. (1966). Tacit dimensions. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday. Sashkins, M. 1987. The visionary leader. In Charismatic leader-ship: *The elusive factor in organizational effectiveness*, ed. J. A. Conger and R. N. Kananga, 122-60. San Francisco.

Stogdill, R. M. (1947). Personal factors associated with leader-ship: A survey of the literature. *Journal of Psychology* 25: 35-71.

Woodward, Joan. (1965)Industrial Organization: Theory and Practice. London: Oxford University Press.

Wren, Daniel A. (1994) The Evolution of Management Thought. 4th ed. New York: Wiley & Sons.

Lesson No. 8 Unit-II

WICS MODEL

STR	UCT	URE
	\mathbf{v}	

8.1	Introd	uction	
8.2	Objectives		
8.3	Concept of WICS Model		
8.4	Nature of WICS Model		
8.5	Key Components of WICS Model		
	8.5.1	Wisdom as a primary component of WICS Model	
	8.5.2	Intelligence as a Central Component of WICS Model	
	8.5.3	Creativity as a Third Component of WICS Model	
	8.5.4	Synthesis as an Integral Component of WICS Model	
8.6	Implications of WICS Model in Education Sector		
8.7	Let Us	s Sum Up	
8.8	Lesson	n End Exercise	

8.1 INTRODUCTION

Suggested Further Readings

8.9

While visualising about the educational leadership, we generally think in terms of a situation having a synthesis of varied attributes of a successful leadership for providing best outcomes and efficiency. To be more precise and clear, we need to understand the ingredients of successful educational leadership. The appropriate concept in this regard is the WICS model. According to this paradigm, to be a highly effective leader, an individual must possess three key attributes: Wisdom, Intelligence, and Creativity-working in harmony or Synthesized. The elements of the WICS model work together. A successful leader, according to the model, needs creativity to generate good ideas, academic intelligence to ascertain whether those ideas are good, practical intelligence to know how to persuade other people, and wisdom to make the ideas work for everyone's benefit. In this present lesson you will understand the concept and features of WICS Model of leadership. You will also get a vivid exposure of its applications in the field of school leadership. This lesson also contains the key advantages and constraints of WICS model of leadership in specifically the context of education sector.

8.2 **OBJECTIVES**

After reading this lesson, you shall be able to:

- Discuss the concept of WICS Model.
- Illustrate the nature of WICS Model in the context of education sector.
- Describe the components of WICS Model in the context of education sector.
- Explain the interrelationship between different components of WICS Model.
- Analyse the implications of WICS Model in the field of school leadership.

8.3 CONCEPT OF WICS MODEL

Leadership is essential to the successful functioning of virtually any organization. Scholars of leadership attempt to understand what leads to success in leadership. Successful leaders need to do two things, among others. First, they need to have a story that followers can understand, accept, and, hopefully, support (see also Gardner, 1995). Second, they need to engage in complex processing those results in the creation, implementation, and monitoring of the story (see also Sternberg, 2003). The WICS model of leadership addresses both aspects of the leadership process. This model synthesizes many aspects of previous models. Thus it draws on much that is old, including trait, situational, behavioural, contingency, and transformational models. WICS provides a way of understanding leadership as a set of cognitive-decision processes embodying wisdom, intelligence, and creativity. One uses creativity to generate ideas, intelligence to analyze and implement the ideas, and wisdom to ensure that they represent a good common good.

WICS is an acronym that stands for wisdom, intelligence and creativity, synthesized. The model attempts to show how successful leadership involves the synthesis of the three qualities. In the centre of the model is intelligence, traditionally defined as the ability to adapt to the environment (Cianciolo & Sternberg, 2004). According to the model used here, successful intelligence is one's ability to attain one's goals in life, given one's socio-cultural context, by adapting to, shaping, and selecting environments, through a balance of analytical, creative, and practical skills (Sternberg, 1997). Underlying this ability are fundamental executive processes, or "meta-components" (Sternberg, 1985): recognizing the existence of a problem, defining and redefining the problem, allocating resources to the solution of the problem, representing the problem mentally, formulating a strategy for solving the problem, monitoring the solution of the problem while problem solving is ongoing, and evaluating the solution to the problem after it has been solved. Analytical intelligence is involved when one applies these processes to fairly abstract problems that nevertheless take a relatively familiar form (e.g., intelligence-test items). Creative intelligence is involved when one applies the processes to relatively novel tasks and situations. Practical intelligence is involved when one applies the processes to everyday problems for purposes of adaptation to, shaping, and selection of environments.

8.4 NATURE OF WICS MODEL

The basic relationship between intelligence, creativity, and wisdom can be understood by understanding the interdependence of these three main attributes of the leadership. The successful intelligence lies at the basis

of conventional intelligence, creativity, and wisdom. But there is more to each of these constructs than just successful intelligence. Creativity is the ability to formulate and solve problems so as to produce solutions that are relatively novel and high in quality (Sternberg & Lubart, 1995). Creativity involves creative intelligence in the generation of ideas, but it also involves more, in particular, knowledge; a desire to think in novel ways; personality attributes such as tolerance of ambiguity, propensity to sensible risk taking, and willingness to surmount obstacles; intrinsic, task-focused motivation; and an environment that supports creativity (Sternberg & Lubart, 1995). At the base of creativity, again, are the meta-components. Crucial to creativity are one's creative-intellectual skills in recognizing and finding good problems to solve, and then defining and redefining the problems until they are understood in a way that allows a novel solution. Creative individuals are good problem finders who devote their resources to solve problems that are worth solving in the first place. Intelligent individuals are good problem solvers, but they do not necessarily devote their resources to solving problems that are important to solve. Analytical and practical intelligence, and not just creative intelligence, are important to creativity. Analytical intelligence is used to determine whether one's creative solutions to a problem are good solutions, and practical intelligence is used to implement the solutions and to convince others that one's solutions are, indeed, good ones that they should heed.

Intelligence, wisdom, and creativity build on each other. One can be intelligent without being creative or wise. To be creative, one must be intelligent at some level, using one's creative intelligence to formulate good problems, one's analytical intelligence to ensure that the solutions to the problems are good, and one's practical intelligence to persuade other people of the value of one's creative ideas; but one need not be wise. To be wise, one must be both intelligent and creative, because wisdom draws upon intelligence and creativity in the formulation of solutions to problems that take into account all stakeholder interests over the short and long terms.

8.5 KEY COMPONENTS OF WICS MODEL

WICS holds that the best leaders exhibit all three qualities of intelligence, creativity, and wisdom It also holds that these skills can be developed. Now consider each of creativity, successful intelligence, and wisdom in more detail. They are presented in this order because usually, generation of ideas comes first, then analysis of whether they are good ideas, and then, ideally, application of the ideas in a way to achieve a common good. It would be imperative to discuss the three components of this model in details.

8.5.1 Wisdom as a Primary Component of WICS Model

A leader can have intelligence and creativity and still lack arguably the most important, but perhaps the rarest, leadership quality-wisdom. According to a proposed balance theory of wisdom (Sternberg 1998; 2000), an individual is wise to the extent he or she uses successful intelligence and experience, moderated by values, to (a) seek to reach a common good; (b) balance intrapersonal (one's own), interpersonal (others'), and extrapersonal (organizational/institutional/spiritual) interests over the short and long term; and (c) adapt to, shape, and select environments.

Wise leaders do not look out just for their own interests, nor do they ignore those interests. Rather, they skill-fully balance interests of varying kinds, including their own, those of their followers, and those of the

organization for which they are responsible. They also recognize the need to align the interests of their group or organization with those of other groups or organizations because no group operates within a vacuum. Further, wise leaders realize that what may appear to be a prudent course of action over the short term does not necessarily appear so over the long term.

Less successful leaders often have ignored another set of interests. For example, Richard Nixon and Bill Clinton, in their respective cover-ups, not only failed to fulfill the interests of their country, but also failed to fulfill their own interests. Their cover-ups bogged down their administrations in scandals and stood in the way of positive accomplishments. Freud was a leader in the fields of psychiatry and psychology, but lost the support of his disciples by insisting they conform to his own system of psychoanalysis. Napoleon's invasion of Russia partially destroyed his reputation as a successful military leader and paved the way for his later downfall.

Indeed, relatively few leaders at any level are particularly wise. Yet, the few leaders who are notably so-Nelson Mandela, Martin Luther King, Jr., Mahatma Gandhi, and Winston Churchill left an indelible mark on the people they led and on history. It is important to note that wise leaders usually are charismatic, but charismatic leaders are not necessarily wise as demonstrated by Hitler, Stalin, and certain other charismatic leaders.

Unsuccessful leaders often display stereotypical fallacies in their thinking; five such flaws (Stemberg 2002b) should be considered. The first, unrealistic-optimism fallacy, occurs when leaders think they are so smart and effective that they can do whatever they please. The second, "ego-centrism fallacy," describes successful leaders who think that only they matter, not the people who rely on them. The third, "omniscience fallacy," occurs when leaders think they know everything, and lose sight of their own limitations. The fourth, "omnipotence fallacy," portrays leaders who think they are all-powerful and can do whatever they want. And the fifth, "invulnerability fallacy," happens when leaders think they can get away with anything, consider themselves too clever to be caught, and even if caught, figure they can get away with it because of who they imagine themselves to be.

Wisdom is the ability to use one's successful intelligence, creativity, and knowledge toward a common good by balancing one's own (intra-personal) interests, other people's (inter-personal) interests, and larger (extra-personal) interests, over the short and long terms, through the infusion of values, in order to adapt to, shape, and select environments (Sternberg, 1998b). Thus, wisdom involves both intelligence and creativity, but as they are applied not just to serve one's own ends, but also, the ends of other people and of larger interests as well. At the base of wisdom, as of intelligence and creativity, are the meta-components. One needs to recognize when problems, such as injustice exist, and to define them in a way that is respectful of multiple points of view (dialogical thinking). One then needs to solve them in ways that take into account the needs of all stakeholders as well as the resources at hand.

8.5.2 Intelligence as a Central Component of WICS Model

Intelligence, as conceived of here, is not just intelligence in its conventional narrow sense-some kind of scientific factor (Jensen 1998; Spearman 1927) or as IQ (Wechsler 1939). If the conventional intelligence of a

leader is significantly higher than that of the people he or she leads, the leader may not connect with those people and, therefore, become ineffective (Williams and Sternberg 1988). Accordingly, intelligence should be evaluated in terms of the theory of successful intelligence (Sternberg 1999c; 2002c). Successful intelligence is the ability to succeed in life, given one's own conception of success, within one's socio-cultural environment. Two aspects of this theory are particularly relevant: academic intelligence and practical intelligence (Neisser,1979). A third aspect of the theory of successful intelligence is creative intelligence. These abilities are important for leaders because they need to be able to retrieve information relevant to their decisions (memory abilities) and analyze and evaluate different courses of action, whether proposed by themselves or others (analytical abilities).

a) Academic Intelligence

Academic intelligence refers to the coalescence of memory and analytical abilities to constitute the conventional notion of intelligence-the abilities needed to recall and recognize, and analyze, evaluate, and judge information. These abilities are typically measured by quintessential standardized tests. Though a modest correlation seems to exist between these abilities and leadership effectiveness (Stogdill 1948), the correlation is affected by the leader's stress and other factors (Fiedler 2002; Fiedler and Link 1994). Intelligence seems to have a positive correlation with leadership effectiveness during low stress conditions, but a negative correlation when stress is high.

b) Practical Intelligence

Past literature has focused on academic intelligence (IQ) in relation to leadership. Some recent theorists have emphasized other aspects of intelligence, such as emotional intelligence (Caruso, Mayer, and Salovey 2002; Goleman 1998) or multiple intelligences (Gardner 1995). Here, the emphasis is on practical intelligence, which has a somewhat different focus than emotional intelligence. Practical intelligence is part of successful intelligence and a core component of leadership.

Practical intelligence is the ability to solve everyday problems by utilizing knowledge gained from experience to purposefully change oneself to suit the environment (adaptation), change the environment to suit oneself (shaping), or find a new environment in which to work (selection). A leader uses these skills to manage oneself, manage others, and manage tasks.

Effectiveness in "transactional leadership" (Avolio, Bass, and Jung 1999; Bass 1998; Bass 2002) is derived, in large part, from the adaptive function of practical intelligence. Transactional leaders are generally adapters, working with their followers toward the mutual fulfillment of essential contractual obligations. These leaders typically specify role and task requirements and provide rewards based on desired performance. They also may manage by exception, monitoring standards and intervening when standards are not met.

Different combinations of intellectual skills engender different types of leadership. Leaders vary in their memory skills, analytical skills, and practical skills. A leader particularly strong in memory skills, but not other types of skills, may have vast amounts of knowledge at his or her disposal, but be unable to use this wisdom effectively. A leader particularly strong in analytical skills as well as memory skills may be able to retrieve

information and analyze it effectively, but may lack practical skills needed to convince others that his or her analysis is correct. A leader strong in memory, analytical, and practical skills is most likely to be effective in influencing others. A leader strong in practical skills, but not memory and analytical skills-in conventional terms, "shrewd," but not "smart"-may be effective in getting others to go along, but may end up leading them astray.

8.5.3 Creativity as a Third Component of WICS Model

Creativity refers to skill in generating ideas and products that are relatively novel, high in quality, and appropriate to the task at hand. Because creativity generates ideas that others will follow, it is an important component for leadership. A leader who is practically intelligent may get people to go along with ideas, but those ideas may be inferior or stale.

A confluence model of creativity (Sternberg and Lubart 1996) suggests that creative leaders show a variety of characteristics. These characteristics represent not innate abilities, but, largely, a decision to be creative (Sternberg 2000). These leaders exhibit a creative attitude toward life, and among their attributes, they often:

- are willing to defy the crowd;
- are courageous and stand up for their convictions;
- redefine problems;
- recognize how knowledge can both help and hinder creative thinking (Frensch and Sternberg 1989;
 Sternberg 1985);
- take sensible risks;
- surmount obstacles:
- believe in their ability to accomplish the task at hand (self-efficacy) (Bandura 1997);
- tolerate ambiguity;
- find extrinsic rewards for things they are intrinsically motivated to do; and
- continue to grow intellectually rather than stagnate.

8.5.4 Synthesis as an Integral Component of WICS Model

The elements of the WICS model work together. A successful leader, according to the model, needs creativity to generate good ideas, academic intelligence to ascertain whether those ideas are good, practical intelligence to know how to persuade other people, and wisdom to make the ideas work for everyone's benefit. If even one of these ingredients is lacking, the leader diminishes his or her favorable position to lead effectively. Leaders who do not have high levels of all these skills need to capitalize on their strengths and find ways to compensate for their weaknesses, usually through the assistance of able advisors.

No model of leadership fully captures all the many facets-both internal and external to the individual-that make for a successful leader. The WICS model may come close, how-ever, in capturing important dimensions.

Check your progress: 1		
Note : (a) Write your answer in the space given below		
	(b) Compare your answer with the above sub section	
1.	Discuss the nature of WICS model.	
2.	List out the major components of WICS model.	

8.6 IMPLICATIONS OF WICS MODEL IN EDUCATION SECTOR

WICS incorporates elements of many previous models of educational leadership. An effective educational leader needs creative skills and dispositions to come up with ideas, academic skills and dispositions to decide whether they are good ideas, practical skills and dispositions to make the ideas work and convince others of the value of the ideas, and wisdom-based skills and dispositions to ensure that the ideas are in the service of the common good rather than just the good of the educational leader or perhaps some clique of family members or followers. A leader lacking in creativity will be unable to deal with novel and difficult situations, such as a new and unexpected source of hostility. An educational leader lacking in academic intelligence will not be able to decide whether his or her ideas are viable, and a leader lacking in practical intelligence will be unable to implement his or her ideas effectively. An unwise educational leader may succeed in implementing ideas but end up implementing ideas that are contrary to the best interests of the people he or she leads.

Wisdom, intelligence, and creativity are, to some extent, modifiable forms of developing expertise that one can decide to use in leadership decisions. How one uses them depends in large part on the situations in which one finds oneself and how these situations interact with one's own skills. The environment strongly influences the extent to which one is able to use and develop whatever genetic potentials one has.

WICS argues that there is a relation between intelligence as traditionally defined and leadership effectiveness. There does indeed seem to be a moderate correlation between intelligence and leadership effectiveness. This positive correlation appears in both laboratory and field studies and appears to be robust. The correlation may be moderated by levels of stress and experience among educational leaders.

8.7 LET US SUM UP

The WICS model, which is related to many other models, incorporates elements of transformational as well as transactional leadership (Bass 1998; Bass and Avolio 1994), emotionally intelligent leadership (Goleman 1998), visionary leadership (Sashkin 1988), and charismatic leadership (Conger and Kanungo 1998; Weber

1968). Eventually a model of leadership will emerge that integrates all the strengths of these various models. In the meantime, the WICS model seems like a starting place.

WICS is contingency based in the sense that the optimality of actions depends on the situation in which the leader finds him or herself. What is intelligent in one situation is not necessarily intelligent in another situation. Moreover, creativity is largely situationally determined. A course of action that was creative some years ago (e.g., an advance forward incrementation) might be at a later time only mildly creative (e.g., a small forward incrementation). Similarly, a wise course of action depends on who the stakeholders are, what their needs are, the environmental constraints under which they are operating, the state of the organization at the time, and so on.

8.8 LESSON END EXERCISE

- 1. Explain the concept of WICS Model.
- 2. What are the various components of WICS Model? Cite examples.
- 3. Discuss the importance of WICS Model in preparing good school leaders.
- 4. Describe the implications of WICS Model in the context of educational sector.

8.9 SUGGESTED FURTHER READINGS

Bandura, A. (1997). Self-efficacy: The exercise of control. New York: W. H. Freeman Company

Bass, B. M. (1998). *Transformational leadership: Industrial, military, and educational impact*. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Bass, B. M. 2002. Cognitive, social, and emotional intelligence of transformational leaders. In *Multiple intelligences and leadership*, ed. R. E. Riggio, S. E. Murphy, and F. J. Pirozzolo, 105-18. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Bass, B. M., and B. J. Avolio, eds. (1994). *Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership*. Thousand Oaks, Calif.: Sage Publications.

Caruso, D. R., J. D. Mayer, and P. Salovey. (2002). Emotional intelligence and emotional leadership. In *Multiple intelligences and leadership*, ed. R. E. Riggio, S. E. Murphy, and F. J. Pirozzolo, 55-74. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Chi, M. T. H., R. Glaser, and M. J. Farr. ed. (1988). *The nature of expertise*. Hillsdale, N. J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Conger, J. A., and R. N. Kanungo. (1998). *Charismatic leadership in organizations*. Thousand Oaks, Calif.: Sage Publications.

Fiedler, F. E. (2002). The curious role of cognitive resources in leadership. In *Multiple intelligences and leadership*, ed. R. E. Riggio, S. E. Murphy, and F. J. Pirozzolo, 91-104. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Fiedler, F. E., and T. G. Link. (1994). Leader intelligence, interpersonal stress, and task performance. In *Mind in*

context: Interactionist perspectives on human intelligence, ed. R. J. Sternberg and R. K. Wagner, 152-67. New York: Cam-bridge University Press.

Frensch, P. A., and R. J. Sternberg. (1989). Expertise and intelligent thinking: When is it worse to know better? In *Advances in the psychology of human intelligence*, vol. 5, ed. R. J. Sternberg, 157-88, Hillsdale, N.J.: Erlbaum.

Gardner, H., and E. Laskin. (1995). Leading minds. New York: Basic Books.

Goleman, D. (1998). What makes a good leader? Harvard Business Review 76(6): 92-102.

Groen, G. J., and V. L. Patel. (1988). The relationship between comprehension and reasoning in medical expertise. In *The nature of expertise*, ed. M. T. H. Chi, R. Glaser, and M. J. Farr, 287-310. Hillsdale, N. J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Jensen, A. R. (1998). *The g factor: The science of mental ability*. Westport, Conn.: Greenwood/Praeger.

Lubart, T. I., and R. J. Sternberg. (1995). An investment approach to creativity: Theory and data. In *The creative cognition approach*, ed. S. M. Smith, B. Ward, and R. A. Finke, 269-302. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.

Neisser, U. (1976). General, academic, and artificial intelligence. In The *Nature of intelligence*, ed. L. Resnick, 135-44. Hillsdale, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Neisser, U. (1979). The concept of intelligence. In *Human intelligence: Perspectives on its theory and measurement,* ed. R. J. Sternberg and D. K. Detterman, 179-89. Norwood, N.J.: Ablex Publishing.

Polanyi, M. (1966). *Tacit dimensions*. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday. Sashkins, M. 1988. The visionary leader. In *Charismatic leader-ship: The elusive factor in organizational effectiveness*, ed. J. A. Conger and R. N. Kanungo, 122-60. San Francisco.

Spearman, C. (1927). The abilities of man. London: Macmillan.

Sternberg, R. J. (1985). *Beyond IQ: Toward a triarchic theory of intelligence*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Sternberg, R. J. (1998). A balance theory of wisdom. Review of General Psychology 2(4): 347-65.

Sternberg, R. J. (1999) a. Intelligence as developing expertise. *Contemporary Educational Psychology* 24(4): 359-75.

Sternberg, R. J. (1999b.) A propulsion model of types of creative contributions. *Review of General Psychology* 3(2): 83-100.

Sternberg, R. J. (1999c). The theory of successful intelligence. Review of General Psychology 3(4): 292-316.

Sternberg, R. J. (2000). Creativity is a decision. In *Teaching for intelligence II*: A collection of articles, ed. B. Z. Presseisen, Arlington Heights, Ill.: Skylight Training and Publishing.

Sternberg, R. J. (2002a). Creativity as a decision. *American Psychologist* 57(5): 376.

Sternberg, R. J. (2002b). Successful intelligence: A new approach to leadership. In Multiple intelligences and

leadership, ed. R. E. Riggio, S. E. Murphy, and F. J. Pirozzolo, 9-28. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Sternberg, R. J., ed. (2002c). Why smart people can be so stupid. New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press.

Sternberg, R. J. (2003). WICS: *Wisdom, intelligence, and creativity, synthesized*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Sternberg, R. J., and J. A. Horvath, ed. (1999). *Tacit knowledge in professional practice*. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Sternberg, R. J., and T. I. Lubart. (1996). Investing in creativity. *American Psychologist* 51(7): 677-88.

Sternberg, R. J., and L. A. O'Hara. (2000). Intelligence and creativity. In *Handbook of intelligence*, ed. R. J. Sternberg, 609-28. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Sternberg, R. J., and V. H. Vroom. (2002). The person versus the situation in leadership. *Leadership Quarterly* 13(3): 301-23.

Sternberg, R. J., J. C. Kaufman, and J. E. Pretz. (2002). *The creativity conundrum:* A *propulsion model of kinds of creative contributions*. Philadelphia, Pa.: Psychology Press.

Sternberg, R. J., R. K. Wagner, and L. Okagaki. (1993). Practical intelligence: The nature and role of tacit knowledge in work and at school. In *Advances in lifespan development*, ed. H. Reese and J. Puckett, 205-27. Hillsdale, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Sternberg, R. J., R. K. Wagner, W. M. Williams, and J. A. Horvath. (1995). Testing common sense. *American Psychologist* 50(11), 912-27.

Sternberg, R. J., G. B. Forsythe, J. Hedlund, J. Horvath, S. Snook, W. M. Williams, R. K. Wagner, and E. L. Grigorenko. (2000). *Practical intelligence in everyday life*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Stogdill, R. M. (1948). Personal factors associated with leader-ship: A survey of the literature. *Journal of Psychology*, 25, 35-71.

Wagner, R. K., and R. J. Sternberg. (1985). Practical intelligence in real-world pursuits: The role of tacit knowledge. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 49(2), 436-58.

Weber, M. (1968). *Max Weber on charisma and institution building*, ed. S. N. Eisenstadt. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Wechsler, D. (1939). The measurement of adult intelligence. Baltimore: Williams & Wilkins.

Lesson No. 9 Unit-III

CONCEPT OF RESOURCES -- HUMAN & MATERIAL

STRUCTURE

^ 4	· ·	
9.1	Intro	duction
91	111111111	1116 111111
J.I	muo	auction

- 9.2 Objectives
- 9.3 Concept of Resources
- 9.4 Types of Resources Human & Material
- 9.5 Management of Time through Effective Use of Time Schedule
 - 9.5.1 Importance of Time Schedule for the Teacher
 - 9.5.2 Characteristics of an Effective Time Schedule
 - 9.5.3 Techniques for Framing a Balanced Time Schedule
- 9.6 Preparation of Diaries Daily, Weekly and Monthly
 - 9.6.1 Preparing a Daily Diary by the Teacher -Aspects, Principles and Usefulness
 - 9.6.2 Preparing a Weekly Diary by the Teacher- Aspects, Principles and Usefulness
 - 9.6.3 Preparing a Monthly Diary by the Teacher- Aspects, Principles and Usefulness
- 9.7 Yearly & Monthly Plans for the Institutional Working
 - 9.7.1 Types of Plan for the Institutional Working
 - 9.7.2 Yearly Plans for the Institutional Working- Principles and Usefulness
 - 9.7.3 Monthly Plans for the Institutional Working- Principles and Usefulness
- 9.8 Let Us Sum Up
- 9.9 Lesson End Exercise
- 9.10 Suggested Further Readings

9.1 INTRODUCTION

Finding a good timetable is not only desirable, but may also be essential. At many school institutes, timetables are constructed by hand, which implies (for mathematicians) that improvements should be possible. This lesson will explore this conjecture by providing an overview and contribution regarding the theory and practice of school timetabling, with the ambition to improve the currently available timetabling software.

9.2 **OBJECTIVES**

After reading this lesson, you shall be able to:

- Discuss the need and advantages of resources in the field of education.
- Describe the strategies of optimizing time resource through effective use of Time Schedule in education.
- Describe the characteristics of an effective time schedule.
- Use the techniques for framing a balanced time schedule.
- Enunciate need of preparing a daily diary by the teacher.
- Explain principles for yearly & monthly plans for the institutional working.

9.3 CONCEPT OF RESOURCES IN EDUCATION

Education resources covers all those materials human and non human, drawn or photographed, built manually or electronically operated, books and all forms of related materials used in teaching and learning process.

Education resources includes the teachers in the school, human beings in the community, real objects, specimen or models, chalk and display boards, school buildings and layout, the community at large and other fundamental materials like pencils, pens, exercise books etc which the learners are expected to have at any point in time to facilitate learning.

9.4 TYPES OF RESOURCES HUMAN & MATERIAL

In the sector of education various kinds of resource are necessary for delivery of quality formal and non-formal primary education programs: Human resources, Material resources and Financial resources.

A. Human Resources

There is a full range of human resources that are essential for success. These resources include planners, administrators, teachers, mentors, managers, and support staff. Here, we focus on teachers as one of the critical aspects of human resource commitment. Study after study shows that quality teaching is the most powerful factor in student learning. There are three critical domains of supportive interactions in good teaching:

- emotional support;
- organizational support; and
- Instructional support.

a) Emotional support includes

- i. Positive connection of teacher and students,
- ii. Low level of negativity expressed by teacher and students,
- iii. Teacher sensitivity to students' needs,
- iv. Teacher regard for students' interests, motivations, and points of view

b) Organizational support includes

- i. Behavior management
- ii. Classroom productivity

c) Instructional support includes

- i. Learning strategies how teachers engage students in activities and facilitate activities so that learning opportunities are maximized,
- ii. Concept development how teachers use instructional discussions and activities to promote students' higher-order thinking skills and cognition,
- iii. Quality of feedback how teachers extend students' learning through their participation in activities,
- iv. Language modeling the extent to which teachers facilitate and encourage students' language development

The ways in which the absence of teacher quality is a disincentive, particularly to school completion and contributes to pushing students out of school and adding to numbers, is further explored in Human Resources

B. Material resources

Both the availability and quality of materials can be barriers to a quality education.

In many countries there are insufficient basic materials such as blackboards and chalk, text books, teacher support materials, student work books, and supplementary learning aids. They may be unavailable due to lack of financial resources to publish and transport them, lack of human resources to develop them and/ or make them appropriate, and or due to geographical barriers that make delivery untimely or impossible.

A key element in delivery of quality primary education is the quality of material resources for delivery of content. This is reflected in relevance and design of the curriculum and learning materials available for acquisition of basic skills in the areas of literacy, numeracy and skills for life, and knowledge in such areas as gender, health, nutrition, HIV/AIDS prevention and peace.

How low quality in material resources is a disincentive to school participation and completion is explored more in Material Resources.

C. Financial resources

The most important source of financing for education comes from sources within a country/domestic source.

In recent years, most of the Asian countries have suffered further from the impact of the global economic crisis. Even in many of those countries where the domestic spending on education is a significant and respectable percentage of GDP, the actual amount of money available is insufficient to provide a quality education to those children who are in school, let alone those who are excluded. External funding to education can play a critical role in filling funding gaps and as a means to serve as a catalyst to provide resources for those who are underserved in a given country.

9.5 MANAGEMENT OF TIME THROUGH EFFECTIVE USE OF TIME - SCHEDULE

The time-table is a mirror that reflects the entire educational programme of a school. This is also known as "Second School Clock" which guides the functioning of the institutional work in a proper and organized manner. School time table construction can be an extremely difficult task and usually consumes a large amount of time. Although some have a better intuition for the problem than others, it is most of the time practically impossible to construct a timetable that satisfies the wishes of every teacher and student. For example, it always occurs that students have idle hours between their lectures (which many students experience as a time waste), or worse, have courses with clashing lectures. Such conditions affect the choice of student's curriculum or even the student's performance; one can imagine that two scheduled exams on a day could affect a student's concentration and thus his chances of success.

9.5.1 Importance of Time - Schedule for the Teacher

The school time-table is said to be the heart process of school administration. To make the teaching and learning process effective and useful, the school has to be provided with a suitable time-table keeping in view the needs of the pupils and teachers. The time table is a necessary tool for the efficient working of a school. It is really a mirror that reflects the entire educational programme of the school. "It is the time table that supplies the framework within which the work of the school proceeds. It is the instrument through which the purpose of the school is to function." The time table acts as a preamble to the smooth running of the school administration.

The need and significance of the time-table is immense and elaborate, which may be elucidated as below:

- i. It ensures smooth and orderly working of the school: The major achievement of timetable is that everything is planned in advance. All the teachers and students know their jobs as well as the time they are to devote to each activity. It is due to the time table that smooth, orderly and regular work in the school goes on even in the absence of the head teacher or any one of the teachers. If there is no time table in the school, there is always the danger of negligence of duty, duplication of effort and repetition of unnecessary items and activities. The time table places proper persons at their proper places, at the proper time and in the proper manner.
- ii. It prevents wastage of time and energy: The timetable shows exactly what is to be done at a particular time. It, thus, directs the attention of both the pupil and the teacher to one thing at a time. Thus one's energy is automatically directed in a particular direction and this prevents a lot of wastage of time and energy. It also prevents confusion, duplication, overlapping and unnecessary repetition on the part of the pupil and the teacher.
- **iii. It ensures equitable distribution of work among teachers:** With the help of the timetable, the Head Teacher can keep track of the quantum of work load assigned to each teacher working under him/her. The timetable gives a summary of the work allotted to each teacher. The Head Teacher, or 'another superior officer, an know at a glance the amount of work that every teacher is expected to do. Thus, the timetable helps in avoiding the allotment of too much or too little work to, one teacher. This prevents heart burning among the teachers and so unnecessary tension to the Head Teacher on this

account. \sim f t earl l, the Head Teacher has to have a congenial atmosphere in the school for optimal efficiency as well as efficacy.

- iv. It ensures equitable distribution of time to different subjects and activities: The timetable gives due place, extension and emphasis to various subjects and activities in the school, according to their relative importance or difficulty. This is very essential for the all round development of the pupils. This ensures that while the more important subjects and activities get more attention and time, the less important ones are not neglected.
- v. It helps in adjusting schoolwork according to the needs of pupils: The time table helps the school authorities to adjust schoolwork according to the physiological needs of pupils. Fatigue, interest and freshness of mind and body are given due consideration at the time of constructing a time table. As the Head, you should see to it that ample time is provided in the time table for the teachers to check the pupils' notebooks and also to prepare for their lessons. As far as the pupils are concerned, the Head must ensure that co-curricular activities like sports, music, art and craft, library and other such activities get adequate time. This is very important for the all round development of the pupils.
- vi. It helps in the formulation of good habits: A good time table is very helpful in inculcating the habits of orderliness, punctuality and steadiness of purpose, both in the teachers and the students. It ensures regularity and even progress by preventing laxity. It develops a methodical attitude towards work among pupils and teachers in the school. Such adherence to a pre-arranged plan of work is the secret of success of all persons connected with the school.
- vii. It helps in school discipline: The school time table directly aids discipline in the school to a great extent. It prevents confusion and duplication of work and lessens the need of punishment by keeping pupils busy in desirable activities. Everything appears to be in perfect harmony, smoothness and concord. In the absence of such a plan, the school is sure to go topsy-turvy and create administrative problems for the Head. Thus a good timetable not only facilitates work, but also adds efficacy in various spheres.

We should always remember that the time table should not be rigid and allow certain flexibility in it as well as in the mind of the teachers and Head. This is important if we want to achieve the aims and objectives, the vision that we have in mind for the school. The time-table should be prepared in such a manner that it can be moulded according to our needs and requirements without upsetting the other programmes. Teacher absenteeism is a common and recurring problem faced by all school heads. This aspect should be kept in mind as substitute teachers are needed to work in place of absent teachers.

9.5.2 Types of Time Schedule

A good time table clearly indicates what types of curricular and co-curricular activities are being carried on in the school at particular places and hours. It also shows under whose supervision and guidance those activities are being carried out. All this information may be contained in one time table. But the more the number and variety of activities, the more the types of time tables. Only one time table, with all types of information, does not serve the purpose. It is, therefore, desirable for the efficient working of the school programme to have the following types of time table:

- I. Consolidated time table for the whole school: This is also known as the general time table. This timetable is a complete picture of the entire school programme per day. It is not only a sum total of all the class timetables in a concise form, but is also a record of every teacher's daily work. It shows the details of work of every individual teacher, with regard to his curricular and co curricular activities in the school as also the vacant periods allotted to him. This time table is generally meant for the headmaster. Its copies should be available to all the teachers and also be put up in the staff room and students' notice board.
- II. Class time table: It is a time table of each class and of sections thereof. It shows the distribution of subjects in each class along-with teachers for each period. It also indicates the breaks in between the teaching periods along with recess, and the periods for games and other co-curricular activities. All the sections and classes in a school follow their respective class timetable and have a copy of it in their classroom; the class teacher, all the concerned teachers as well as every student should have a copy.
- **III. Teacher's time table:** Every teacher has got a copy of his own programme, showing the details of his academic and non-academic work. A consolidated time table, containing the programme of all the teachers in the school, is also prepared for the guidance and supervision of the Headmaster. A copy of this time table is placed in the staff room and another copy in the head's office.
- IV. Vacant periods time table. A special time table showing the vacant periods of all the teachers is also prepared. This is helpful in allotting work when some teacher is absent. So if on a particular day, one or more teachers are absent, the Headmaster must keep their classes busy in one way or the other. And the best way of doing this job is to consult the vacant periods time table and send those teachers to their classes who are free in those periods. A copy of this timetable is always available in the Headmaster's office
- V. Games time table: This time table shows which particular group is engaged in a particular game at a particular time. Groups for games are not organized on the basis of sections or classes. These are organized on the basis of age and proficiency in games. So the need for a games time table is obvious. In this time table is also shown the number of the playground which is being used by a particular group in the case of a particular game. This will indicate which classes are in the playground at a given time so that it can be checked that too many classes are not there at the same time. This is very essential fdr the School Head to note as the playground is the place where accidents may occur. Any stray ball or push from another student can cause serious injury. Besides, if too many classes are there at a time, it can cause indiscipline if they are not properly supervised.
- VI. Co-curricular activities time table: In addition to games, a variety of co-curricular activities are also organized in every good school. Their importance in the field of education cannot be minimized. A regular time table of all such activities is prepared in the beginning of each session showing the

different types of activities in the school, the names of the teachers in charge of those activities, the place where they are to be held and the time when they are to be undertaken. It saves a lot of duplication as well as overlapping and facilitates the formation of groups of pupils participating in the activities of their own choice and liking.

VII. Homework time table: In every school, some home- work is daily assigned to pupils in various subjects. But in order to see that this home- work does not become a mental strain on the average pupil, a home work time table is prepared beforehand by each section and class. It shows the amount of home task, to be set by each teacher for the class or classes in his or her own subject, during a week. In this way home- work is adjusted among the various teachers teaching the class and then no teacher can unnecessarily overburden the pupils with work in his own subject without caring for the homework by other teachers.

A copy of this time table is put up in each class or section and the monitor is to see that the teachers concerned have assigned the homework for the day. It is also advisable to send a copy of the home- work time table to parents to secure their cooperation in this direction. In some schools a home tasks 'exercise book' is introduced in middle and higher classes and every pupil is required to keep a copy thereof. In this exercise book, the home task assigned to the pupil in various subjects is entered by the teachers concerned each day for the information of the pupil's parent's or guardian's and the is required to get his parent or guardian's signatures with date, after he has done the home task, assigned to him on that particular day. Such a practice inculcates in pupils the good habit of revision and independent work, even after school hours.

9.5.3 Techniques for Framing a Balanced Time - Schedule

Time table gives a clear vision and comprehensive picture of school activities i.e., what work is being done during which period, where, by whom and when. It is a complicated task because it is determined by a number of factors and conditions which change from place to place and from school to school.

A school time table is a table for coordinating these four elements:

- a) students
- b) teachers
- c) rooms (venues)
- d) time slots (also called periods)

The following principles have to be kept in mind during preparation of a good time table:

a) Type of School:

We see firstly whether the school is girls/boys oriented or co-educational, rural or urban, secondary or senior secondary. We determine the nature of activities involved in the school accordingly special needs of a school is to be taken into consideration while framing the time table.

b) Department Regulations:

The state department of education fixes length of the school year, and its terms i.e., when an academic year starts and when it ends, the duration of the school day and even the number of periods for each subject.

c) Amount of time available:

Time-table is framed keeping in view available time i.e., the length of the school year and total number of holidays.

- d) Principle of Justice: While assigning work, special care has to be taken that
- Each teacher is assigned those subjects who he/she feels his/her best qualified to teach.
- He/she does not teach in more than two departments.
- Teaching load for every teacher is about equal to that of others.

e) Relative Importance and Difficulty Value of Subjects:

The time dedicated to a subject should be at per the importance of it and its difficulty value. There are certain socio-economic considerations that determine the importance of a subject in the school curriculum and accordingly, time is allotted to them in the time table.

f) Incidence of Fatigue:

The element of fatigue influences the construction of school time-table a number of ways. Children arc fatigued at certain periods or certain days. It is not only physical but also psychological in nature. It results in a definite weakening of attention and diminishing interest and effects of learning.

- Work Rate: Some subjects are more fatiguing than others. They involve more mental strain and effort. Such subjects are taught during early hours when the student's mind is fresh.
- Mental freshness is the greatest in the morning. This is also true after recess.

The fatigue principle is true for days of the week also. Tuesdays and Wednesdays are considered to be the best days in which maximum work can be done. Younger children are more quickly fatigued. The duration of a class period for them does not exceed 30 to 35 minutes. Seasons too cause fatigue. In summer due to heat we do not like to work.

g) Principle of Variety:

It has been seen experimentally that change of room, seat and posture usually is an antidote against weakness. It is applied on both students and teachers. Variety can be introduced in the following manners:

- No subject except science practical should be kept for two consecutive periods.
- The same class should not set in the same room for the whole day.
- The same teacher should not have two consecutive periods in the same class.

- If a subject is taught only 2/3 times a week, periods should follow at intervals.
- The physical training periods, science practical and drawing work allow a change.

h) Free Periods for Teachers:

We should provide free periods for teachers so as to increase their efficiency and also to provide time for their correction work

i) Principle of Play and Recreation: Careful attention needs to be given to provide for rest and recreation and provision for various co-curricular activities should also be made in the time table, to avoid monotony.

j) Maximum Utilization of Resources:

The qualification, experience, room size should always be kept in mind so as to make the maximum use of all the resources and avoided wastage or under-utilization of resources.

Principle of Elasticity: The time table should have a flexibility so as to work the teachers smoothly.

A time table is, therefore, an absolute necessity for every type of school and its vital importance cannot be denied. Of course, there should be flexibility in the time table; rigidity may cause problems. The time-table has to be relaxed at times as per needs and circumstances, e.g., absenteeism of teachers. While preparing a timetable certain aspects should be kept in mind to make a well balanced one.

9.6 PREPARATION OF DIARIES - DAILY, WEEKLY AND MONTHLY

Diary provides time for a teacher to analyse the learning process and identify some disastrous moments during the class room environment. It helps the teacher in reframing and restructuring the methodology and refines the learning environment. Diary to be the simplest way of targeted reflection of a teacher and his/her reflective instruction. The teacher diary is used in educational research more sporadically. It is because teachers disclose their internal experiences when writing the diary and the processing of statements is often time demanding.

The work on one's own teacher diary, though time demanding, is unquestionably important in terms of the teacher's progress, improvement and analyses of one's own processes of self-evaluation. In other words, it is an investment in one's own improvement. The diary may be prepared in three different perspectives in terms of time duration and its usability.

- I. Daily Diary
- II. Weekly Diary
- III. Monthly Diary

The detailed description of these three types of diaries have been given in the coming discussion.

9.6.1 Preparing a Daily/Weekly/Monthly Diary by the Teacher -Aspects, Principles and Usefulness

Teaching, now a days, has become a challenging and ever changing profession. It is transforming in

all aspects like the learner, teaching environment and curriculum. Teaching must be done in accordance with the learner's needs. A teacher is expected to satisfy the needs of the learner. So, a teacher should introspect within himself and recognize the shortcomings in himself as well as the teaching methodology. He has to undergo some critical analysis and find ways and means to improve the learning process. Teaching is not merely providing information to the learner but it is bringing a radical change in learning process which leads to the grooming of a good knowledgeable learner.

The daily diary is a personal record of observations, feelings, responses, interpretation, reflection, hunches, hypotheses and explanations. According to the dictionary oxford learners pocket dictionary, is defined as a book diary used for a daily record of events. Diary is a record of a person about his or her environment written regularly. Daily records often rated high in the literature because it was written in an honest, spontaneous, resulting in personal expressions of the original and clear, which is one of the qualities that are valued in the literature. Daily notes is not just recording the events of what happened to someone, but an important documentation of the events that happen around, both nationally and internationally, can be concluded sense diary here are the notes someone about himself so as to produce original expressions important events that happened around him.

While writing diary on has to write down the date of the incident. Likewise with detailed matters of learning, such as the time, the subject should be written in the introduction. In this case, the teacher's diary is useful also as a medium for authentic assessment for elementary school students.

Reframing perceptions and assumptions: It provides time for a teacher to analyse the learning process and identify some disastrous moments during the class room environment. It helps the teacher in reframing and restructuring the methodology and refines the learning environment.

- i) **Providing feedback:** It provides the teacher time to rewind the learning experiences and think of it quietly on the affected behaviour of the learners after the teaching. A teacher can adjust his teaching methods or techniques based on the feedback.
- **ii) Writing skill:** It will provide practice to the teacher in writing when he/she analyses and evaluates the experiences of the learner and the teacher himself. It can improve the writing ability of the teacher.
- **Knowledge of Professional Practice:** It can also provide the teacher with the difficulties faced by the teacher and the learner in real situations. So, definitely, it helps him in his professional development.
- **Examining general beliefs/principles:** It's a tool for examination of general beliefs/ principles of the teacher towards teaching the learner and the learning process for his professional practice and development.
- v) Pointer to future classroom arrangements: it acts as a reference or pointer to the future class room discussions and arrangements. It makes the future class room situations fruitful and enjoyable.
- **vi) Modification of teaching methods:** It's a great help in changing/adapting suitable methodologies for an efficient learning environment in the future. He can easily identify the methods that failed in the learning process.

A. Format of a Daily Dairy

	Name of the Teacher: XYZ Class:						Date : XYZ Time :					
S R	Objectives	No. of Sts	Lesson or Unit	Concept	Methodology employed	Fulfillment of Objectives	Feedback	Reflections of students	Teaching Aids	Remarks		

9.7 YEARLY & MONTHLY PLANS FOR THE INSTITUTIONAL WORKING

Each institution must have its own plan. Institutional planning has been treated as the basic unit or grass-root level of the larger educational planning. When a plan is prepared by a particular institution on the basis of its own development and improvement, we call it institutional planning. According to M.B. Buch, "Institutional planning is a programme of development and improvement prepared by an educational institution on the basis of its felt needs and the resources available or likely to be available, with a view to improving the school programme and school practices. It is based on the principle of optimum utilisation of the resources available in the school and the community."

The Indian Education Commission, 1964-66 opines that every educational institution can do a great deal more through better planning and hard work to improve the quality of education within its existing resources. As explained above, most of the planning needs to be done in the school itself.

The institutional plans should be drawn by the institution concerned with the active cooperation of the teacher. To achieve this end, it is necessary that each institution should have a Planning Board. On this Board teachers having some training in drawing out a plan, should be represented. It must be possible to involve the staff, parents, students, inspecting officers and other educationists in the locality.

9.7.1 Types of Plan for the Institutional Working

A. Long-Term Instruction Plans

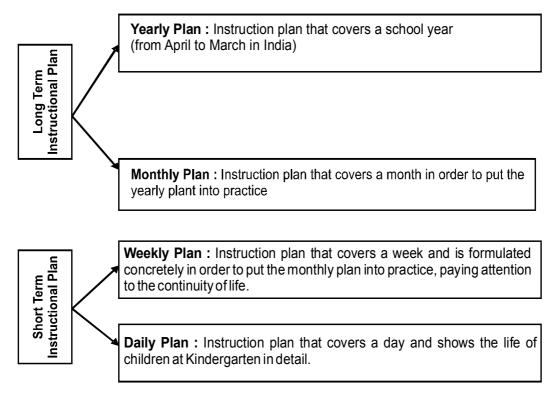
(1) Yearly Plan: The yearly plan is formulated thinking about a year of a child's life in relation to the curriculum of a kindergarten. When formulating the plan, you firstly have to know about the children. Thinking about the number of children, the ratio of boys and girls, and age difference in your class helps you grasp their interests and curiosity. Secondly, you have to think deeply how to place annual events that mark the stages of their lives at kindergarten. It is important to formulate a yearly plan which ensures that the children do not to feel overwhelmed. In addition, the changes of the seasons should be taken into consideration. A plan should

encourage children to notice the changes of the seasons, and to develop their emotions through close contact with nature and the seasons.

(2) Monthly Plan: We should make a detailed monthly plan based on the yearly instruction plan. The monthly plan is formulated giving consideration to the season, events in the month, children's developmental stage and so on

B. Short-Term Instruction Plans

- (1) Weekly Plan: The weekly instruction plan is formulated in order to put the monthly plan into practice. In formulating it, consideration should be given to the continuity of life of the children, because we generally spend our daily life on a weekly basis. And so the weekly plan is very concrete and practical.
- (2) Daily Plan: The basic unit of a child's life is a day. Teachers formulate a daily plan thinking about children's activities, the creation of a good environment and how to support them, hoping that they can spend a full and enjoyable life at schools. This is the most practical and concrete instruction plan, which shows a day of children at school in detail. There is no standardized format for the instruction plan. Although some schools use a standardized format among teachers, it is basically a teacher who is responsible for working out and formulating it.



It should be remembered that instruction plans are merely 'plans'. If teachers stick to those plans but the education has little to do with the realities of the children's lives, they cannot promote proper development. It is important for teachers to be sensitive to - the changes in children's interests, attitudes towards their life or play, relationships with teachers or other children, or changes of weather/temperature - and then flexibly modify or change plans.

9.7.2 Yearly Plans for the Institutional Working- Principles and Usefulness

An annual plan provides a method for tracking the progress of some of the key tasks your service needs to complete regularly, as well as specific 'one off' projects. For some projects you will need to develop much more detailed time lines identifying 'who, what, when'.

An annual plan helps a school define what it intends to achieve when it comes to their student success objectives and organizational goals. A combination of good planning and communication will ensure that all stakeholders including parents, teachers, administrators, principals, board members and community are all striving for the same goals. Successful annual plan implementation requires proper management of budgetary and time resources, the creation of high-output teams and the consistent monitoring of all progress.

Principles of Annual plan in the working of any institution

The annual plan helps in achieving long-term targets and therefore should be based on some comprehensive and far-sighted principles. Some of the key principles for an effective annual plan for the functioning for any educational institution are listed as under:

- pride in cultural and national identity
- skills for life and work in a global world
- alignment with national development plans and regional and international conventions
- access and equity for students with special needs
- partnerships with communities and stakeholders
- a holistic approach to basic education
- realistic financial costing
- use of data in educational planning effective capacity building for all education personnel
- a framework for monitoring and evaluation.

Significance of Annual Plan in the working of any Institution

a) An Annual Plan articulates a shared vision, mission and values

This enables all stakeholders to work towards a common vision. A leading cause of employee discontent) is that employees don't understand how the work they're doing helps their organization. With a well communicated and executed annual plan, everyone is informed of their school's goals and how their actions are contributing to the achievement of these goals.

b) An annual plan effectively organizes schools and their staff

The plan encourages commitment by showing staff members that their work is essential, part of a larger strategy to help their school succeed.

c) An annual plan defines how success is measured

In order to achieve success, it's important to know what success means. A school with a strategy can monitor its progress toward key outcomes and evaluate where and how it may have gotten off track. Using a strategy implementation software like Envisio can help.

d) An annual plan aids a school's board with governance decisions and provides direction for the future

With a plan in place, the board has a roadmap which it can track, evaluate and modify to facilitate better governance decisions and provide direction for the future of the school.

e) An annual plan increases communication and engagement

In large organizations like schools communication is critical so that everyone understands his or her responsibilities and departments are effective in coordinating their efforts. As an additional benefit, the plan helps with fundraising, as well. Donors are more likely to support a school that has a clear vision and a strategy to make it happen..

f) An annual plan keeps everyone in a school-from teachers to administrators-connected

A well implemented and communicated plan holds all staff accountable for their actions and encourages collaboration.

Layout of an Annual Plan in the working of any Institution

Sr	School Improvement Title	Project objectives	Input Required	Activities	Persons Responsible	Venue	Expected Schedule	Estimated Budget	Source of Budget

9.7.2 Monthly Plans for the Institutional Working- Principles and Usefulness

Monthly plan are usually made by teachers and administrators for the purpose of concentrating the distribution of tasks and activities for a specific month by looking into the context of objectives, people involved, time required, venue and the possible outcomes . The effectiveness mainly depends on the abilities and the competencies the concert staff are having to accomplish the task. A layout of the monthly plan is given in according the nature of the task and the match the same with resources available.

Content/ Subject Area	Skill	Performance Objective	Assessment Used

9.8 LET US SUM UP

You have learnt that the resource management has become notably complex in the sense that as human beings, they are not reliable for doing one thing over and over in exactly the same way. They can be expensive depending on their cadres, qualification and skills. In this lesson you have learnt about the need and significance of time resources for the successful transaction of curriculum in different contexts by framing time-schedule.

You have also learnt about various strategies to be adopted for optimizing the outcomes of any procedure using time resources. The principles for framing diaries and annual plan might have cleared your visualisation about modalities to be adopted for meaningful and productive measures for maximizing the utilities of resources in any educational institution.

9.9 LESSON END EXERCISE

- 1. Describe the concept of resources- human & material.
- 2. Discuss, in brief, the need of time schedule field of education. Support your attempt with relevant examples.
- 3. Illustrate the types of time schedule required in a higher secondary school having residential facilities.
- 4. What strategies would you suggest for effective implementation of annual plan in streamlining the education outcomes of the institution?

9.10 SUGGESTED FURTHER READINGS

Aggarwal, J.C. (1956). School Administration, Arya Book Depot, Karol Bagh, New Delhi.

Benjamin, (1950). Democracy in the Administration of Higher Education, Harper & Brothers, New York.

Berlinger-Gustafson, C. (2004). Building professional learning communities. Retrieved March 19, 2007, from http://www.teachinflorida.com/teachertoolkit/PLC.htm

Dewey, (1939). Democracy and Curriculum, 31d Yearbook, New York.

Flaum, L.S. (1953). The Activity High School, Harper and Brothers, New York.

Graseck, P. (2005, January). Where's the ministry in administration? Phi Delta Kappan, 373-378.

Grumdahl, C. R. (2010). How Schools can Effectively Plan to Meet the Goal of Improving Student Learning. ProQuest, LLC, D. Ed. Dessertation, University of Mannesota.

Heartfiled, S. M. (n.d.). Diversity in the workplace: Search for similarities. Retrieved March 25, 2007, from http://humanresources.about.com/od/diversity/a/diversity.htm

Hoy, W. A. & Miskel, C. G. (2005). Educational Administration. New York, NY: The McGraw-Hill Companies.

Juran, J. M. and Gryna, F. M. (1980). Quality Planning and Analysis. New York: McGraw Hill.

Mullinix, B.B. (2002). Selecting and retaining teacher mentors. Washington, DC. (Eric Document Reproduction Service No. ED477728).

Sears, J.B. (1950). The Nature of Administrative Process, Mc. Graw Hill Book Co., New York.

Sharma, R.A. (2005). School Management & Pedagogies of Education, R Lall Book Depot, Meerut.

Lesson No. 10 Unit-III

MANAGEMENT OF THE PHYSICAL RESOURCES

STRUCTURE

10.1	Introduction
10.2	Objectives
10.3	Physical Resources: Meaning and Main Components
10.4	Management of Physical Resources
	10.4.1 Need and Advantages of Physical Resources in an Educational Institution
	10.4.2 Principles of Management of Physical Resources
	10.4.3 Essential Characteristics
10.5	Procedure of Managing Physical Resources
	10.5.1 Making a Survey of Resources
	10.5.2 Making an Analysis of the Present Position of Resources
	10.5.3 Preparing Improvement Programme Projects
10.6	Management of Library as a Vital Physical Resource
10.7	Management of Laboratories as Key Physical Resource
10.8	Management of Hostel as a Residential Physical Resource
10.9	Management of Playground as a Vital Physical Resource
10.10	Let Us Sum Up

10.1 INTRODUCTION

Suggested Further Readings

10.11 Unit End Exercise

10.12

Educational institutions including schools are established and managed essentially to achieve certain stated goals and objectives. There is no way the goal and objectives of an educational institution can be achieved without putting in place certain mechanisms towards ensuring the success of such institutions. In the school system, part of the integral pre-requisites to be put in place towards the actualization of the educational goal and objectives requires adequate provision of resources, maximum utilization and appropriate management

of education resources to avoid wastages and improve the quality of the teaching - learning process in the academic environment.

An educational institution can function only when adequate material equipment or resources have been provided with reference to varied activities of the institution. In this lesson you will learn about various physical resources to used to optimize the learning outcomes at different levels.

10.2 OBJECTIVES

After reading this lesson, you shall be able to:

- Define the meaning of Physical Resources in a school.
- Distinguish between different categories of physical resources.
- Explain the importance and essential characteristics of physical resources in teaching-learning.
- Discuss the principles of effective physical resource management.
- Describe the procedure of managing physical resource in any educational institution.
- Describe the procedures to keep physical resources in your institution properly.
- Analyze the significance of library, laboratories, hostels and the playgrounds in any educational setup.

10.3 PHYSICAL RESOURCES: MEANING AND MAIN COMPONENTS

Education resources refer to all human, material, non material audio-visual school environment and community materials available in an academic environment to facilitate school administration and simplify the teaching learning process. They also include other fundamental materials used in the school to make teaching very easy and learning more meaningful and comprehensible to the learners. Education resources covers all those materials human and non human, drawn or photographed, built manually or electronically operated, books and all forms of related materials used in teaching and learning process.

Education resources includes the teachers in the school, human beings in the community, real objects, specimen or models, chalk and display boards, school buildings and layout, the community at large and other fundamental materials like pencils, pens, exercise books etc which the learners are expected to have at any point in time to facilitate learning (NOUN, 2009). Education resources are no doubt important in the development of a conducive teaching-learning environment. The use of these resources could give more valuable and powerful direction to the teacher than any personal efforts without the materials. In school administration, education resources are not only limited but can be effectively and efficiently managed when management activities are properly harmonized, organized, coordinated and controlled by the school management team.

However, No matter how well packaged a school administration or a school system is at any level of education, without adequate and efficient utilization of the available resources, the system may fail to achieve its desired results. Adequate and apposite resources are vital in the administration of a school. The proper management and use of these resources will not only boost the morale of human resources who coordinates other activities in the school system but also ensure the attainment of goals. Meanwhile, shortage or inadequacy of these

resources is inimical to goal achievement of school administration. Accessibility of education resources makes school management effective and efficient thereby enhancing the output of the education system. Effective school administration leads to efficient instructional process which will yield a quality output.

An educational institution can function only when adequate material equipment or resources have been provided with reference to varied activities of the institution. Now, Let us discuss the classification of tangible or physical equipment as resources of any educational institution viz., the school plant, furniture and the subsidiary equipments.

- A. Main school building with its various sections and departments
- B. Garden and lawns
- C. Playgrounds
- D. Hostel building
- E. Staff quarters
- F. Outhouses and miscellany

A. The Main School Building can further be divided into two major sections: (1) Academic and (2) Administrative.

(1) Academic

- a. Assembly Hall
- b. Library
- c. Museum
- d. The Medical Section, which should include: 1. The Doctor's Room 2. The Dispensary 3. The Sick Room or bedroom for the patients.
- e. Students' Common Room Section, which should include (i) Common room for the pupils (separate for boys & girls), (ii) lunch room (for boys)
- f. Toilets separate for boys and girls.
- g. Activities section, which should include: I. Games room 2. Game stores. 3. Scout and guide room, 4. NCC, NSS room, 5. Photography club room etc.
- h. Crafts section including 1. Craft workshop, 2. Craft store.
- i. Art section including 1. Drawing and painting workshop, 2. Drawing and painting gallery.
- j. Science section including 1. one Lecture Theatre, 2. one laboratory each for different science subjects, 3. one museum, 4. one store each for subjects, i.e. physics, chemistry, biology etc.
- k. Music and dance section including: 1. one demonstration room, 2. one musical apparatus room.
- 1. Home science section including: 1. one lecture room, 2. one home science workshop, 3. one home science kitchen, 4. one store.

- m. Technological section including: 1. one lecture room, 2. one workshop, 3. computer labs. 4. Educational technology equipments store.
- n. Language labs. having adequate number of apparatus, linguaphones, audio-visual aids and cassettes etc.

(2) Administrative Section includes

A. Rooms/Offices

- a. Principal's Room
- b. Visitors' Room
- c. Administrative office
- d. Record Room
- e. Staff Room
- f. Committee room
- g. Guidance and Counselling room
- h. Accountant office
- i. Head clerk office
- j. Examination section
- **B.** Gardens, lawns and farms will include flower-pads, creepers, decorative plants and trees, the water storage and manure pits, a store etc.
- **C.** The playground will have separately demarcated grounds for hockey, football, cricket, volleyball, kabaddi etc.
- **D.** The hostel building should have appropriate number of rooms, common room, guest room, medical room, outdoor and indoor games facility, proper furniture, security and lighting arrangements.
- **E.** The staff quarters will include the residential quarters for the headmaster, the members of the staff and the lower establishment (clerks, assistants, peons and other non-teaching staff).
- F. The miscellaneous section of the campus may include (i) Water storage, (ii) Swimming pool, (iii) Gas plant, (iv) Open air theatre, (v) Gymnasium, (vi) Fire extinguishers, (vii) Agricultural poultry, (viii) Cycle-shed and (ix) Cafeteria or School tuck-shop (x) stationary shop.

10.4 MANAGEMENT OF PHYSICAL RESOURCES

All materials and non-material factors that are necessary and are contributive to the attainment of goals in any institution are regarded as resources. The human component of resources interacts with certain facilities and equipment at certain time to bring about production of output. The quality and quantity of this output are to a greater extent dependent on the quality and quantity of resource input and the manner of processing. By implication therefore input and output are significantly responsive to administration. Administrators of institutions have role to play in ensuring effectiveness and efficiency within and outside the institution, not

only in the procurement or acquisition of resources but also in their organization, coordination, control and maintenance.

The concept of scarce resources is an economic one that attempts to rationalize spending in order to avoid waste. Educational wastages imply the inefficient utilization of education resources to achieve the educational goals. Observably, educational wastages include sickness/ill health, school drop outs, repeaters, non employment of school leavers, brain drain, and under utilization of various educational resources etc. In a school system, wastages can be reduced through the establishment of health/medical unit to monitor the students' health, award of bursaries and scholarships to enable drop outs complete their studies, provision of relevant instructional materials to schools, organizing conferences, seminars and workshops for serving teachers on the improvement of teaching methods and techniques.

This implies that for effectiveness, school administrators must be trained on the principles and practice of education so as to have an in-depth knowledge of the basic classroom management and instructional methods which always form the foundation for student's excellent academic performance and achievement. In addition, a School administrator desires to be trained on educational management concepts that provide administrative skills that model behaviors and motivation in achieving academic goals and qualitative service delivery.

The School Administrator has the responsibility of ensuring that the establishment procedures and structures help the school to achieve its objectives. The image of a modern school administrator is characterized by certain important leadership qualities. The following personal qualities are generally considered as desirable qualification of an effective school administrator; professional competency, self confidence, sociability, moral integrity, humility, modesty and sound health among others.

10.4.1 Need and Advantages of Physical Resources in an Educational Institution

Other things have regarded quality teaching, learning processes and this reduces the quality of educational system, especially, if we view it in a futuristic trend. In view of the present state of available resources for education, the researchers' prime interest is in knowing how total efficacy can be achieved in the management of the available resources. Resources in this context are; physical resources; the movable and immovable properties, physical structures and assets belonging or allocated to an educational institution to enhance teachinglearning process and educational services. To be specific, this research is bothered by the extent of physical resources maintenance in secondary schools as well as the inhibiting (problems) to effective resources management. One of the fundamental ways of ensuring the optimum utility of available resources is through, maintenance culture. Maintenance culture of any school speaks much about such an institution. The general appearance of school facilities constitute the basis upon which members of the public pass their judgments about the academic performance going on in the school. The present economic recession being experienced world over has made it absolute imperative that the gospel of maintenance culture be preached very loudly in our education industry. Having identified the economic rationale of modernization, a relevant programme of maintenance and physical plant renewal is imperative and priority for maintenance is essential because unattended deterioration and neglect of schools buildings could lead to higher out lays, in the form of replacement lost. Schools cannot afford this period of economic hardship; hence a maintenance culture should be adopted

wherever school premises are occupied. Besides, maintenance enables us to pay less now, instead of waiting to pay more at a delayed point in time in the future.

10.4.2 Principles of Management of Physical Resources

The effective utilization and the maintenance of the physical resource would depend on following principles .

- **a.** Create Centralized resource pool: Set up a centralized resource pool for project assignments. Use two important management tools to govern the resource pool the cost associated with each resource in pool and availability of each resource. Based on these two criteria, manage the allocation of resources to different project tasks.
- **b. Balance the Utilization of the resource:** Balance the workload of resources, so that no resource is overloaded. Resource leveling needs to be done on a continuous basis to ensure resources are being used effectively and aligned as per the need of task prioritization.
- **c. Principle of allocation:** Always try to allocate the right resources for right tasks. Don't just assign the tasks to the resources. Always match the resource capability and interest with the task and then do an assignment.
- **d. Principle of Regular Monitoring:** The resources have to be regularly analyzed and monitored to avoid the wastage and duplications.

10.4.3 Essential Characteristics of Physical Resources in Educational Institutions

Physical Resource Management in any educational institution campus should have the following seven prominent Characteristics:

- i. Adequacy: An institution must possess adequately all the facilities necessary for curricular and cocurricular activities. For this purpose the following four points need special attention: i) Site and surroundings, ii) Area, iii) Plan, iv) Design of construction
- **ii. Safety:** An institution plant must be able to protect and secure the life and things of the people inside. It must have proper ventilation and light.
- **iii. Beauty:** The campus must be beautifully designed and decorated so as to present a cheerful atmosphere.
- **iv. Adaptability:** It must be planned in a flexible way so as to leave scope for modifications and growth in accordance with the need
- v. Economy: The school plant should be economical in original cost, upkeep and operations
- **vi. Coordination:** All the sections of the institutional campus must function separately but connected mutually so as to help and not interfere with each other's functions.
- vii. Efficiency and Unity: The whole campus must be planned in such a way that the management is efficient and convenient

Check Your Progress 1:						
Note: (a) Write your answers in the space given below						
(b) Compare your answers with above sub section						
Describe the significance of physical resources in any educational institution school. Mention a few necessary tangible resources of a higher secondary school of your locality.						
2. What criteria will you keep in mind while designing a master plan of an ideal school with regard to its physical resources?						

10.5 PROCEDURE OF MANAGEMENT OF PHYSICAL RESOURCES

The new concept for management of physical resources is need-based and not grant- based, i.e. the plan is prepared in accordance with the actual needs of the school. The institution's physical resource management plan seeks improvement in all directions and it must include school improvement projects in the form of action research. The procedure of physical resource management improvement comprises the following steps:

- Making a Survey of Resources
- Making an Analysis of the Present Position of Resources
- Preparing Improvement Programme Projects
- Implementing the Improvement Programme Projects
- Monitoring the implementation strategies
- Reporting the strengths and weaknesses

10.5.1 Making a Survey of Resources

The administrative head should make a survey of the existing physical resources as well as the resources that can be made available with the help of the supporting staff. The resources are of these categories:

- i) Physical resources of the school building, e.g., equipments in library, laboratory etc.
- ii) Resources easily available in the community, e.g., public library, hospitals, banks, government departments and important private establishments including factories.

The head of institution should make the best use of community resources for the benefit of students. Students must visit places of educational interest in the locality. The survey should be comprehensive and objective by using relevant tools and techniques.

10.5.2 Making an Analysis of the Present Position of Resources

The head should analyse the present situation to review whether -

- i) The school building is spacious enough to cope with the present needs
- ii) The equipments and furniture are adequate
- iii) The laboratory and library facilities are adequately provided
- iv) The institutional programme needs reshuffling and changes and the institution needs additional adjuncts like hostels, staff quarters, school bus, indoor playfields etc.

10.5.3 Preparing Improvement Programme Projects

In the process of preparation of improvement programmes, discussion with the staff should he followed by enlisting the physical resources with details about each programme. The programme may be classified into - i) Short term programmes ii) Long term programmes

Each improvement programme needs to be defined in terms of financial implications if any, and from the point of view of urgency of the problems and availability of resources. Projects must have some broad and some specific objectives depending upon the utility and urgency of the resources. Some of the physical resource improvement projects are suggested below:

- a) Projects concerning building construction of additional rooms, compound wall, quarters for the academic, administrative and supportive staff and white washing, repairs and electrification other building.
- b) Projects concerning campus Beautification of the entire campus, installation of water pumps, provision of sewage, drainage and sanitary conveniences.
- c) Projects concerning instructional material- Enrich the school Library with supply of textbooks, reference books, magazines, and journals and equipping the labs with charts. Models and portraits of scientists.
- d) Projects concerning equipments Provision of audiovisual equipments, art and craft equipments, sports and musical instruments and science laboratory equipments etc.
- e) Projects concerning hygiene and sanitation Supply of personal hygiene materials, soap, towel. mirrors, etc.

10.6 MANAGEMENT OF LIBRARY AS A VITAL PHYSICAL RESOURCE

The school library encourages curiosity, innovation and problem-solving. It is integral to the cultural and social life of the school. The school library is a central point for all kinds of reading, cultural activities, access to information, knowledge building, deep thinking and lively discussion. Research shows the significant difference well-resourced libraries can make to student learning outcomes. School libraries impact studies - studies conducted by the Library Research Service of Colorado State Library and other researchers. The library's collections, services and environment are all designed to help your school meet its targets and goals for raising student achievement. Record your vision and principles for managing your library in your school's library guiding documents.

Thus, the school library must be made the hub of all the activities planned and executed in school. It can be

used by students to prepare for their next class period, home examination, general education, information, competitions, recreation and inspiration. To cater to the wide varieties of demands of students and teachers it has to judiciously select and procure the prescribed/ recommended text-books and other reading material from different sources, technically process it by making use of a standard scheme of classification, catalogue it to provide various access points, organise the collection on scientific lines, circulate the documents and disseminate the information in the manner most liked by the students and teachers. In addition, the school library has to serve as a resource centre as well.

The authorities should take following steps to maximize the utility of library resources:

- The location within the school building should be as central as possible not at a distance.
- The target groups are the pupils and the teachers not the whole population of the area.
- The library activity reaches the whole age group not only the ones who voluntarily seek it
- Working methods are pedagogically justified not service oriented.
- Consistency of provision minimum standards, equality of access (cannot be provided at an individual school level but needs to be set nationally).
- Schools should have a dedicated member of staff to run the school library, preferably a qualified librarian
- School libraries should become a statutory requirement.
- School librarians need to be acknowledged as professionals within school and meet regularly with leadership team.
- Wider availability of specialist courses for school librarians so they can be up-to-date with latest developments.
- Teacher training needs to include the benefits of school library provision so that school libraries can be recognised and valued as key elements in a child's development and education.
- The school inspection regime should be used to encourage positive attitudes and promote good practice on the part of heads and teachers towards libraries and information centres.
- Ensure all reading spaces are welcoming, well designed, modern and suited to the needs of the children in each school.
- Policy makers need to be convinced of the essential role played by librarians in literary education and to understand the relationship between schools and libraries.

10.7 MANAGEMENT OF LABORATORIES AS A KEY PHYSICAL RESOURCE

Science educators have believed that the laboratory is an important means of instruction in science since late in the 19th century. Laboratory activities were used in high school chemistry in the 1880s. In 1886, Harvard University published a list of physics experiments that were to be included in high school physics classes for

students who wished to enroll at Harvard. Laboratory instruction was considered essential because it provided training in observation, supplied detailed information, and aroused pupils' interest.

Five groups of objectives that may be achieved through the use of the laboratory in science classes:

- 1. skills manipulative, inquiry, investigative, organizational, communicative
- 2. concepts for example, hypothesis, theoretical model, taxonomic category
- 3. cognitive abilities critical thinking, problem solving, application, analysis, synthesis
- 4. understanding the nature of science scientific enterprise, scientists and how they work, existence of a multiplicity of scientific methods, interrelationships between science and technology and among the various disciplines of science
- 5. attitudes for example, curiosity, interest, risk taking, objectivity, precision, confidence, perseverance, satisfaction, responsibility, consensus, collaboration, and liking science (1973, p.1119).

Laboratory teaching assumes that first-hand experience in observation and manipulation of the materials of science is superior to other methods of developing understanding and appreciation. Laboratory training is also frequently used to develop skills necessary for more advanced study or research. From the standpoint of theory, the activity of the student, the sensor motor nature of the experience, and the individualization of laboratory instruction should contribute positively to learning. Information cannot usually be obtained, however, by direct experience as rapidly as it can from abstractions presented orally or in print. Thus, one would not expect laboratory teaching to have an advantage over other teaching methods in the amount of information retention, in ability to apply learning, or in actual skill in observation or manipulation of materials.

General safety control measures in the laboratory safety in the school laboratory is everyone's concern and the aim is to ensure that no one gets hurt or becomes ill. The following control measures briefly outline ways of preventing accidents:

- Do not enter the laboratory or use equipment without permission.
- Do not eat or drink in the laboratory. Be aware of safety signs and adhere to them. In the event of an accident, inform the teacher immediately.
- Be aware of the location of fire extinguishers/fire blankets; first aid box and eye wash station.
- Wear eye protection when instructed.
- Long hair should be tied back and dangling jewellery, baggy clothing etc. secured. Hands should be washed after laboratory practical work.
- Do not run; pay attention to where you are going.

10.8 MANAGEMENT OF HOSTEL AS A RESIDENTIAL PHYSICAL RESOURCE

A hostel is a shelter for the students who come from far off places. Students live there with each other and learn the value of discipline and co-operation. The atmosphere of a hostel is conducive to study. Generally, hostels are situated close to school or college. Thus the teachers have direct watch and supervision over the

students in the hostels. Further, it saves time of the students for study. The hostel life is a disciplined life.

Life in a hostel is helpful to the students. It teaches them a sense of responsibility in matters of taking care of books, clothes and health. Students do all the works with their own hands. Thus they become self-dependent. They try to manage themselves with the money from their father. They try to adjust themselves with all kinds of situations.

The students in hostel feel that they are not alone. The superintendent of the hostel acts as the father of a family. The students adhere to a new routine life. They pay hostel dues and mess dues etc. in time. If the payment is delayed, they will be in trouble. Students have their study hour and meal hour in hostel. They do not get any scope to neglect their study. They are free from the worries of home. They devote themselves sincerely to their studies.

A hostel is like a family of students with the superintendent as the head. Students develop a sense of friendship and fellow feeling. They read, play, dine and sit together. In hostel, students exchange their books. A student, thus, does not need to buy all the books. Further, reading in company is more helpful to them than reading alone.

- A hostel provides a congenial atmosphere for study. Serious students learn many good things in hostels.
- There is a fixed time for everything. The students have to get up when the bell rings. They are to do everything according to the timetable. There are fixed times for study and sport.
- The students have to lead a disciplined life and they learn regularity and punctuality.
- In hostels, the students can get help from the brighter students in their studies.
- They can also borrow books from one another.
- They have the opportunity of reading newspapers, magazines and other useful books in the reading room attached to a hostel.
- In a hostel, the students learn many useful lessons of life. They have to do everything for themselves. This creates in them the habit of self-reliance.
- In many hostels, the students have to manage the mess as well. This helps them to learn how to manage a home and spend money carefully. Therefore, hostel-life is a preparation for the domestic life later.
- Students of the same age generally live in such places. Therefore, they learn to have regard for others, to live with others and to help one another in times of need. Hostel life thus help to develop in students a sense of fellow feeling.

10.9 MANAGEMENT OF PLAYGROUNDS AS VITAL PHYSICAL RESOURCES

School playgrounds are not merely a place for students to let off steam or hang out during recess. Rather, a fun, safe playground environment stimulates students' minds and allows for their cognitive, physical, and social development. In fact, outdoor play areas provide children with rich opportunities to grow, learn, and develop.

For younger children and students with short attention spans, the school playground provides a much-needed break from sitting in the classroom, refreshing their minds for further learning. Recent studies highlight the importance of children's play in addressing childhood obesity, while other studies show that school playgrounds allow students to:

- Improve motor skills and gain physical strength
- Improve balance and coordination
- Develop social skills
- Learn to share, communicate, and collaborate with others
- Learn to compromise and take turns
- Appreciate diversity in others
- Develop empathy
- Master new skills
- Gain independence
- Develop problem-solving skills
- Take on new challenges
- Experience success as a result of persistence and perseverance
- Expand creativity and imagination

The school playground provides a safe outdoors environment within the school that stimulates children to use their creative energy in healthy interactions with one another. The most enchanting schools always have large, open playgrounds with interesting play equipment that leaves many options for creativity. Children sit at their classroom desk for many hours each day. They are given breaks in between where they go outdoors to the playground. The key to these playgrounds is choice: use the play equipment, run on the field, jump rope, play basketball, or create some new game to challenge friends.

A good playground will be large with many different surfaces (blacktop, grass, sand, etc.) to stimulate choice and leave options open. The playgrounds must be spacious and outdoors, but they must also be secluded so that the children (and their parents) feel safe and do not have to consider the outside world. A good playground will allow for anyone on the playground (including the teacher) to see all that is going on, but will not have any connections or visibility to the street or any location off school grounds. At the same time, it should seem open and spacious. Thus, some high walls are necessary, but using the school buildings as boundaries as well can preserve the open feeling of the playground.

10.10 LET US SUM UP

School physical resource management has a direct impact on the learning environment and is a key determinant of educational outcomes. It is, therefore, critical that school physical resource management practices align with

the school improvement plan by linking school assets to basic education service delivery standards and strategies. Facility maintenance entails providing clean and safe environment for teaching and learning. In educational system, the physical resources would include the classrooms/lecture rooms, staff offices, vehicles, health centers, library, laboratory, and so on, which directly or indirectly contribute to the achievement of goals.

Through this lesson you have been exposed to modalities to manage effectively various domains of physical resources to optimize the possible learning outcomes in any educational institutions. You also learn about characteristics of desirable physical resources and the strategies to use the resources effectively.

10.11 LESSON END EXERCISE

- 1. Describe the utility of the physical resources in your school.
- 2. What are the essential characteristics of physical resource management? Cite examples .
- 3. Describe the main principles, which the authorities should keep in mind to maximize the effectiveness physical resources in the school.
- 4. Draw a sketch plan for identification of an improvement project for a science laboratory in a higher secondary school known to you. Also describe the procedures for maximising the utility of laboratories with due examples.

10.12 SUGGESTED FURTHER READINGS

Aggarwal, J.C. (1956). School Administration, Arya Book Depot, Karol Bagh, New Delhi.

Benjamin, (1950). Democracy in the Administration of Higher Education, Harper & Brothers, New York.

Berlinger-Gustafson, C. (2004). Building professional learning communities. Retrieved March 19, 2007, from http://www.teachinflorida.com/teachertoolkit/PLC.htm

Dewey, (1939). Democracy and Curriculum, 31d Yearbook, New York.

Flaum, L.S. (1953). The Activity High School, Harper and Brothers, New York.

Graseck, P. (2005, January). Where's the ministry in administration? Phi Delta Kappan, 373-378.

Heartfiled, S. M. (n.d.). Diversity in the workplace: Search for similarities. Retrieved March 25, 2007, from http://humanresources.about.com/od/diversity/a/diversity.htm

Hoy, W. A. & Miskel, C. G. (2005). Educational Administration. New York, NY: The McGraw-Hill Companies.

Mullinix, B.B. (2002). Selecting and retaining teacher mentors. Washington, DC. (Eric Document Reproduction Service No. ED477728).

Sears, J.B. (1950). The Nature of Administrative Process, Mc. Graw Hill Book Co., New York.

Sharma, R.A. (2005). School Management & Pedagogies of Education, R Lall Book Depot, Meerut.

Lesson No. 11 Unit-III

MANAGEMENT OF THE HUMAN RESOURCES:

STRUCTURE

11.1	Introduction

- 11.2 Objectives
- 11.3 Human Resources in Education
- 11.4 Management of Human Resources
 - 11.4.1 Need and Advantages
 - 11.4.2 Functions of Management of Human Resources
 - 11.4.3 Essential Characteristics of Effective Human Resource Management in Education
- 11.5 Interpersonal and Intergroup Relations
 - 11.5.1 Need of Interpersonal and Intergroup Relations
 - 11.5.2 Principles for maintaining effective Interpersonal and Intergroup Relations
- 11.6 Teacher-Taught Relationship
 - 11.6.1 Significance of Teacher-Taught Relationship
 - 11.6.2 Ensuring Meaningful Teacher- Taught Relationship
- 11.7 Relation of Teacher with Head and Administrator
- 11.8 Let Us Sum Up
- 11.9 Lesson End Exercise
- 11.10 Suggested Further Readings

11.1 INTRODUCTION

The human resource issues which have an impact on this workforce must be viewed generationally in context. We need to identify the particular demographic, economic, social and political circumstances facing societies in the year 2000 and beyond. Without going into a detailed analysis, we can say that there is and will continue to be for the next decade, an enormous turnover of the teaching profession and administrative leadership in education in most countries. Not only will large numbers need to move into the system, but leaders will move

rapidly upward as positions will need to be filled in record numbers. On the one hand, this presents a great opportunity to recreate the profession; on the other hand, the sheer size of the task and the capacity to take advantage of the opportunity are problematic to say the least.

This lesson will expose you about the strategies and practices desirable for effective human resources management in the field of education. You will also learn about interpersonal relationship of human resource component in the education system in Indian perspectives specifically. This lesson will also make you to understand about teacher- taught relationship and the steps to be taken to strengthen the desirable climate for building the interpersonal and intergroup relationship in the context of educational scenario.

11.2 OBJECTIVES

After reading this lesson, you shall be able to:

- Describe the need and advantages of management of human resources.
- Describe the challenges of human resource management in education.
- Describe the functions of management of human resources.
- Enunciate need of interpersonal and intergroup relations.
- 5. Explain principles for maintaining effective interpersonal and intergroup relations.
- 6. Visualize the situations for meaningful teacher- taught relationship and teacher- principal relationships.

11.3 HUMAN RESOURCES IN EDUCATION

Every educational system at every level depends heavily on the human resources for execution of its programme. Nwakaand Ofojebe (2010) stated that teachers are the critical resources for effective implementation and realization of the educational polices and objectives at the practical level of classroom. A manager, whether in private or public sector, who underrates the critical role and underplays the importance of people in goal achievement, can neither be effective nor efficient.

It is the teacher who ultimately interprets and implements policy as represented in the school curriculum, which is designed to actualize educational goals. Maintaining and improving educational standards is only possible through teachers. Teachers therefore are the most indispensable entity in the school. They are the greatest aid to learning. The shortage or poor management of teachers reduces the extent to which the curriculum can be delivered effectively. It should be noted that the major premise of human resources management in education is that the end results of the educative process will be determined by the effectiveness of the teachers who facilitate learning for self-actualization and national development.

Within this context, the values, motivation and capacity of educators will be the key resource for the educational system. Educators will need to work in much more collaborative, transparent conditions. 'What's Out There' is now 'In Here' (Hargreaves and Fullan, 1999). The boundaries of the schools are more permeable; the performance of schools is more visible; trust in all professions (especially teaching) by the public and politicians is more qualified. This certainly places more demands on the teaching profession, and under certain conditions can

lead to demoralization and demotivation. But a confident, qualified profession is better positioned to address the criticisms and to take the risks of reaching out to form collaborative partnerships with parents, local communities, business and industry, and to engage public policy and accountability in a proactive and responsive way. We have recently formulated a 'change formula' which is a working definition of the main

11.4 MANAGEMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES

Human resource division is an essential part of any organization. The officials working in this section are called human resource managers. The responsibilities of these managers are planning, recruiting, selection, induction, training, developing, ensuring safety, determining compensation packages and smoothing career path of personals working in the organization. Human resource managers in education organization also perform these common jobs. Apart of these, there are other human resource managers in education. The core job of other human resource managers in education is unique and very different than other organization. It will be more understanding if we define who these human resource managers in education are. In education, they are principals, their deputies, head of the department, teachers, parents, guardians and so on. Their core responsibilities are to manage, nurture, educate and prepare the prospective human resources of the society. These prospective human resources are the students who will lead the country, society and family. Their innovation will take the country in its great height. Prosperity of a country is largely determined by the quality of these resources.

11.4.1 Need and Advantages of Human Resources Management

Human resource division is an essential part of any organization. The officials working in this section are called human resource managers. The responsibilities of these managers are planning, recruiting, selection, induction, training, developing, ensuring safety, determining compensation packages and smoothing career path of personals working in the organization. Human resource managers in education organization also perform these common jobs. Apart of these, there are other human resource managers in education.

The core job of other human resource managers in education is unique and very different than other organization. It will be more understanding if we define who these Human resource managers in education are. In education, they are principals, their deputies, head of the department, teachers, parents, guardians and so on. Their core responsibilities are to manage, nurture, educate and prepare the prospective human resources of the society. These prospective human resources are the students who will lead the country, society and family. Their innovation will take the country in its great height. Prosperity of a country is largely determined by the quality of these resources.

Quality of school leaders and managers is one of the basic factors influencing significantly quality of teaching and learning processes at each level of the system of education. To optimize professional training of school leaders the authors carried out a broad research which aim was to identify both significance of particular items of a school leader competence profile and school leaders' needs and requirements derived from their current everyday practice.

11.4.2 Functions of Management of Human Resources

We know that the human resource management in education is a set of practices and methods of integrating and maintaining the teaching staff in the school so that the school can achieve their purpose and as well as meet the goals for which they were established. It is the motivation and co-ordination of the activities and effort of the teachers in school in order to obtain maximum output from them and consequently achieve the goals of education optimally. The functions include the following:

- a. Provision and Maintenance of Staff
- b. Maintenance of Cordial Staff Relations
- c. Staff Professional Development
- d. Establishing Effective Mechanism for Procurement of Staff
- e. Practice of Job Performance Rewards

a. Provision and Maintenance of Staff

This concern making the work environment conducive for workers, pertinent practices include; promotion and transfer, motivation, staff safety, security and health services. It is pertinent that educational establishments have sound policies in respect of staff transfer and promotion to ensure that justice and fairness prevail in dealing with staff. As work to be performed in the school is important, the mood of the man to perform the job is equally important. For maximum and productive goal attainment, the school head must ensure the comfort and happiness of the workers. That can be done through prompt payment of salary, and ensuring a safe and healthy working environment.

b. Maintenance of Cordial Staff Relations

The staff relations is the back bone of human resource mechanism There must be a good communication network in the school to enable workers to be constantly informed of the progress being made in the school. Workers should be encouraged to participate in planning and decision making in the school.

c. Staff Professional Development

This is the process of appraising staff performances and identifying their key skills and competence that need development or training to improve their skills for better performance. It involves providing development programme and training courses that are suitable for the programme. The success of educational organization hinges on the strength and quality of the staff members. There is a need to change through training and to improve and grow in competence. This can be done through in-service training, conference, workshop and seminars.

d. Establishing Effective Mechanism for Procurement of Staff

Human resource management functions start with the process of recruitment and selection by which educational institutions get the best personnel to interpret and implement the curriculum programmes. Staffing of schools is a job performed by the ministry of education through its agencies in the federal and state government.

Procurement of staff in education deals with obtaining people with appropriate and necessary skills, abilities, knowledge and experience to fill the vacant teaching posts in schools.

e. Practice of Job Performance Rewards

This involves the design and administration of rewards for jobs performed. It is very important that management, ministry of education and its agencies take the issue of reward system very seriously. Staff performance would increase substantially if they are adequately compensated according to the quality and quantity of work done.

f. Ensuring Appropriate Use of ICT in Day to Day activities

As the 21st century world is undergoing rapid changes, there is urgency for few educational needs such as the call for use of ICT in education. Current call for ICT usage in education is worthy but, its implementation in the nation is in the toddling stage. ICT penetration and usage remains very low and so the need to train many teachers at all levels in ICT to equip them for reengineering the society through the skills.

11.4.3 Essential Characteristics of Effective Human Resource Management In Education

Human Resource management is a process and philosophy of acquisition, development, utilization, and maintenance of competent human force to achieve goals of an organization in an efficient and effective manner. Concept of HRM contains two versions - the hard version and the soft version. The hard version or variant emphasizes the need to manage people in ways that will obtain added value from them and thus achieve competitive advantage.

On the other hand, soft version is concerned with treating employees as valued assets, a source of competitive advantage through their commitment, adaptability and high quality. Today's HRM is a combination of both the versions. HRM is management of human energy and capabilities.

i. It is an art and a science

The art and science of HRM is indeed very complex. HRM is both the art of managing people by recourse to creative and innovative approaches; it is a science as well because of the precision and rigorous application of theory that is required.

ii. It is pervasive

Development of HRM covers all levels and all categories of people, and management and operational staff. No discrimination is made between any levels or categories. All those who are managers have to perform HRM. It is pervasive also because it is required in every department of the organization. All kinds of organizations, profit or non-profit making, have to follow HRM.

iii. It is a continuous process

First, it is a process as there are number of functions to be performed in a series, beginning with human resource planning to recruitment to selection, to training to performance appraisal. To be specific, the HRM process includes:

• acquisition (HR planning, recruitment, selection, placement, socialisation),

- development (training and development, and career development),
- utilization (job design, motivation, performance appraisal and reward management), and
- maintenance (labour relations, employee discipline, grievance handling, welfare, and termination). Second, it is continuous, because HRM is a never-ending process.

iv. HRM is a service function

HRM is not a profit centre. It serves all other functional departments. But the basic responsibility always lies with the line managers. HRM is a staff function - a facilitator. The HR Manager has line authority only within his own department, but has staff authority as far as other departments are concerned.

v. HRM must be regulation-friendly

The HRM function has to be discharged in a manner that legal dictates are not violated. Equal opportunity and equal pay for all, inclusion of communities in employment, inclusion of tribal's (like Posco or Vedanta projects) and farmers in the benefits and non-violation of human rights must be taken care of by the HRM.

vi. Interdisciplinary and fast changing

It is encompassing welfare, manpower, personnel management, and keeps close association with employee and industrial relations. It is multi-disciplinary activity utilising knowledge and inputs from psychology, sociology, economics, etc. It is changing itself in accordance with the changing environment. It has travelled from exploitation of workers to treating them as equal partners in the task.

vii. Focus on results

HRM is performance oriented. It has its focus on results, rather than on rules. It encourages people to give their 100%. It tries to secure the best from people by winning the whole hearted cooperation. It is a process of bringing people and organization together so that the goals of each are met. It is commitment oriented.

viii. People-centred

HRM is about people at work both as individuals and a group. It tries to help employees to develop their potential fully. It comprises people-related functions like hiring, training and development, performance appraisal, working environment, etc. HRM has the responsibility of building human capital. People are vital for achieving organizational goals. Organizational performance depends on the quality of people and employees.

ix. Human relations philosophy

HRM is a philosophy and the basic assumption is that employees are human beings and not a factor of production like land, labour or capital. HRM recognises individuality and individual differences. Every manager to be successful must possess social skills to manage people with different needs.

An integrated concept

HRM in its scope includes Personnel aspect, Welfare aspect and Industrial relations aspect in itself. It is also integrated as it concern with not only acquisition, but also development, utilisation, and maintenance.

Check your Progress 1
Note : (a) Write your answers in the space given below
(b) Compare your answer with above sub section
1. What human resource policy adjustments need to be made in your school system to accommodate new human services employees?
2. What initiatives would you recommend to be taken to orient and integrate new staff into the school system?
3. Should new human resource workers have ready access to students at school?

11.5 INTERPERSONAL AND INTERGROUP RELATIONS

One of the vital components of Human Relationship is interpersonal relationship. An interpersonal relationship is an association between two or more people that may range from fleeting to enduring. This association may be based on inference, love, solidarity, regular business interactions, or some other type of social commitment. Interpersonal relationships are formed in to context of social cultural and other influences. The context can vary from family or kinship relations, friendship, and marriage, relations with associations, work, clubs, neighborhoods, and places of work ship. They may be regulated by law, custom, or mutual agreement, and are the basis of social groups and society as a whole. Interpersonal relationship usually involves some level of interdependence. People in relationship tend to influence each other, share their thoughts and feelings, and engage in activities together. Because of this interdependence, most things that change or impact one member of the relationship will have some level of impact on the other member.

11.5.1 Need of Interpersonal and Intergroup Relations

Interpersonal relationship refers to a strong association among individuals working together in the same organization. Employees working together ought to share a special bond for them to deliver their level best. It is essential for individuals to be honest with each other for a healthy interpersonal relationship and eventually positive ambience at the workplace.

a. Interpersonal relationship has a direct effect on the organization culture. Misunderstandings and confusions lead to negativity at the workplace. Conflicts lead you nowhere and in turn spoil the work environment.

- b. We need people around who can appreciate our hard work and motivate us from time to time. It is essential to have some trustworthy co workers at the workplace who not only appreciate us when we do some good work but also tell us our mistakes. A pat on the back goes a long way in extracting the best out of individuals. One needs to have people at the workplace who are more like mentors than mere colleagues.
- c. An individual spends around eight to nine hours in his organization and it is practically not possible for him to work all alone. Human beings are not machines who can work at a stretch. We need people to talk to and share our feelings. Imagine yourself working in an organization with no friends around. We are social animals and we need friends around. An individual working in isolation is more prone to stress and anxiety. They hardly enjoy their work and attend office just for the sake of it. Individuals working alone find their job monotonous. It is essential to have trustworthy fellow workers around with whom one can share all his secrets without the fear of them getting leaked. We must have friends at the workplace who can give us honest feedback.
- d. A single brain alone can't take all decisions alone. We need people to discuss various issues, evaluate pros and cons and reach to solutions benefiting not only the employees but also the organization on the whole. Employees can brainstorm together and reach to better ideas and strategies. Strategies must be discussed on an open platform where every individual has the liberty to express his/her views. Employees must be called for meetings at least once in a week to promote open communication. Interaction on a regular basis is important for healthy relationship.
- e. It always pays to have individuals around who really care for us. We need colleagues to fall back on at the times of crisis. If you do not talk to anyone at the workplace, no one would come to your help when you actually need them.
- f. An individual needs to get along with fellow workers to complete assignments within the stipulated time frame. An Individual working all alone is overburdened and never finishes tasks within deadlines. Support of fellow workers is important. You just can't do everything on your own. Roles and responsibilities must be delegated as per specialization, educational qualification and interests of employees. An individual needs help of his fellow workers to complete assignments on time and for better results.

11.5.2 Principles for Maintaining Effective Interpersonal and Intergroup Relations

Good interpersonal relationship leads people to deal and work in friendly and cozy environment. Health interpersonal relations provide people security, satisfaction, enjoyment and contentment towards each other. And those who are not successful to gain good interpersonal relations with people around them feel great sense of frustration, anxiety, failure and loneliness. The relation of the person with other people around him is known as interpersonal relationship. The skilled interpersonal qualities are very necessary for living a comfortable life with good social relations. No one is born with social skills. Everyone learns, perceives and absorb the social norms and the way of dealing people; which comes with time. The first school of social learning of a person is home. Home is the first place where one learns basic etiquettes, social norms and how to deal and respond to people. The basic learning of person is started and is leant from home. And since then a journey of learning and improving the social skills is constant. The social skills and interpersonal skills of a

person are experienced when he enters the professional life. And with time these skills are polished. To have good interpersonal relationship there are five important principals which are as following:

i. Principle of Mutual Benefit

The strong interpersonal relations are formed when people share same group of interests. It helps them to form a strong bond and meet up the social need of themselves; and as well as those one which are related or are connected with each other. So a healthy interpersonal relationship brings satisfaction to both sides of people. And to have such cordial terms both of the parties have to show a friendly affection with acceptance towards other. This is more successful when both parties share mutual interest and are capable of understanding each other.

ii. Principle of Sharing Credit

For making the relation with the people fruitful and pleasant it is important to make people feel that you are useful for them. When people are treated this way they value you but more important is maintaining such interpersonal relation. The mutual understanding can be achieved through mutual sincerity and good intentions for each other. Only such feelings will enhance the good emotions and will make the relationship stronger no matter what type of relationship it is. When there is mutual understanding and benefits people tend to be more positive about such relations and to maintain such interpersonal relationships it is important to value the credit received and given.

iii. Principle of Giving due Respect

No matter how alike the people are there can be many situations where two views are shared. When someone has to deal people socially there is always a presence of different views. And to keep the environment safe, friendly and healthy everyone should have a tolerance to accept and hear other point of views. Many times there comes a point when people exchange views which are different from other, even if someone doesn't seem to agree then the interpersonal skills teaches us to show tolerance and acceptance to listen other views. Everyone has a right of freedom of speech so everyone has right to share their thoughts. So only through tolerance and respect one can maintain good interpersonal relationships.

iv. Principle of Tolerance

Tolerance means that a person does not care about small minor issues, and by keeping aside the disturbing issues one can work together for a common goal and can negotiate the issues separately without letting the environment and relationship to get spoil. As there is always an individual difference, everyone has different mindset which brings out different view somewhere, through tolerance one can only deal with such situations. If someone had shown harsh behavior or has hurt you then there are two basic ways to deal with it, first keep a grudge, plot revenge or try to forget about it and never bother to expect something from that person. A skilled interpersonal person would prefer the second option and will try to deal the situations with tolerance.

v. Principle of Moderation

There should be a healthy interpersonal relation with people. A distant relation brings distance and lack of

communication where as too much communication and time together causes irritation, obsession and lack of sense of space. To maintain a good social interpersonal relation one should keep a moderate way to deal and communicate with people. So the degree of relation should be maintained properly regarding the type of relationship one has.

11.6 TEACHER-TAUGHT RELATIONSHIP

The teacher-student relationship is a very inclusive and it requires both parties to meet each other halfway. However, the onus is more on the teachers. The modern scenario has more teachers for whom teaching isn't vocation but an occupation. It is reflected in their impersonal and commercial approach towards their students. We need more teachers who are teachers by choice and not by default.

11.6.1 Significance of Teacher-Taught Relationship

The relationship that a teacher and student share is of trust, respect and devotion. Teachers influence their students by shaping their rational and moral virtues and hence, play an important role in molding the society as a whole. The education system of ancient India and Greece shared some common characteristics. In both cultures, teachers and their disciples conglomerated at specific places earmarked for educational purposes. t is beyond the scope of dubiety that teachers, since ages, have played a major role in the life of an individual and his/her overall upbringing. Teachers are the beacons of light that lead people to success and glory. They are the ones who recognize the talents of their students and encourage them to move further and assist them in reaching the zenith of their potential. Let us dedicate this Teacher's day to all those teachers who, through their talent, patience, wisdom and astute judgment of character, shaped the fates of many individuals who influenced the society as a whole.

a. Improving Academic Success

Studies have shown that strong relationships between a teacher and his or her students can have a substantial impact on academic success. When students view their teachers as a partner rather than an adversary, they are more open to learning. In addition, this can turn classrooms into a collaborative environment where students are more willing to listen to both the teacher and each other.

b. Preventing Behavior Problems in the Classroom

In some classrooms, students may feel a sense of alienation from those around them. In particular, students from a lower socioeconomic background may feel like school isn't beneficial for them. In their minds, school is an environment that tries to control them without any personal benefit. By building a stronger relationship with students, teachers can overcome many behavioral issues by helping students feel like they are part of a group. Instead of feeling like they are outsiders in the classroom, students begin to feel like they are part of a team. While teachers are different than friends, a familial relationship can be beneficial for many students who experience issues with behavior.

c. Improving Student Attitude Towards Classwork

When students recognize that a teacher truly wants the best for them, they are willing to try harder in the

classroom. Many students don't understand that schoolwork, while it may not be fun, is beneficial for them in the long run. Unfortunately, many students view schoolwork on a superficial basis. Schoolwork is viewed as something that isn't fun and doesn't provide a benefit. However, by building a stronger relationship with students, teachers can help their students recognize the value of their work.

d. Aiding Growth in and Outside the Classroom

Growth encompasses many different areas. These include emotional growth, academic growth, physical growth, and spiritual growth. Unfortunately, many classrooms focus only on growth in terms of academics. When teachers are able to take the time to build a stronger relationship with their students, it's possible to create a stronger understanding of what individual students need to achieve higher levels of growth. By doing this, teachers can adapt their classroom activities to better meet the needs of students. Teachers gain the ability to help their students grow beyond academics. They can learn how to help their students grow in many different facets of their lives and ensure students have a successful future for themselves and those around them.

11.6.2 Ensuring Meaningful Teacher- Taught Relationship

The student/teacher relationship is a cornerstone in a student's social maturation process. Cultivating a positive rapport with a non-parental authority figure allows students to define themselves, adapt to their environment and grow their emotional and social intelligence. It takes guts and determination to address a teacher privately and let them know how much doing well in the classroom matters to them and teachers value that outreach and display of maturity. Following steps need to be taken to build up a meaningful relationship between teacher and students:

- *i.* Get to know the students by name as quickly as possible. Students will appreciate this. You may want to distribute an information sheet at the first class session. The sheet can ask students for their name, the name they prefer to be called by, where they live, interests or hobbies, a success experience, goals, places they have visited, part-time jobs held, etc.
- *ii. Get to know some personal things about each student.* Using the survey described previously is one way to accomplish this. Another activity is to take advantage of the time at the beginning and end of class, after tests, before holidays, or after holidays just to talk with and listen to students. Ask students about their weekends, goals and aspirations, and opinions about local, national, and world events. What you talk about is probably less important than the fact that you were interested enough to ask and listen. In your effort to improve classroom climate and build better teacher-student relationships, avoid focusing on answering factual questions or testing students' knowledge when discussing current events. Instead, ask them opinion questions. The goal is to get students to participate, to feel like they are valued members of the class and that their comments are valued-not to assign grades.
- *Conduct a values analysis discussion about some current event or topic.* In this activity, it is important that certain rules be followed. Make sure that when anyone is speaking, everyone listens to the speaker. Students may ask questions to help clarify what a student is saying, but they cannot challenge or disagree with the speaker. Other students can respond with their opinions and support it, but they cannot directly disagree

with each other. For example, in a history class we could ask students to read about and discuss the dropping of the atomic bombs in World War II. Ask students if they would have dropped the atomic bombs had they been President Truman. Have them explore why they would or would not have dropped the bombs. Or, in a government or sociology class you could have students examine the issue of the death penalty. Have students take a position on whether they favor or disapprove of the death penalty. Then have them explore the reasons for and against its use. In a psychology class, you could have students discuss the issue of using animals to conduct research.

- *iv. Provide positive comments when appropriate.* Sometimes we become so busy or frustrated by the problems that occur that we forget to notice and comment on the positive things students does. Teachers can recognize effort, cooperative behavior, and helping behavior. Positive comments can also be made about things like a new hair style, a shirt, a pair of shoes, or a good voice. If you think the student might be embarrassed by public recognition from a teacher, then comment privately to the student. This can be done during study time. Or, you can write comments on papers you are returning to students such as homework assignments or tests.
- v. Be positive and enthusiastic when teaching. Most students find it difficult to be motivated when the teacher is not. As we demonstrate our interest and joy in teaching, it shows that we enjoy being in the classroom and implies we enjoy being with the students. This should enhance teacher-student relationships.
- vi. Show students that you are not only interested in them but also that you care about them. Take the time to talk individually with students. You could do this by setting a goal for talking individually with each student every week, or whatever is practical. You can ask about how they are doing with the content and skills in the course or you may prefer to make the conversation a more personal one. For example, you might ask students about their extracurricular activities, hobbies, or interests. Some teachers make it a practice to greet students as they come into the classroom as yet another way to demonstrate their interest in their students.
- vii. Avoid the use of threats and punishment. If students do something that is disruptive, use a time-out procedure rather than punishment. After the time-out procedure has been used, be sure to sit down with students and talk with them. Practice active listening. That is, ask them how they feel about what occurred. Give them a chance to get out any frustrations and feelings. After they have had a chance to discuss their feelings, then you can talk about ways to avoid such an occurrence in the future. Make it clear to the student that it is the behavior and not the person that is unacceptable. In fact, make it a point to say or do something that will make the student feel valued.
- viii. Do not play favorites. Some students are easy to like, while others are not. Yet we need to be sure that some students do not get special privileges and others harsher treatment because of our feelings toward them. When we have tasks or responsibilities to be carried out, be sure to give all students an opportunity to participate. This will give us one more opportunity to strengthen our relationship with students by showing trust in them, as well as providing us with the opportunity to thank them for something they have done.

Every day for two weeks, spend two minutes talking with the challenging student. During your conversation,

say something positive about the student. Over the course of the two weeks, try to change the balance of the conversation so that the student does more of the talking.

- *ix. Create a supportive classroom environment.* Instead of having students compete with each other for grades, recognition, and/or success, have students work together cooperatively to carry out some task or project. In the evaluation process, base the grade on both individual and group achievement. Structure the evaluation process in such a way that individual improvement will help the group grade as well as the individual grade. This will hopefully get students to work together and help each other.
- x. Create an environment where questions and answers-even wrong answers-are encouraged and valued. Students learn more and participate more when they feel comfortable asking and answering questions. But students will not ask or answer questions if they think they will be embarrassed. Encourage and recognize students when they ask and answer questions. When students tell you that they do not understand something, tell them that you appreciate their comment because it helps you to know what aspects of a lesson need additional coverage.

11.7 RELATION OF TEACHERS WITH HEAD AND ADMINISTRATOR

The principal occupies an important position in the school building. As the leader of a group of professional, certified teachers, and the coordinator of a cadre of classified personnel, the principal establishes important relationships with the staff. If education is the major foundation for the future strength of this country, then teachers-as they come from various backgrounds-must be the cornerstone. Likewise, as schools continue to evolve and as shifts in the demographics of populations continue to occur nationally, there is a need and a call for different relationship paradigms to assist in the proper guidance of those we place in the classrooms. These new paradigms will be marked with servant leaders who empower as opposed to delegate; builds trust rather than demands loyalty; and instead of just hearing and leading from the head, seeks to understand and leads from the heart. This phenomenon occurs because teachers who see principals as facilitators, supporters, and reinforcers for the jointly determined school mission rather than as guiders, directors, and leaders of their own personal agenda are far more likely to feel personally accountable for student learning.

One key priority for the principal is establishing a sense of confidence in the school staff. Each principal serves as a role model for teachers who aspire to become principals. Good relationships are established when there is ongoing concern for the resources that will help teachers to be successful. The principal should find ways to interact with teachers throughout a week. It may be convenient to work until the next meeting but addressing issues as they arise will make staff meetings less cumbersome. The principal must have the same heart for the children as the teachers. A principal who teaches a class during the year has a better awareness of the students needs. This principal can collaborate with teachers who are providing similar interactions.

11.8 LET US SUM UP

Human resource management has become notably complex in the sense that as human beings, they are not reliable for doing one thing over and over in exactly the same way. They can be expensive depending on their cadres, qualification and skills. Their productivity is highly dependent on the person's ability to instruct. The

same content cannot be delivered every time. A number of factors have contributed in this complexity. In the lesson, you have learnt about the need and significance of human resources for the successful transaction of curriculum in different contexts.

You have also learnt about various strategies to be adopted for optimizing the outcomes of any procedure involving human resources. The principles for maintaining effective interpersonal and intergroup relations might have cleared your visualisation about modalities to be adopted for meaningful and productive measures for maximizing the utilities of human resources in any educational institution.

11.9 LESSON END EXERCISE

- 1. Describe the significance of the human resources in any educational institution?
- 2. What are the essential characteristics of human resource management? Cite example.
- 3. Describe the key principles, which the authorities should keep in mind to maximize the effectiveness of human resources in the school.
- 4. What strategies should be adopted to improvise interpersonal relationship in any educational set up? Illustrate your attempt with suitable examples.

11.10 SUGGESTED FURTHER READINGS

Aggarwal, J.C. (1956). School Administration, Arya Book Depot, Karol Bagh, New Delhi.

Berlinger-Gustafson, C. (2004). Building professional learning communities. Retrieved March 19, 2007, from http://www.teachinflorida.com/teachertoolkit/PLC.htm

Heartfiled, S. M. (n.d.). Diversity in the workplace: Search for similarities. Retrieved March 25, 2007, from http://humanresources.about.com/od/diversity/a/diversity.htm

Hoy, W. A., & Miskel, C. G. (2005). Educational Administration. New York, NY: The McGraw-Hill Companies.

Mullinix, B.B. (2002). Selecting and retaining teacher mentors. Washington, DC. (Eric Document Reproduction Service No. ED477728).

Sears J.B. (1950). The Nature of Administrative Process, Mc Graw Hill Book Co., New York.

Sharma R.A. (2005). School Management & Pedogogics of Education, R Lall Book Depot, Meerut.

Sidhu K.S.(2002).: School Organisation and Administration, Sterling Publishers Private Ltd., New Delhi.

Sukhia S.P.(1982) . Educational Administration ,Vinod Pustak Mandir, Agra

Trahan, C. (2002). Implications of the no child left behind act of 2001 for teacher education. Washington, DC. (Eric Document Reproduction Service No. ED477723).

Lesson No. 12 Unit-III

TQM IN EDUCATION

STRUCTURE

1	\sim	1	T			1		•	
	2.	-	- 11	ntr	α	'n	വ	11	n
1	4.	1	11	ш	v	ıυ	ıvı	ж	ш

- 12.2 Objectives
- 12.3 Meaning of TQM
- 12.4 Components of TQM
- 12.5 TQM in Education: Emergence and Evolution
- 12.6 Significance of TQM in Education
- 12.7 TQM in Education: An Indian Perspective
- 12.8 Strategies for Effective Implementation of TQM in Education
- 12.9 Implications of it for the Stakeholders of the Education
- 12.10 Implementation of TQM Approach in Teaching and Learning Process
- 12.11 Let Us Sum Up
- 12.12 Lesson End Exercise
- 12.13 Suggested Further Readings

12.1 INTRODUCTION

Quality undoubtedly has been one of the key goals of an eternal through the corridors of human history. It has been the driving force for all human endeavours. Quality is the inspiration for transcendence from the mundane to the higher realms of life. Total Quality Management (TQM) is not just a system, but a philosophy anchored in the belief that long term accomplishment be determined by on a constant assurance to quality in all segments of an association. Today education is becoming more and more competitive as profit-making enterprises enforced by economic forces. Many educational organizations in world are accepting TQM approach as the key practice in improving quality. The implementation of TQM desires to be a managed practice.

In this lesson you will have a comprehensive explanation of Total Quality Management (TQM) and its various aspects. You will also come to know about desirability of applying the TQM by going in depth about the significance of TQM in education, TQM in Education: An Indian Perspective and Implementation of TQM

Approach in Teaching and Learning Process. This lesson will help you to understand various domains of TQM in the educational context.

12.2 OBJECTIVES

After reading this lesson, you shall be able to:

- Describe the concept of Total Quality Management (TQM).
- Describe the significance of Total Quality Management (TQM) in the field of education .
- Discuss an Indian Perspective of TQM in Education.
- Illustrate the Implementation of TQM Approach in Teaching and Learning Process.

12.3 MEANING OF TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT (TQM)

Quality is the source of craving behind the unfolding human civilization through ages immemorial. Yet it has successfully eluded the dragnet of definitions proving the inadequacy of human intelligence. You recognise it. But you cannot define it. Any length of description of the anatomical details of a fragrant and beautiful flowerits petals, colour, shape, size, fragrance, softness, all put together- falls short of conveying its beauty fully. Quality lies in the perception of the consumer. There are various well-known definitions of quality. Crosby (1979) defines quality as "conformance to requirement" while Juran and Gryna (1980) define quality as "fitness for use". Deming (1986) defines quality as "a predictable degree of uniformity and dependability at low cost and suited to the market". It is more towards quality in operation. Many organisations found that the old definition of quality, "the degree of conformance to a standard", was too narrow. Consequently, they used a new definition of quality in terms of "customer focus". It is reported that many companies had initially concentrated all their efforts on improving internal processes with little or no regard for the relationships between those processes and the organisation's ultimate customers (Brigham 1993). This failure to include the customer focus had resulted in companies struggling hard to survive.

In the context of higher education, due to the intangible nature of its processes, there is a considerable discussion on the notions of educational quality (Green 1994 & Harvey 1995). Fincher (1994) describes how quality perspectives have evolved in education over the years by going through a shift from experience to technique, style and finally to process. Harvey and Green (1993) in their seminal work point out that quality is a relative concept. Instead of having a single definition of quality, Harvey and Green provide five discrete but interrelated notions of quality. Quality has a variety of meanings and its range of meanings does cause confusion, as each individual's perception of quality differs.

TQM is larger theory than just directing the quality of the product itself. Total quality management is the synchronization of purposes directed towards customer satisfaction, employee participation, and facilitating an organizational for continuous improvement in quality. TQM is the art of managing the total to attain quality.

The perception of quality started in Japan when the country originated to re-establish after World War II. Amongst the bomb rubble, Japan comprised the philosophies of W. Edwards Deming, an American whose approaches and concepts are accredited for Japan's post-war recovery. Ironically enough, Deming's philosophies

were firstly scoffed at in the U.S. As a consequence, TQM took basis in Japan 30 years previously than in the United States. American companies took attention in Deming's philosophies only when they originated having concern competing with the Japanese in the 1980s. Deming's quality management system was theoretical, based on continuous improvement in the direction of the perfect ideal. He supposed that an assurance to quality involves transforming the entire organization. His beliefs are founded on a structure known as the Fourteen Points. Most of the submissions of Deming's concepts occurred in the 1950s and 1960s in Japan. Even though a number of individuals contributed to the conception of TQM, the three mostly extensively cited "leaders" of quality are W. Edwards Deming, Joseph M. Juran, and Philip Crosby. Although everyone has stimulated the significance of quality importance, their concepts and backgrounds are not always steady.

TQM is a technique of thinking about organizations and how individuals should relate and work in them. TQM is not just a system, but a philosophy anchored in the belief that long term accomplishment be determined by on a constant assurance to quality in all segments of an association. Today education is becoming more and more competitive as profit-making enterprises enforced by economic forces. This race between various academic institutions is the result of the development of global education markets and the reducing pool of money for teaching and learning. Horine discussed valuable assistances from the practice of TQM, which contains:

- Improved Employee Empowerment;
- Customer Satisfaction;
- Teamwork; and
- Philosophy Change.

12.4 COMPONENTS OF TOM

We have seen in the previous discussion that the Total Quality Management (TQM) is a management approach that originated in the 1950s and has steadily become more popular since the early 1980s. Total quality is a description of the culture, attitude and organization of a company that strives to provide customers with products and services that satisfy their needs. The culture requires quality in all aspects of the company's operations, with processes being done right the first time and defects and waste eradicated from operations.

Total Quality Management (TQM) describes a management approach to long-term success through customer satisfaction. In a TQM effort, all members of an organization participate in improving processes, products, services, and the culture in which they work. Many of these concepts are present in modern Quality Management Systems, the successor to TQM. Here are the 8 principal components of TQM:

1. Customer-focused

The customer ultimately determines the level of quality. No matter what an organization does to foster quality improvement-training employees, integrating quality into the design process, upgrading computers or software, or buying new measuring tools-the customer determines whether the efforts were worthwhile.

2. Total employee involvement

All employees participate in working toward common goals. Total employee commitment can only be obtained after fear has been driven from the workplace, when empowerment has occurred, and management has provided the proper environment. High-performance work systems integrate continuous improvement efforts with normal business operations. Self-managed work teams are one form of empowerment.

3. Process-centered

A fundamental part of TQM is a focus on process thinking. A process is a series of steps that take inputs from suppliers (internal or external) and transforms them into outputs that are delivered to customers (again, either internal or external). The steps required to carry out the process are defined, and performance measures are continuously monitored in order to detect unexpected variation.

4. Integrated system

Although an organization may consist of many different functional specialties often organized into vertically structured departments, it is the horizontal processes interconnecting these functions that are the focus of TOM.

5. Strategic and systematic approach

A critical part of the management of quality is the strategic and systematic approach to achieving an organization's vision, mission, and goals. This process, called strategic planning or strategic management, includes the formulation of a strategic plan that integrates quality as a core component.

6. Continual improvement

A major thrust of TQM is continual process improvement. Continual improvement drives an organization to be both analytical and creative in finding ways to become more competitive and more effective at meeting stakeholder expectations.

7. Fact-based decision making

n order to know how well an organization is performing, data on performance measures are necessary. TQM requires that an organization continually collect and analyze data in order to improve decision making accuracy, achieve consensus, and allow prediction based on past history.

8. Communications

During times of organizational change, as well as part of day-to-day operation, effective communications plays a large part in maintaining morale and in motivating employees at all levels. Communications involve strategies, method, and timeliness.

Now from the foregoing discussion, we can infer that the management should create teamwork among employees. Total involvement of employees will boost morale of the employees. It will generate a sense of authority and responsibility among employees. The employees contribution and aids must receive serious considerations and be placed into operation whenever recommendations are sound and relevant. Another educationist supports the participation of everyone in the system. Farooq et al. (2007) insists that the basic

theme of TQM is participatory approach to address the question(s) of quality in business as well as in the field of education. He insisted on the need of every individual who is working in an organization should participate in the continuous improvement plan to make total quality possible.

Infrastructure is one of the most important indicators of TQM. If we lack sophisticated infrastructure, latest technology applied in the field of education, we cannot be successful in the implementation of TQM in education. The components of infrastructure which support quality of education are well equipped classrooms, health facility, water facility, guidance and counselling cell and ombudsman cell. The infrastructure in the form of well equipped libraries, laboratories, playgrounds, well ventilated, well furnished and well facilitated classrooms, reading rooms, internet facility, availability of scientific equipments, drinking water facility etc. should be in an institution to fulfil quality criteria.

Check	your	Progress	1
-------	------	-----------------	---

Note: (a) Write your answers in the space given below

(b) Compare your answer with above sub section

1.	Enlist the components of TQM	
2.	Give two main factors affecting the quality of educational outcomes in Indian	perspectives.

12.5 TOM IN EDUCATION: EMERGENCE AND EVOLUTION

TQM in education surfaced in 1988 at Mt. Edgcombe High School in Sitka, Alaska when David Langford, the schools technology teacher/coordinator, applied total quality concepts in his classes. TQM has become increasingly popular in education, as evidenced by the plethora of books and journal articles since 1990. TQM has also spread into mainstream of educational organizations.

The association for supervision and curriculum development, for example devoted its entire November, 1992 issue of its Journal, "Educational Leadership" to quality movement in education. In support of the TQM initiatives in education, Crawford and Shutler (1999) applied Crosby model to suggest a practical strategy for using TQM principles in education. Their strategy focused on the quality of teaching system used rather than on students, examination results. They argue that examinations are a diagnostic tool for assuring the quality of the teaching system.

12.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF TQM IN EDUCATION

A lot of literature available points to a growing interest in applying TQM in education for a wide variety of reasons, Thakkar et al. (2006). Some of the reasons include pressures from industry for continuous upgrading of academic standards with changing technology; government schemes with allocation of funds, which encourage research and teaching in the field of quality; increasing competition between various private and

government academic institutions and reduction in the pool of funds for research and teaching, implying that only reputable institutions will have a likely chance of giving access to various funds.

According to Crosby (1984) unless strategy is focused on the quality of the teaching system and improvement, goal of TQM cannot be fulfilled. TQM in education cannot be accomplished without everyone in the organization from top to bottom being committed to achieve results a passion for quality and decisions based on performance data. According to Corrigam (1995), unless an organization builds a customer driven, learning organization dedicated to total customer satisfaction TQM cannot be successful. Juran and Gryna (1980) rightly remarked that "A set of fundamental core values forming building blocks of proposed TQM framework is leadership and quality cultures continuous improvement and innovation in educational process; employee participation; and development; fast response and management of information customer-driven quality and partnership development; both internally externally".

So there is a need of Total Quality Management to be implemented in the schools which may solve these types of problems at all levels. Quality should be the essence of the education system so that other fields will empower, advance and get every type of assistance from the education system.

As it is evident, school education is the foundation or building block for the university education and the system of whole country. If we do not pay attention to quality education at school level, our university level education and mission of literacy will be failure. Without total quality management, we cannot transform our simple or traditional society into knowledge society. Without improvement and efficiency in education system it will be difficult for India to move ahead in shoulder to shoulder with other countries.

12.7 TOM IN EDUCATION: AN INDIAN PERSPECTIVE

India being a democratic country ensures everybody of equal chance in getting education. There are a number of educational institutes but they provide theoretical education. No emphasis is given on practical education. The syllabus which is taught in schools is coming from several decades; no changes are done according to the needs of the learners, changing times, and according to the needs of the society. No education is provided in schools which may create professionalism, scientific temper and practical hands. Present system is producing learners with certificates, employability, learners with grades but no creativity, learners with degrees but no knowledge. So the learners have to face the problems when they have to utilize the knowledge. Industries also have to spend precious time, money and energy in undoing, modifying and redoing what is learned in educational institutions.

In India it is now widely accepted that higher has been crucial to India's emergence to the global knowledge economy. Yet it is believed that crises are plaguing the Indian education system generally and higher education specifically. The National Knowledge Commission (NKC) termed the quality lack as quiet crises. Industries routinely point towards huge skill shortage and are of the opinion that growth momentum and development may not be sustained unless the problem of skill shortage is addressed. Over last sixty-sixty years India has covered a long distance on the path of expanding the institutional capacity in primary secondary and higher education.

In 1950 India had just 25 universities now above 850, colleges were 700, now we have above 40,000 colleges, we have 7000 teacher training colleges, 1244 polytechnics, 1552 engineering colleges, 170 medical colleges. We produce 10% employable arts graduates, 25% employable engineering graduates, 30% employable medicine graduates. This the state of affairs of our education system. It becomes the perfect reason to implement TQM in our education system just Japan used this philosophy to rejuvenate and reconstruct the country's industrial system and produce the best products that create space for marketing throughout the world. The seminars, debates and symposiums should be organized at state and national level to bring awareness among teachers of all levels primary, secondary and tertiary so that education system can become dynamic and vibrant.

12.8 STRATEGIES FOR EFFECTIVE IMPLEMENTATION OF TOM IN EDUCATION

For the successful implementation of TQM in education quality circles are to be formed. A quality circle consists of small groups of people that meet on a regular basis to discuss problems to seek solutions and to cooperate with management in the implementation of those solutions. Quality circles utilize organized approaches to problem solving, operate on the principle that employee participation in decision making and problem solving improves the quality of work. In education quality deals with monitoring and identifying the areas that affect the levels of teachings.

The past few decades were considered pioneering work on educational leadership, Bensimon and Neuman (1993), the leadership component deal with examining senior management personal of leadership and involvement in creating and sustaining a customer focus, clear goals, high expectations and a leadership system that would perform excellently. It also examines leadership system and policies internally that would impact staff and students and public responsibilities establishing partnerships with industry parents and general community externally.

Improvements in leadership effectiveness could be achieved through a participative management style that includes inputs from a comprehensive 360 degree feedback system from these internal and external stakeholders. The strategic planning of this element would examine how the institution sets strategic directions and how it determines key plan requirements with a primary focus on students satisfaction. This element examines the key aspects of process management including learner focused education design, education delivery services and business operations. It examines how key processes are innovatively and continuously improved. The performance results of this element would examine student performance and improvement using key measures and indicators. This element examines how staff development and training is aligned along the objectives of the institution.

TQM would also examine the efforts to build and maintain a climate conducive to achieve performance excellence full participation and organizational growth. Some of the strategic thrusts of this element would be a manpower development such as staff recruitment training and career development, staff performance and recognition and quality work environment. The information management element should examine the management and effectiveness of the use of data information to support overall mission related to performance excellence. It should ensure reliability and accessibility of the necessary key information required for day to day operational management.

It would also focus on making analysis of facts and information and respond to situations in a fast and effective manner. This element examines how the institute determines the needs and expectations of students and stake holders. It would include determining different performance measures and how the targets could be achieved. Some of the performance measures could be based on student satisfaction, surveys and evaluation of teaching and learning effectiveness. Effective leadership, good education management, efficient human resource management and versatile information management would definitely help in managing dynamic relationships with internal and external stakeholders.

According to Lagros et al. (2004), TQM would include various dimensions of quality, including corporate collaboration information responsiveness, teaching and non teaching facilities, teaching and evaluation practices and the type of courses offered. Hence it is important to focus on TQM in education which would help how continuous improvement provides necessary foundation and help in improving and advancing field shoulder to shoulder with other fields or organizations.

Check Your Progress - 2				
Note: (a) Write your answer in the space given below				
(b) Compare your answer with above sub section				
1. Give three arguments in favour of TQM to employ in the sector of education.				
2. Enlist three suggestions to ensure effective implementation of TQM in education sector of your state. Cite illustrations.				

12.9 IMPLICATIONS OF TOM FOR THE STAKEHOLDERS OF THE EDUCATION

- a) Issues of TQM should be addressed in educational institutions, particularly as they relate to productivity and financing. Those adopting TQM in education have varying perspectives on the approach. Some see TQM as a management system with customer or student satisfaction as the crucial element. Others see TQM as a philosophy fostering change in an organization or the educational institutions.
- b) Academic institutions have used both the approaches in applying TQM in higher education settings. Quality of education takes into account external environment in which institutions operate: internal environment where teaching learning takes place and home environment of learners.
- c) The systems approach to education comprises of inputs, processes and outputs, all encompassed in an arbitrary boundary, and the environment. Inputs from its environment cross the boundary into the system: these are acted on within the transformation/production process and finally released from the

- system back into the environment as outputs.
- d) The direction of flow from the inputs, through transformation/production process to the output indicates the flow of energy, information etc. Inputs are human, physical and financial resources, (students, faculty, administrators and organizational culture) Process is a series of actions or operations concluding to an end.
- e) A process transforms measurable inputs into measurable outputs under a value adding operation. Educational process is a series of actions or operations leading to learning, training, education and scholarly activity. Transformation process for an educational institution consists of activities performed to disseminate knowledge, to conduct research and to provide community service. Process in the education system includes teaching, learning, research, administrative activities and knowledge transformation. Outputs are tangible outcomes, value addition (through examination results, employment, earnings and satisfaction), intangible outcomes (educated people, research findings and service to community).
- f) Then there is feedback i.e. the outputs of information about the system which, when fed back into the system as inputs, it ably modifies the system while the process is in progress, thus making the system more responsive to the needs of the components in the environment and thus making the system flexible.
- g) The output so released should satisfy the components in the environment in the form of customers/ stakeholders else the inputs would cease and further transformation/production ceases too.
- h) Each TQM initiative is unique, there are some common features. On the large canvas, TQM provides a direction and framework for morality in education. It considers and reward the effort of those directly involved, both inside and outside the organization.
- i) Successful TQM models tend to embody concepts of integrity, honesty, commitment, participation and ownership. By applying the various principles of TQM, the present school education can be improved and goal of quality education in schools can be achieved.
- j) For quality school education, total quality must be the highest priority in the school. Everything should be quality focused. In educational institutions, highest priority should be given to quality education so that qualified learners can be produced. Quality definition should be clear. Any definition of quality must include satisfying the agreed learners needs and expectations.

12.10 IMPLEMENTATION OF TQM APPROACH IN TEACHING AND LEARNING PROCESS

Many educational organizations in world are accepting TQM approach as the key practice in improving quality. The implementation of TQM desires to be a managed practice. The attention should be on continuous improvement of management with a view to improving the teaching and learning process. Kezner discusses that TQM methodologies for continuous improvement were recognized to improve quality leadership, respond to objectives and optimize quality. Thus it becomes fundamentally significant in the TQM models to constantly

progress culture change as the need for new trends arises in an organization.

W. Edwards Deming proposed the **PDCA** (**Plan-Do-Check-Act or Plan-Do-Check-Adjust**) Cycle, also well-known as the Deming Cycle. It is a continuous and iterative cycle of four phases. This model contain four repetitive phases of TQM as shown in Fig. A.

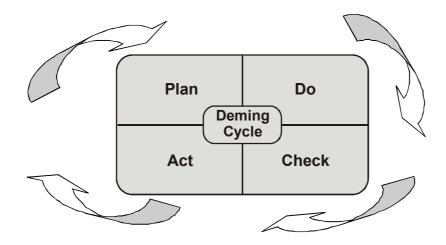


Fig A: Depicting PDCA (Plan-Do-Check-Act or Plan-Do-Check-Adjust) Cycle

For attaining the improvement and goals of organizations, they must follow this continuous series The Quality Cycle phases are:

- Plan: set up goals and procedures to convey significant outcomes in accordance to the objects or aims. This phase contains:
- ➤ Adopt TQM methodology
- > Set quality policy of teaching and learning
- Develop vision and mission statement of quality management
- > Strategic quality planning.
- **Do:** implement the plan and Accumulate data for analysis. This phase have:
- **Education and training process**
- Customer(student) focus
- > Involvement of teachers
- Development projects
- Awareness of TQM among teachers
- **Check :** To analyze, evaluate, audit and study the results. In this phase of PDCA cycle, we have:
- > Comprehensive evaluation

- Continuous follow up
- Measurement Audit for improvement in teaching and learning process
- Act: take action where to regulate or improvements the procedure. This phase contains:
- > Continuous improvement
- Motivation and rewards

Education system requires adapting to continuing modifications as requirements are rising because modification is inevitable and are an ongoing procedure in the new era. Westhuizen argues that change, which involves culture identity, and vision that directs this culture identity are the most important aspects of an organization. When an organization fails to change and develop, entropy sets in and an organization stagnates and eventually declines. The proposed TQM model for teaching and learning process was based from literature review. Elements in TQM model containing of the elementary requirements of TQM, such as leadership, commitment, continuous improvement etc. in PDCA Quality Cycle, as a technique to implement the TQM approach.

12.11 LET US SUM UP

Total Quality Management is all-encompassing "culture change" energies to position a company for better customer satisfaction, cost-effectiveness and affordability. We regularly reflect of features when we think of any product or service quality; Total quality is about conformance quality, not features. A basic characterization of total quality management (TQM) defines a management methodology in any organization for continuous improvement in quality and success for long term. TQM in education cannot be accomplished without everyone in the organization from top to bottom being committed to achieve results a passion for quality and decisions based on performance data.

In this lesson, we have learn about components of TQM, Implications of TQM in the field of education, strategies to be adopted for the effective implementation of TQM in the education sector and the applications of TQM in the teaching-learning process. You, as a teacher or educational administrators, will certainly come across various situations seeking the comprehensive applications of TQM to maximise the growth of the institution where you are serving. This lesson might have given you a good exposure about the impact of TQM in improving the teaching learning outcomes at any level of educational achievement.

12.12 LESSON END EXERCISE

- 1. Describe the concept of Total Quality Management (TQM).
- 2. Discuss, in brief, the need of TQM in the field of education . Support your attempt with relevant examples.
- 3. Illustrate the components of TQM in Indian context.
- 4. What strategies would you suggest for effective implementation of TQM in streamlining the education sector of our country?

12.13 SUGGESTED FURTHER READINGS

Deming, W. E. (1994). The new economics. 2d ed. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Center for Advanced Engineering Studies.

Deming, WE (1986). Out of the Crisis: Quality, Productivity and Competitive Position. Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.

Geddes, L. M. (1995). What TQM has to contribute to Change Management? Journal of the Association for Communication Administration (JACA), 2, 94-101.

Grumdahl, C. R. (2010). How Schools can Effectively Plan to Meet the Goal of Improving Student Learning. ProQuest, LLC, D. Ed. Dessertation, University of Mannesota.

Hertzler, E. (1994). TQM in Higher Education: What does the literature say? New Directions for Student Services, 66, 81-87

Juran, J. M. and Gryna, F. M. (1980). Quality Planning and Analysis. New York: McGraw Hill.

Mohsina Aftab and Shazia Khan, Total Quality Management (2014) A Managerial Approach in LIS Sector. International Journal of Management, 5(6), pp. 40-49.

Seymour, D.T. (1992). On Q: Causing Quality in Higher Education. New York, NY: Macmillan. Talwar, M. S., Kumar T., Pradeep (2010). Total Quality Management in Higher Education. University News, 48(1), 12-14.

Toremen, F. (2009). Total Quality Management practices in Turkish Primary schools. Quality Assurance in Education, 17 (1), 30-44.

U. Syed Aktharsha and S. Karthick. (2016) Total Quality Management in Education Sector. International Journal of Management, 7(2), pp. 529-535.

Lesson No. 13 Unit-IV

MICRO AND MACRO PLANNING, INSTITUTIONAL PLANNING - CLUSTER RESOURCE CENTERS AND BLOCK RESOURCE CENTERS

STRUCUTRE

4	\sim	4	7	_			-			. •			
1	3.			r	۱4۰	rc	^	וו	0	t۱		١1	n
	,				н.	ı.	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	ш		ы	١.	, ,	Ш

- 13.2 Objectives
- 13.3 Concept of Micro-Planning
- 13.4 Concept of Macro-Planning
- 13.5 Institutional Planning in India
- 13.6 Block Resource Centers (BRCs)
- 13.7 Cluster Resource Centers (CRCs)
- 13.8 Role and Functions of BRCs and CRCs
- 13.9 On Ground Challenges of BRCs and CRCs
- 13.10 Let Us Sum Up
- 13.11 Lesson End Exercise
- 13.12 Suggested Further Readings
- 13.13 Answers to Check Your Progress

13.1 INTRODUCTION

Universalisation of primary education is one of the most important National goals of development. In order to meet its commitment to achieve Education for All (EFA) by the Year 2000, the Govt. of India, launched many national programmes like Non-Formal Education (NFE), Operation Black Board (OBB), Mid-day meal scheme etc. But still a large number (almost half) of Children aged between 6 and 11 years remain outside the school and the absolute number of illiterate people rose substantially in last 50 years. Figures on attendance, retention, learning achievement of students, and overall development of children also do not show any encouraging picture. It clearly shows that National level macro policy which is uniformly implemented in the whole country with great diversity cannot meet the local requirements and hence cannot achieve complete success.

Problems of the people in general, and status of education in particular are local, complex, diverse and dynamic. The Professionals study the problems, process and analyze the data at macro level and then come up with solutions which are then implemented across the whole country. Such macro policies tend to reduce the complex and diverse problems to simple and standard ones. Naturally, such macro plans, which are simplified and standardized cannot meet and solve the local problems which are diverse, complex and varying in nature. A single prescription for educational development, from the top cannot really address all the complex problems of the districts, talukas, and habitations. So, what is needed is the reversal of the planning process. Planning should not be done from the top, but from the bottom, it should not be done by the professionals but by the people in their local context. All existing top-down standardized programmes for education need to be modified for local fit and reformulated in a participatory mode.

13.2 **OBJECTIVES**

After reading this lesson, you shall be able to

- Enlist the steps of Micro-Planning.
- Compare and Contrast the Micro and Macro Planning
- Define the term Institutional Planning
- Explain the characteristics of Institutional Planning
- Outline the procedure of Institutional Planning
- Rephrase the concept of Block Resource Centers and Cluster resource centers
- Discuss the Role and Functions of BRCs and CRCs
- Explain on ground challenges of BRCs and CRCs

13.3 CONCEPT OF MICRO PLANNING

Planning at the lowest spatial unit can be termed as micro level planning. In the Indian context micro level planning can mean planning carried out at the village level or even at the habitation level. While selecting a unit for micro planning one has to consider the availability of educational facilities like a school or a non-formal education center. In other words, while we try to develop micro level planning in education we may have to select a unit centering on an educational institution. This may be a school or its alternative which is already existing or planning to be opened.

Micro planning should not be seen as a one shot exercise. It is a continuous process and it unfolds itself in the process of implementing and operationalizing plans prepared either at the local level or at the higher levels. Micro planning focuses more on the operational details of achieving a specified plan target. Micro planning exercise can be undertaken by local people. In fact the object and subject of micro planning is local people.

Objectives of Micro-Planning: The objectives of micro-planning are as follows:

To mobilize the local community to prepare village level plans.

- To provide a support system to the schools and teachers to that schools become functional.
- To ensure that all eligible children from the locality attend the schools and thereby to ensure better and efficient utilization of resources already provided to a particular locality, area or school.

Steps of Micro-Planning: The steps of micro-planning exercise are as follows:

- Understanding the Village: This may be a first step to identify the problems faced by the village so that basic intervention strategies can be clearly understood.
- Preparation of a Village Map: A village may be having many facilities and educational facilities may be one among such facilities. It may be better if these facilities are plotted on a map so that people of the locality will be able to visually observe their village and allocation of the facilities in their village. A discussion based on such a map may be a meaningful exercise.
- ❖ Identification of Non-enrolled and Dropout Children: Normally household survey becomes a part of micro planning exercise. Household survey provides details about the children to be enrolled, retained in the school or dropped out from the school. This will be very useful information to initiate activities under the micro planning efforts.
- Village Education Register: Based on the household surveys, one can develop a village education register clearly indicating the households which are not sending children to the schools. This will help us to adopt corrective measures to encourage the parents of these households to send their children to schools.
- The village may have a school. If the village has a school then one has to relate the efforts made during the micro planning exercises with the facilities available at the school level.
- Preparation of a Village Education Plan: Once the community inputs and the school inputs are identified then it is possible to prepare a village education plan focussing on the specific educational problems faced at the household level and at the school level. Preparation of such plans and monitoring of activities thus identified in a village plan make micro planning exercise an effective tool in making the best use of the resources available at the local level.

13.4 CONCEPT OF MACRO PLANNING

Macro-planning refers to decisions at a very aggregate level. In the case of education, for example, it could refer to the way the state budget is allocated between different levels of schooling. Macro-planning is not concerned with curricula changes and the shape of classroom. Macro-planning focuses on the broad dimensions of the system and its relationship with the economy and the society (Coombs, 1970).

Planning at macro level is the one performed at national or country level. Educational and high education planning is performed at macro level in economic, social and cultural development planning. Based on such trend, the designers of social, economic and cultural development present such guidance to providers of these plans in different socio-economic and cultural sectors as education and high education. This guidance includes planning stages and methods. The guidance includes planning stages. The expectation of economic, social

and cultural plans is that planners in various sections provide their developing plan to combine various plans and create economic, social and cultural development plan in the country.

Stages of educational planning at macro level: Arthur Davis classifies planning activities as followings:

First stage: Explaining the existing condition in order that planners have clear image of existing condition of educational system. First, the required data should be collected regarding educational system. Then by evaluation of past performance and analysis of problems, weaknesses and strengths, existing condition is explained. For example, if the planner field, education is general, they should collect information about inputs, processes and outputs of primary, guidance and high school as followings:

- a. The information of inputs: In custom of educational planning, students, teachers, financial resources and facilities are inputs of educational system. Thus, planners should collect information about these input factors.
- b. Information of processes: The data about acceptance rate, base repetition, academic failure, suitability of teaching methods of teachers, quality of management in various managerial levels, optimized use of resources as educational spaces, laboratory equipment, tendency to educational innovation, research in education and application of study findings are the information drawing an image of education process for planners.
- c. The information of curriculum: The process of design, production and execution of textbooks is in textbook planners field as curriculum is a part of educational planning process. Thus, by accepting the assumption that educational planners and textbook planners with each other can formulate the plans. Educational planners should be informed of the results of evaluaiton of textbooks that by having access to the data have clear image of educational system.

Second stage: Recognition of weaknesses and strengths After planners collect data about existing condition of educational system by collecting the data and their analysis should draw a clear image of existing condition of educational system. Then, they should distinguish weaknesses and strengths of existing system. It can be said, judgement about strength or weakness of each dimension of educational system needs selection of criterion for good limit. Also, we shouldn't forget that judgment about weaknesses and strengths of some educational affairs as teaching desirability or management method is not simple due to qualitative nature of these affairs. By their analysis from different aspects, relevant components should be identified and by combining the values, general judgment should be achieved.

Third stage: Plan formulation: After educational planners collect required data about educational system, by criteria, they can achieve clear image of education performance and can start their activity to prove a development plan or existing condition and achieving good condition. The formulation of development plan is a complex process and includes various measurements and the most important items are as followings:

- a. Selection of goals: Defining goals is the basic step in planning, it means that planners should define the goals achievement is considered and then fulfill them. The educational system of each nation has final and ideal goals (qualitative goals) and at specific time can achieve definite qualitative goals.
- b. Selection of policy: Policy is comparison and selection of a path among the paths providing achieving

required goals. To determine policy in educational issues, development of Persian language in bilingual areas of country as one of the educational goals, the following policies are considered: Formation of one month preparation classes before primary education for new learning children of bilingual areas, Establishment of kindergarten in bilingual areas with emphasis on Persian language training.

c. Determining priorities, achieving educational goals requires various resources as materialistic and human resources. Thus, any society as rich has some limitations in facilities and cannot achieve all goals at the same time. Thus, planners are obliged to determine priority and give priority to achieving some goals than other items.

Fourth stage: Providing plan: The executional plan is the map of measurements and operation that should be done in future. In this stage, general goals of plan are defined based on policies in the form of partial goals as quantitative. In this stage, by considering existing facilities, activities execution is defined. Thus, to provide development plan of primary education, based on the required goals, the number of students covered for education in each academic year, number of teachers and educational and administrative employees, space and educational equipment and required financial resources should be estimated for execution of plans.

Fifth stage is approving the designed plan: After providing the plan, authorities of educational planning should give their plan for approval to high level authorities of education. To defend the plan, the planners should give adequate reasons and to eliminate the problems, they should accept the criticism on their plan and modify their plans.

Sixth stage: Execution, supervision, evaluation and correction of plan. When a plan is designed, regulated and executed, this is probable that all or some parts of plan are not executed due to economic problems, political changes, administrative barriers and unexpected events or their execution is problematic. Thus, planners should consider the supervision on execution of plans and by considering required measurements, the barriers of plans execution should be identified and they should be eliminated. In addition, if the problems are eliminated, the plans execution is performed at common conditions. We can determine the success of plans and their progress. Normally, evaluation in terms of execution time is divided into three stages: evaluation before execution, at-execution and after execution. In pre- execution stage, feasibility studies are performed. During these studies, plans execution is investigated. At execution stage, feasibility studies are performed, It means that during the studies, execution of plans is investigated. In at-execution stage, progress of plan execution is evaluated and if the plans are reviewed, in after execution stage, evaluation of fulfillment of predicted goals is performed.

Evaluation of internal efficiency: Internal efficiency is that based on facilities, resources and duration for education of students in each academic level, in each year and academic base, which percent of students of each base is failed or leaves the school and this repletion of base and leave has any effect on educational system return from economic aspects? To determine internal efficiency of an educational system, some indices as leaving school, base repetition, loss, durability rate and average academic length are used.

Evaluation of external efficiency: Based on educational plans, some goals are defined later and it is expected after execution of plans, students achieve knowledge, skills and definite habits and tendencies and the effects

of learning are manifested in their behavior. Thus, we can say the changes after execution of educational activities and plans in various dimensions of behavior of students indicate the external efficiency of educational plans. Thus, the more the changes in behavior and action of students at the end of educational activities are consistent with the pre- defined goals; we can say that plans have high external efficiency. The changes with the execution of educational activities in various dimensions of behavior of students can show external efficiency of educational plans. Thus, the more the changes in behavior and action of students at the end of educational activities are consistent with the pre- defined goals; we can say the plans have high external efficiency.

Check Your Progress - 1

Note: (a) Answer the questions given below.

(b) Check your answer with those given at the end of the lesson

- 1. Micro-planning means the planning carried out at the stage of:
- a) State level
- b) Village level
- c) National level
- d) District level
- 2. Macro-Planning is not concerned with:
- a) Curricula changes and the shape of classroom
- b) Economic development
- c) Social development
- d) Cultural development

13.5 INSTITUTIONAL PLANNING

"Institutional planning is a programme of development and improvement prepared by an educational institution on the basis of its felt needs and the resources available or likely to be available, with a view to improving the school programme and school practices. It is based on the principle of optimum utilisation of the resources available in the school and the community." -M.B.Buch.

Meaning and Definitions of Institutional Plannning:

In India the experts are now favouring the second approach. The new planning should commence mostly from below. Some planning, of course, is needed from above also. Thus, planning should be a two- way process. We should start with planning from below, from the very grass-roots, what we call, "Institutional Planning".

According to M.B. Buch (1968), "Institutional planning is a programme of development and improvement prepared by an educational institution on the basis of its felt needs and the resources available or likely to be

available, with a view to improving the school programme and school practices. It is based on the principle of optimum utilisation of the resources available in the school and the community."

Characteristics of Institutional Planning

The following are the characteristics of an institutional planning as identified by Buch (1968):

Need-based

It is based on the felt needs of the staff of the institution and could incorporate needs in the area of institutional organization, curricular and co-curricular programmes, support services, etc.

• Strengthening Human Efforts

An institutional plan makes purposeful and deliberate efforts to enhance and augment human efforts by utilization of faulty's imagination, creativity, initiative and inspiration. It does not rely only on financial and physical infrastructural support.

Specificity

Every school/college has its own image and individual personality which is emphasized when planning for development and improvement as well as allocating resources and boosting potentials. Thus, every institution needs to have its own unique, specific plan.

Goal-orientedness

An institutional plan is directed towards pursuing the national goal of attaining excellence with equity. This requires; continuous improving and developing an institution by fixing higher goals each time.

• Optimum Utilization

Its major criterion is to utilize human, financial and other non-material resources in a way which facilitates maximum benefits with minimum negative consequences i.e., in an optimum manner.

Flexibility

The national and state level plans are rigid in nature due to the top-down approach adopted and bureaucratic implementation. On the other hand, an institutional plan is flexible and open to modifications as demanded by situations.

Dual Focus

Each institutional plan has two distinct focal points: (a) improvement which is based on human efforts and (b) development necessitating support and assistance of the management, community and the government.

The Procedure of Institutional Planning (Steps): The major steps in the procedure of institutional planning are as follows:

1. Analysis:

For effective organisation of institutional planning, the Planning Board formed by the head of the institution

should analyze the present situation in respect of the needs of the institution. In this respect the head of the institution should hold a meeting of the staff with the Board in order to see that some pre-requisite conditions are fulfilled.

2. Survey:

The headmaster and the staff of the school should make a survey of the existing resources and the resources that can be easily available. Statistical facts and figures regarding enrolment, staff, equipment, books, examination results etc. must be placed before the Board for ready reference.

There are three categories of resources such as:

- 1. Resources in the school e.g., the building equipment, library, laboratory, etc.
- 2. Resources easily available through the Government.
- 3. Resources available in the community, e.g., public library, museum, hospital, banks, factories, technical institutions, state departments, local educationists, doctors, engineers and other useful persons living in the locality etc.

3. Improvement:

After careful consideration, a list of improvement programmes for the school may be prepared with details about each programme. The programme may be short-term and long-term programmes. Each improvement programme needs to be defined in terms of utility of the school and financial implications if any. It should limit itself to the total improvement of the school and should not suggest work for the district educational authorities or demand funds from the Directorate of Education for its implementation. It should clearly indicate the time limit for its implementation. So the programme can be short-term or a long-term one, depending upon the circumstances and needs of the school.

4. Implementation:

The Board will make a selection of the projects that are to be undertaken during the ensuing session. Lastly, the project must be executed through the material and human resources available at hand. Here, the head of the school must seek the full cooperation of his staff. A time-schedule of the improvements of the project must be prepared. Implementation of the plan means putting of the programmes and projects outlined in the plan in operation. So, it should be neither too ambitious to be implemented nor too modest to make any appreciable improvement. It should, therefore, be a working project on the capacity of teachers, the needs of the pupils and the locality. The head of the institution should see that it starts making progress in the right direction.

5. Evaluation:

The success of the plan is determined by its evaluation. There should be adequate provisions for evaluating the plan progress from time to time. The degree to which the targets set are being achieved at different stages of the plan, must be assessed from time to time. At the completion of the project, the end-product of output or the result must be assessed qualitatively and quantitatively. The periodical evaluation will make the running

of the school in a systematic manner. So every institutional plan should be put to rigorous evaluation at fixed intervals.

According to S.S. Mathur, "The Institutional Planning can only be successful if the following changes are brought about in the educational administration of the country."

Check Your Progress - 2

Note: (a) Answer the questions given below.

(b) Check your answers with those given at the end of the lesson

- 1. When a plan is prepared by a particular institution on the basis of its own development and improvement, it is called as:
- a) Micro planning
- b) Macro planning
- c) Institutional planning
- d) None of the above
- 2. The objectives of institutional planning should be in consonance with the
- a) District educational plan.
- b) State educational plan
- c) National educational plan
- d) School educational plan

13.6 BLOCK RESOURCE CENTRES (BRCs)

Primarily, BRCs seek to be resource centers for giving all kinds of onsite academic support to the teachers of elementary level. They are required to function as a venue for teacher training, material development, community mobilization, action research works and organization of different activities or competitions among teachers and students. All sorts of data on Primary Education should be available in BRC. BRC must be involved in planning, implementing and monitoring District Primary Education Programme and SSA activities. One full time Block Resource Center Co-ordinator (BRCC) of level III cadre of elementary level is selected, trained and engaged in each BRC and is to be assisted by Additional Block Resource Centre Coordinators.

13.7 CLUSTER RESOURCE CENTERS (CRCs)

Cluster resource centers have been set up at the sub block levels. However 77% of the block resource centers and 45% of the cluster resource centers were located more than 3 kilometers from the schools. CRC is required to do the same activity at the cluster level as BRC at the block level. The Cluster Resource Center Coordinator (CRCCs) will be accountable to the Head Masters of the said school who have been declared as

Panchayat Education Officers for rural areas and Cluster Education officers for urban areas. Andhra Pradesh, Bihar and Rajasthan have the most number of CRCs located at far distances from the schools.

13.8 ROLE AND FUNCTIONS OF BRCs and CRCs

Under the SSA, Block and Cluster Resource Centers have been conceptualized as academic resource centers, to provide supervision, training, mentoring and on-site support to teachers and schools. Although visualized as academic structures, their duties also encompass various administrative and managerial functions as listed below:

1. Academic functions

- **Teacher Professional Development:** One of the major functions of the academic officers is to support the development of teachers in a comprehensive manner. They develop and maintain a repository of academic resources including reference material in different curricular areas as well as resource persons to provide onsite support on content and pedagogy. Blocks organise in-service trainings designed by SSA, SCERT or DIETs for teachers in a cascade mode, based on teacher needs identified by CRCs.
- **Teacher Supervision:** CRCs are required to make regular school visits to monitor progress using quality monitoring tools, provide on-site mentoring and address pedagogical issues. They are also required to design performance indicators to track school performance.
- Other educational activities: BRC/CRCs may also be involved in other initiatives such as increasing enrolment of students, as well as promoting inclusion of out of school children and children with special needs.

2. Administrative functions

- Data collection and compilation: SSA visualised the role of BRC/CRCs as mostly academic, stating that they 'should ordinarily not be expected to prepare inspection/visit reports' and only record main observations. However in reality, this layer is also responsible for collection and compilation of data on various other aspects of SSA support to schools and teachers. These include DISE quality monitoring data, progress reports from BRPs and CRCs, student enrolment and attendance data, teacher training data, mid-day meal status and census on children.
- **Financial management :** BRC/CRCs are involved in planning local budgets and finances and also monitoring utilisation of funds, such as teacher funds or teacher learning material funds to schools. They are also required to oversee other financial aspects such as examining vouchers and school registers.
- Ad- hoc administrative tasks: Academic officers are often viewed as available work force for various administrative tasks and consequently pulled into elections related duties or looking after visiting politicians or government officials.

3. Community mobilization

BRC/CRCs are required to liaise with the community for various activities and often work alongside NGOs

to support their initiatives. They maintain databases of experts from institutions and civil society for Resource Groups on different subjects and areas. Academic officers also provide trainings to Village Education Committees (VECs) and School Management Committees (SMCs). They constantly interact with local authorities and SMCs through visits and meetings to discuss school development and to design a comprehensive quality improvement plan for the entire block/cluster. For all these tasks, BRC/CRCs are constantly required to coordinate with and visit Block Education Officers (BEOs), DIETs, and local authorities.

13.9 ON-GROUND CHALLENGES OF BRCs AND CRCs

- Time consumed in data collection: One of roles of the CRC/BRCs includes collecting data from schools on enrolment, physical condition of students, teacher attendance, mid-day meal status, teacher training details among others things. Some states also require data on teacher absenteeism and punctuality of teachers. The amount and frequency of data to be collected from schools makes work tedious for these officers. They spend a lot of their time in compiling and consolidating data along with correcting inaccuracies.
- Variance in school visits per state: Given that one of the main roles of the CRC/BRC is to conduct school visits, there is lack of a systematic approach to these visits. Since the number of schools for each CRC BRC varies with each state, the frequency of these visits also varies. A study points out that the mean number of visits made by CRCs ranged from 1 in Kerala and 19.3 in West Bengal13. As for BRCs, the mean number of visits made by them in a year to a school was less than 5 in most states, except in Himachal and West Bengal, where it was as high as 11 to 12 visits per year. As per DISE data, 2015-16, the percentage of schools not visited by BRCs/ CRCS (of the total number of schools in a state) vary from 1.4% in Delhi to 66.4% in Rajasthan, with states like Andhra Pradesh, Himachal Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh and Nagaland having more than 50% of schools not being visited either by a block or a cluster resource person.
- **Observations and Feedback:** In some states, CRCs are given the power to interrupt the classroom for the sake of observations and give feedback to the teacher at that moment. Often the manner in which the feedback is given is not constructive and can be demeaning to the teacher. The CRCs are provided with checklists for observations, but often they do not carry these checklists with them and write feedback in their personal diaries. The checklist formats or Quality Monitoring Tools (QMTs) vary widely from state to state. In West Bengal for instance, the observation sheet has 14 different sections, with 30 separate data points. Bihar's observation tool in contrast has only 3 broad questions.
- Quality of Trainings: Trainings conducted by BRCs are often of poor quality and teachers tend to not show up either because of lack of relevance of these trainings to their work because of the repetitive nature of these trainings, which often have no connection between sessions. In fact, trainings are restricted to workshops and other forms of professional development for teachers such as exposure visits, seminars are not considered. The issue of poor quality trainings largely stems from the lack of capacity of these block and cluster officers to conduct quality trainings. CRCs often do not have the expertise to understand needs of teachers and conduct trainings on that basis.
- Recruitment and capacity: The selection process as well as criteria for this layer of officers differs

across states. Typically, the BRCs are educationally and professionally more qualified (Graduates, Post Graduates with B.Ed), than CRCs (Graduates with Junior Basic Teachers). In some states, CRCs prefer to return to teaching, because of which positions go vacant. With regard to capacity, training for BRCs/CRCs is very limited and is almost completely relied on on-the-job. In fact, in the study conducted by MHRD, when asked about the major needs for these officers, most of the states highlighted need based and area specific training programmes. In fact, some states also stated the need for an intensified post training follow up.

• Heavy workload: The role of the CRCs/BRCs includes administrative and academic activities, along with community mobilization. The ratio of schools to a CRC, which differs vastly from state to state, affects the workload of these officers. For instance, the usual range for a CRC is managing 12-15 schools, but there are states where a CRC manages up to 90 schools. As per the study conducted by MHRD, after interviewing BRP's in different states on their perception of their workload, 100% in UP said that their workload was heavy, as compared to Kashmir, Karnataka, Kerala and Punjab where between 60% and 86% said the same. Very few states that were sampled as part of the study, felt that their workload was light. With regard to balancing work between administrative and academic, the responses were the same where 64% of the BRP's in Punjab and Uttar Pradesh reported that the pressure of balancing administrative and academic work was too much.

Check Your Progress - 3

Note: (a) Answer the question given below.

- (b) Check your answers with those given at the end of the lesson
- 1. Which of the following states have more no. of cluster resource centers?
 - a) Andhra Pradesh, Bihar and Karnataka
 - b) Andhra Pradesh, Bihar and Rajasthan
 - c) Bihar, Rajasthan and Punjab
 - d) Punjab, Rajasthan and Andhra Pradesh
- 2. BRCs seek to be resource centers for giving all kinds of onsite academic support to the teachers of
 - a) Primary level
 - b) Elementary level
 - c) Secondary level
 - d) Higher education level

13.10 LET US SUM UP

This lesson deals with the micro and macro planning in education. Planning at the lowest spatial unit can be termed as micro level planning. In the Indian context micro level planning can mean planning carried out at

the village level or even at the habitation level. Further, we discussed about the institutional planning. It is a programme of development a0nd improvement prepared by an educational institution on the basis of its felt needs and the resources available or likely to be available, with a view to improving the school programme and school practices. The main objective of institutional planning is to have all-round development and improvement of the school. In addition to this we discussed about block and cluster resource centers. BRCs seek to be resource centers for giving all kinds of onsite academic support to the teachers of elementary level. Cluster resource centers have been set up at the sub block levels. Block and Cluster Resource Centers have been conceptualized as academic resource centers, to provide supervision, training, mentoring and on-site support to teachers and schools.

13.11 LESSON END EXERCISE

- 1. State the objectives of Micro-Planning.
- 2. Explain the steps of Micro-Planning.
- 3. What do you mean by Macro-Planning? Elaborate its Steps.
- 4. Discuss the procedure of institutional planning.
- 5. Explain the role and functions of CRCs and BRCs.
- 6. Discuss the on ground challenges of CRCs and BRCs.

13.12 SUGGESTED FURTHER READINGS

Aggarwal, J.C. (2002). Organization and Practice of Modern Indian Education, Shipra Publications, Delhi Dash, M. (2004). Education in India: Problems and Perspectives, New Delhi: Atlantic Publishers and Distributors, 53-62

Dash, M. & Dash, N. (2008). School Management, New Delhi: Atlantic Publishers and Distributors, 155-161 Kochhar, S.K. (2011). School Administration and Management, New Delhi: Sterling Publishers Private Limited Mohanty, J. (2005). Educational Administration, Supervision and School Management, New Delhi: Deep & Deep Publications (P) limited

13.13 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Check your progress -1	1 (b), 2(a)
Check your progress-2	1 (c), 2 (a)
Check your progress-3	1(b), 2(b)

Lesson No. 14 Unit-IV

SCHOOL MAPPING

STRUCTURE

14.1	Introd	luction
------	--------	---------

- 14.2 Objectives
- 14.3 School Mapping
- 14.4 Factors to be considered in School Mapping
- 14.5 Functions of the School Mapping
- 14.6 Process of School Mapping
- 14.7 Budget
- 14.8 Developing the Budget of Educational Institutions
- 14.9 Principles for developing and monitoring the budget of Educational Institutions
- 14.10 Issues in Preparing the Budget of Educational Institutions
- 14.11 Let Us Sum Up
- 14.12 Lessons End Exercise
- 14.13 Suggested Further Readings
- 14.14 Answers to Check Your Progress

14.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous lesson, we have studied about the concept of Macro & Micro planning, Institutional Planning, Cluster Resource Centers, and Block Resource Centers. In the present lesson, we will learn about School Mapping; factors to be considered in school mapping; functions, process and benefits of school mapping; principles and policies for developing and monitoring the budget; and various issues in preparing budget of eductional institutions. Primary education in India is predominantly funded and managed by the government. Therefore, investment decisions by the Government determine the pattern of expansion of educational facilities. Over a period of time it is noticed that certain areas are more endowed with school facilities than other areas. School mapping is an essential planning tool to overcome possibilities of regional inequities arising from the investment policies of the public authorities.

14.2 **OBJECTIVES**

After reading the lesson, you shall be able to:

- Define the concept of School Mapping.
- Describe the main functions of school mapping.
- Enumerate the factors which should be considered when preparing the school map.
- Explain various issues in preparing budget of educational institutions.
- Discuss the processes and stages involved in school mapping.
- Highlight principles and policies to guide the budget process of educational institutions.

14.3 SCHOOL MAPPING (SM)

The term 'School Mapping' is an exercise useful to rationally allocate educational facilities of any type related to any level of education. School Mapping has been strongly advocated by the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP), Paris. It was developed over the past thirty years from its origin in France(in 1963) where efforts were then needed to provide additional secondary schools on a rational, accessible and cost-effective basis. School mapping (SM) is a normative approach to the micro planning of school locations. It is an essential planning tool to overcome possibilities of regional inequalities in the provision of educational facilities. It means that:

- SM incorporates spatial and demographic dimensions into the educational planning process.
- Location of educational facilities depends on the norms and standards prescribed by the authorities.

According to Caillod (1997), "School Mapping consists of a set of techniques and procedures used to plan the demand for school places at the local level and to decide on the location of future schools and the means to be allocated at the institutional level".

According to Mendelsohn (1996), "School Mapping is a set of techniques and approaches that has a geographical perspective of education at its core".

Thus, School mapping is a set of techniques and procedures used to identify future needs in education at the local level and to plan for measures to be taken to meet them. The school map should be a forward-looking and dynamic vision of what the educational services, with their premises, teachers and equipment should be in the future so as to enable educational policy to be implemented.

14.4 FACTORS TO BE CONSIDERED IN SCHOOL MAPPING

The preparation and regular updating of a school map require the consideration of a large number of factors, including:

Demographic factors:

Whether it is a question of establishing, extending or modifying a school network, or planning out-of-school activities, the first question that comes to mind concerns potential demand and its territorial distribution. One

of the greatest difficulties in school mapping is obtaining sufficiently reliable data at the local level. Information on the total population and its growth rate and on school-age population must be obtained for the smallest geographic areas possible. Such information is usually available from census figures. Between censuses, estimates will have to be made. In any case, imperfect data are preferable to no data whatsoever.

***** Educational factors:

The aim, as we have seen, is to ensure the best educational conditions possible, while keeping costs down to a reasonable level. Didactic considerations will affect the fixing of various parameters, such as:

- the number of study hours per week and their distribution by subject,
- the number of pupils per class and their division into smaller groups for certain activities (in workshops, laboratories, etc.);
- normal length of time for which premises should be used and the possibilities of introducing double shifts;
- teachers' working hours and the extent of their specialization.
- given such parameters, standard sizes need to be fixed which will enable the institutions to be run with full utilization of premises and teachers.
- minimum and maximum school sizes will also need to be fixed.

Geographic factors:

Geographic factors require study of the possibilities of pupils getting to an institution in the light of the road network, the topography of the area(s) and the existing means of transport (by road, river, and, of course, on foot).

Economic factors:

Economic factors require that low-cost solutions be sought. It is economic considerations, combined with educational considerations, which mainly determine the standard, minimum and maximum sizes for educational institutions.

Political factors:

School mapping has numerous political aspects which are all too evident in the numerous constraints and pressures borne by the administrators who must decide on the creation or expansion of educational institutions of whatever kind.

Manpower and economic activity factor:

Interaction between school mapping and economic activities is two-fold. On the one hand, the economic activities of a region and the possibilities of employment will affect the selection of the specialized subjects to be offered in technical and vocational education or even in general education because of the options offered in diversified or pre-vocational education. On the other hand, the decision to establish, or to close, an institution may have a real impact on a region's activities.

14.5 FUNCTIONS OF THE SCHOOL MAPPING

School Mapping is most often used to facilitate one or more of six functions:

- Create the necessary conditions for achieving universal primary and secondary education (UPE and USE);
- Increase access for females and members of other traditionally under represented socio-economic groups;
- Promote the equitable distribution of educational benefits within and between different regions and populations;
- Improve the quality of educational efforts;
- Optimize the efficient use of existing capital, human and financial resources; and
- Rationalize efforts at technical, vocational, and post secondary education.

14.6 PROCESS OF SCHOOL MAPPING

School mapping is based on the following criteria:

- Specification of norms, standards and catchment area
 - ➤ Norms for opening of new schools
 - ➤ Distance/Population/Difficult area
 - > Norms for teacher
- Diagnosis of existing educational facilities
 - Assessment of existing educational facilities in selected area or region schools
 - Required information is useful to prepare school specific plan
 - Literacy Rate/ Enrolment Rate / Retention Rate/ Dropout Rate etc.
 - Number of Teachers
 - Teacher pupil ratio
 - Building and infrastructure facilities
 - Blackboard, water, toilet, electricity playground etc.
- Projection of future child population
 - Assessment of the number of children that is to be enrolled
 - ➤ It is based on projection of child population in the catchment area

Benefits

- To know number of new schools to be opened or other alternatives to formal education.
- > To know number of schools to be upgraded.
- > Number of teachers required.
- Deciding the location of schools
 - Based on norms specified by the authority.

- ➤ SM exercise does not decide the site to construct schools. It only indicates the most appropriate habitations/ village where school are to be opened.
- ➤ Finding appropriate sites is to be done in consultation with villagers, engineers and education authorities.
- Assessing the requirements or facilities in schools
 - Assessment of requirement of facilities in new school and in existing schools.
 - > This includes requirement of infrastructure facilities and teaching learning materials.
- Estimating financial resources requirement
 - ➤ Based on the requirement of facilities, cost estimates can be made and proposal can be made for funding.
- Prioritization of assessed requirement & facilities in the schools according to financial resources.
 - ➤ Based on the available budget for every year proposal can be made.

Following are the steps of conducting School Mapping:

Step 1	 Each and every habitation may be listed for mapping exercise Habitation wise population with availability of schooling facility with distance data may be collected through GIS or Manual Mapping
Step 2	 Listing of all habitations/villages to identify served area through GIS or Manual Mapping The available High schools and details of school High schools and their catchment area
Step 3	 Listing of all habitations/ villages to identify un-served area through GIS or Manual Mapping Details of Upper primary schools located in the catchment area from DISE Distance with other High schools Distance Matrix exercise should be done A list of UPS may be prepared which are eligible for upgrading into secondary level as per the state norm.
Step 4	 A team block and district level officers for confirming details of Secondary schools should do actual physical verification Actual physical verification should be done by a team block and district level officers for confirming details of Upper Primary Schools eligible for upgrading into secondary level
Step 5	 Based on the final verification, prioritization may be done. Propose year wise existing gap in the existing secondary schools Propose new schools selected for opening.

Thus, School Mapping is used to investigate and ensure the efficient and equitable distribution of resources within and between school systems when large scale reform or significant expansion of an educational system takes place.

14.7 BUDGET

Budgeting has now become a very important aspect of financial planning. No institution can survive and grow without sound financial planning. However, financial planning is no one single activity. Therefore different aspects of financial planning such as budgeting, controlling and regulating need proper attention. Budgeting in particular has become the most important aspect of financial planning because educational institutions have very limited resources. In order to deploy these resources and enhance the quality of educational institutions, it is important that budgeting should be given the right priority.

Budgeting is a process and plan for determining how money is to be raised and spent. In more technical terms, a budget is a statement of the total educational program for a given unit, as well as an estimate of resources necessary to carry out the program and the revenues needed to cover those expenditures. Hence, the budget is a statement of purpose and a review of income and expenditures by function - with a timeline to explain past, current, and future. Budgeting has its own significance which can be clear by the following points:

- Budgeting helps to ensure that we have correct estimates of revenue and expenditure.
- Budgeting help us to spend as budgeted, that is, expenditure will be as per the budget.
- Budgeting helps institutions to meet their objectives.
- Budgeting forms the basis of accounting and therefore institutions become more efficient.
- Budgeting makes it possible to provide equitable allocation of resources.
- Budgeting helps to determine the quality and quantity of services in the institution.
- The budget itself confers authority to administrators or head teachers to collect and to spend money appropriately and effectively.
- The budget ensures economic use of resources and for the appropriate projects that are needful to be funded.
- Budgeting helps education institutions to achieve the purpose expected by the society.
- The budget will help in coordinating different units and departments towards general goals of the school.

The resources available for academic budgets may include tuition and fees; state and/or federal appropriations; proceeds from self-supporting operations; endowment income and temporary investment income; contracts and grants; indirect cost return; and gifts.

14.8 DEVELOPING THE BUDGET OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION

To develop a budget, one must gather information about the internal and external influences on the organization,

estimate amounts for income and expenditures, and bring all this information together in one overall document, the master budget. The assessment of external influences (e.g., economic factors, government legislation, business relationships with customers and competitors, etc.) is very important to the financial success of the organization. Equally important is the assessment of internal factors, such as the types of products and services provided, the directors and employees of the organization, and the available resources, including capital, land, buildings, and equipment. To begin the budget development process, the administration analyzes expenditures from the previous year's budget. This analysis includes informal and formal audits, review of instructional versus non-instructional costs, study of budgeted versus actual expenditures, and various projections of increases in student enrolment, impact on facilities, and so on.

14.9 PRINCIPLES FOR DEVELOPING AND MONITORING THE BUDGET OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

There are certain principles for developing and monitoring the budget of educational institutions. These are:

- **Balanced Budget:** A balanced budget indicates that the income and expenditure of the government match with each other. If the income of the government is more than the expenditure, the budget is called a surplus, which is not good as it generates deflationary conditions and results in unemployment and a fall in prices. If the income is less than the expenditure, it is called a deficit budget and is responsible for inflation and high prices.
- The Need for Preparing a Budget on an Economic and Functional Classification Basis: The budget presented on the basis of revenue and capital accounts does not clearly reveal the true nature of economy. It is not possible, for example, to get a clear idea of capital formation out of budgetary resources. There is a need to prepare economic and functional classification of Government budgetary transactions to understand the true nature of fiscal and economic policies. The main aim of these classifications is to correlate the information generated from the government sector to other major sectors of the economy, which is required for an effective economic policy.
- Comprehensiveness: The budget needs to be an integral part of the fiscal policy of the government and should project a clear and an entire picture of income and expenditure of the government. The comprehensive budget will help us to understand the financial health of the government a sine-quonon for development and nation building.
- Responsible Executive Leadership: It means that someone must be made responsible for formulating the budget plan and presenting it for the action of the legislative body. This duty, therefore, logically falls on the executive. It is necessary from the budget standpoint to make the executive's leadership real and effective.
- Accuracy and Exactness: Estimates of revenue and expenditure included in the budget must be as accurate as possible. All the officers engaged in the preparation of the budget need to devote time and energy to collect facts required for the preparation of the exact budget, otherwise it leads to faulty distribution of resources among different activities and organisation.

- **Publicity:** It means that since the resources are to be raised from the public, they need to be involved at different stages of the budget preparation. It has been seen that only a negligible proportion of the people react to budget proposals, which is not a sound tendency. We should educate people to understand the implications of the budget so that they can contribute and watch over their own interests.
- Rule of Lapse: Budget is for a definite period and whatever is not used during that period may be transferred back to the state exchequer. This would keep the Drawing and Disbursing Officers alert and active as they have to use these resources for the welfare of the people in a given period of time. The period must be a year as is generally the case in modern governments including India.
- Separate the Revenue and Capital Aspects: The revenue and capital portions of the budget should be kept separate so that a correct understanding of the budget is possible.
- Formula Gross and not Net Income: The budget should be based on gross income and not net as it gives a total and realistic picture of the working of a department by examining separately income and expenditure therein.
- Feedback: The officers dealing with budget need to get proper feedback which can help in reviewing and in taking further action during the supplementary budget or in the next fiscal year. Feedback should be an integral activity of the budget and should be a regular part of the system.
- Research: The Government of India and State Government may seek help, guidance and advice from Financial Research Institutions, Departments of Economics, Public Administration, Commerce and Business Management in framing the budgets based on the researches conducted by them.
- ➤ Unity of the Budget: The budget of the government should be formulated on the concept of unity.
- Cash Basis: Estimates should be on a cash basis and not the accrual basis. This means that money should be included in the budget which is realised in that period. This will make the budget realistic. This system facilitates transactions of a year to be closed soon after their termination so that actual trend in government finances are available.
- **Predictability:** Spending agencies should have certainty about their allocations in the medium term to enable them to plan ahead. Stable funding flows support departmental planning and efficient and effective delivery.
- Contestability: No item in the budget should have an automatic claim for funding. All policy and attached funding should be regularly reviewed and evaluated in order to ensure prioritisation and optimal performance of spending agencies.
- **Transparency:** All relevant information required for sound budgetary decision making should be available in an accessible format, timely and systematic fashion. Budget information needs to be accurate, reliable and comprehensive. More specific principles to consider include:
 - Make performance data readily available
 - Consider all costs in evaluating the cost of educating students

- Use a consolidated budget
- Be clear on what actions are being funded
- **Periodicity:** The budget should cover a fixed period of time, typically one year, and the process of compiling the budget should follow a clear and reliable schedule that is agreed upon and published in advance.
- Intelligible: There should be clarity and simplicity in a budget so that it can be understood by a layman. The budget may be drafted in such a language that it should not be beyond the comprehension of the ordinary citizen resulting in his disassociation and loss of interest. Keeping in view the level of literacy in the country, we need to find ways and means to enlist the support of the common people and create interest in them so that they can come forward to give and share their viewpoints for the budget.

Check Your Progress - 1

Note: (a) Answer the question given below.

- (b) Check your answer with those given at the end of the lesson
- 1) School mapping is a set of techniques and procedures used to identify future needs in education at the
 - a) national level
 - b) local level
 - c) state level
 - d) international level
- 2) Which of the following statements about School Mapping is false?
 - a) It is an essential planning tool to overcome possibilities of regional inequalities in the provision of educational facilities.
 - b) It is a set of techniques used to identify future needs in education at the local level.
 - c) It is a normative approach to the micro?planning of school locations.
 - d) It is not meant for identifying most appropriate location for opening of new or upgraded school.
- 3) Which of the following is not a factor to be considered in School Mapping?
 - a) Social factor
 - b) Economic factor
 - c) Demographic factor
 - d) Geographic factor
- 4) The main function of school mapping is
 - a) To be repeated as an exercise every year.

- b) To promote disparities in the allocation of educational facilities.
- c) To coordinate school education with higher education.
- d) To promote the equitable distribution of educational benefits.
- 5) School Mapping term first time originated in
 - a) India
 - b) France
 - c) Russia
 - d) England
- 6) Out of the following, which one is not a principle of transparency in maintaining budget of educational institutions?
 - a) Make performance data readily available.
 - b) Consider all costs in evaluating the cost of educating students.
 - c) Program Review and Alternative Service Delivery
 - d) Be clear on what actions are being funded.

14.10 ISSUES IN PREPARING THE BUDGET OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

The prevailing budgeting system has certain issues that are needed to be rightly addressed. If the institution is interested in developing a sound finance and capital structure then they need to work on different horizon. It is essential that the finance function and other systems should be more pragmatic, result oriented and purposive. At present there are various bottlenecks in the finance as well as in the budgeting system. The budgeting system needs to be restructured in the light of revision of finance function.

Following are the issues in preparing the budget of educational institutions:

- The most vital issue is how to generate finance and how to maintain right balance. In many cases, non-availability of finance and poor utilization of funds becomes a major constraint.
- The present budgeting system basically emphasis on maintenance function than the development function.
- The budgeting system of most of institution does not work with a required scientific approach.
- The budgeting system is not interlinked with other finance function that hinders growth of appropriate finance system.
- At present the budgeting system of the institution does not have a developmental dimension, lack of proper integration and rational assessment of budget need is another issue.
- A budgeting system is not having appropriate follow up and follows up mechanism because of which many of the set objectives of the budget are not achieved.

- There is absence of budget manual that is work on perpetual basis.
- The dominance of piecemeal approach is major issue in development of sound budgeting system.
- To effectively manage resources, planners must know not only how much money they have, but also how much uncommitted money they have. Frequently, departments have far more complex situations in which the salaries and benefits of temporary or continuing employees may be charged to several sources over a period of time.
- All surpluses and deficits are managed by the units that generate them and may be carried over from year to year. Surpluses are shared between the units that generated them and a central fund. There should be a correspondence between the units' authority and responsibility for managing funds.
- Academic units always have a need for timely, accessible, and lucid information to support decisions
 The financial system must have a well-designed database and powerful reporting tools. There should
 be a range of reporting tools to write their own reports and aggregate data according to their individual
 needs. In addition to the data and reporting tools, academic units need the human resources to manage
 effectively.
- It should be noted that it is important for institutions to develop specific, measurable outcomes in order to assess their progress toward goals. This assessment of progress can provide a basis for resource-allocation decisions and thus is a critical step in the planning process.
- The key resource and generally largest recurring expense of any academic institution is its faculty. It is important to distinguish between tenured, other continuing, and temporary faculty. The institution have recurring funding identified for all tenured and continuing faculty. Employees funded on non-recurring sources of funds should be given specific terms and conditions of renewal. Even if the funding is expected to continue indefinitely, it is wise to notify the employee that the continuation of the position is contingent upon the continued availability of funding.
- Start-up costs for faculty are a major expense for institutions. In disciplines such as the sciences and engineering, most faculty negotiate start-up packages as part of the terms of their hire. These packages vary by discipline. Academic budget managers must plan for these expenses. While they are often set as the result of specific negotiations, the institution must plan for the amount of investment it is able to make, and those negotiating with faculty must know the limitations. Generally, the disciplines in which faculty require significant start-up investments are also those for which external funding is available. Some portion of indirect cost return can sometimes be used to fund start-up packages.
- The way in which library, information technology, and other key services are supported varies from institution to institution. While the ways in which these costs are handled defy generalization, there are some issues that are universal. The cost of library periodicals is one such issue. The increasing prevalence of electronic resources in libraries may lead some to believe that costs are decreasing, since online versions of journals may be assumed to be less costly than print versions. However, this

is often not the case. Another universal issue involves the management of information technology costs and the structure of information technology within an institution.

• Academic institutions vary widely in terms of the degree to which academic budgets are decentralized. The nature of budgetary decision-making and responsibility in academic units is directly related to this issue. The degree of decentralization also affects which level at an institution benefits from the flexibility associated with increased revenues. In a decentralized model, that additional revenue will flow largely to the units that generated it. In Centralized budget model, revenues do not flow to the unit that generates them, but instead flow to a central unit or units.

Prevailing budgeting system in the institution can be improve if due attention is given to development of a more rational and appropriate budget system. Certain modifications in the system are essential for sound development of the budget system. It is not enough only to bring in procedural changes but it is equally important to bring in change in the philosophical approach and policy of the budgeting system.

14.11 LET US SUM UP

In this lesson we were dealing with the concept of School Mapping. We discussed the factors to be considered in school mapping and its functions. We put forward the process of school mapping along with its steps. School mapping, as planning approach focuses on the local level, provide an analytical framework for the implementation of education plans. This lesson also explained about the principles and policies to be considered while maintaining the school budget. They can help to overcome the issues and limitations of centralized planning through the correct understanding of local realities, the necessary consultation of relevant stakeholders to facilitate and, ultimately, a better fit between educational supply and demand. Unless and until the prevailing budgeting system is restructured, the financial performance of institution cannot be rightly ensured. It is also important that the budget function should be given priority for effective utilization of resources and to enhance the receipts and income. Budget should not be merely activity of financial development alone. It should be over all institutional exercise. Due importance should given for development of broad based and healthy budgeting policy.

14.12 LESSONS END EXERCISE

- 1) Discuss the various functions of School Mapping.
- 2) What do you mean by the term 'School Mapping'? Discuss its importance in the education system.
- 3) Throw light on the concept of School Mapping highlighting its steps in detail.
- 4) Explain in detail the factors to be considered in School Mapping.
- 5) Elaborate the steps of School Mapping.
- 6) What are the main functions and benefits of School Mapping?

14.13 SUGGESTED FURTHER READINGS

Bhagwat, S.M., & Kaptan, S.S. (2015). New trends in Budgeting in educational institutions - Some observations. International Research Journal Of Multidisciplinary Studies, 1(1), 1-5.

Caillod, F. (1997). Training manuals in educational planning, administration and facilities-module 1 school mapping and micro planning: concept and processes. Paris: UNESCO Publishing IIEP.

Dash, M. (2004). Education in India: Problems and Perspectives. New Delhi: Atlantic Publishers and Distributors.

Galabawa, J.C.J., Agu, A.O., & Miyazawa, I. (2002). The impact of school mapping in the development of education in Tanzania: an assessment of the experiences of six districts. Evaluation and Program Planning, 25(1), 23-33.https://doi.org/10.1016/S0149-7189(01)00046-5

Mendelsohn, J.M. (1996). Education planning and management and the use of geographical information systems. Paris: UNESCO Publishing IIEP.

14.14 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1) b 2) d 3) a 4) d 5) b 6) c

Lesson No. 15 Unit-IV

RESOURCES AND FINANCING OF EDUCATION, RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE PRODUCTIVITY AND EFFICIENCY

STRUCTURE

- 15.1 Introduction
- 15.2 Objectives
- 15.3 Definition and concept of resources and financing of education
- 15.4 Relationship Between Efficiency and Productivity
 - 15.4.1 Difference Between Efficiency and Productivity
- 15.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 15.6 Lesson End Exercise
- 15.7 Suggested Further Readings
- 15.8 Answers to Check Your Progress

15.1 INTRODUCTION

Investment in education is a necessary condition for promotion of economic growth and national development. Educational institutions including schools are established and managed essentially to achieve certain stated goals and objectives. There is no way the goal and objectives of an educational institution can be achieved without putting in place certain mechanisms towards ensuring the success of such institutions. In the educational institution, part of the integral pre-requisites to be put in place towards the actualization of the educational goal and objectives requires adequate provision of resources, maximum utilization and appropriate management of education resources to avoid wastages and improve the quality of the teaching - learning process in the academic environment. This paper therefore examined the concept of school administration and education resources, classification of education resources, relevance of education resources in the educational institution, challenges associated with the availability and utilization of resources in the school. Solutions were offered on how to overcome the identified challenges so as to ensure effective and efficient management of available resources in the educational institution.

15.2 OBJECTIVES:

After reading this lesson, you shall be able to:

• Explain the concept of resources

- Classify different educational resources
- Discuss of Features of educational management and educational leadership
- Describe relationship between productivity and efficiency
- Differentiate between productivity and efficiency.

15.3 RESOURCES AND FINANCING OF EDUCATION

Concept of Education Resources

Education resources refer to all human, material, non material audio-visual school environment and community materials available in an academic environment to facilitate school administration and simplify the teachinglearning process. They also include other fundamental materials used in the school to make teaching very easy and learning more meaningful and comprehensible to the learners. Education resources covers all those materials human and non human, drawn or photographed, built manually or electronically operated, books and all forms of related materials used in teaching and learning process (NTI,2006)

Classification of Education Resources

Education resources based on their nature are basically classified into the following categories:

- (a) Material/Physical Resources: These are the tangible resources that can easily be seen and observed in any institution. The physical resources include the structure, the machines, raw materials, vehicles, and other tools, which can facilitate organizations activities and processes. The physical resources may not be the same in all organization. In educational system, the physical resources would include the classrooms/lecture rooms, staff offices, vehicles, health centers, library, laboratory, and so on, which directly or indirectly contribute to the achievement of goals.
- (b) Human Resources: Human resource constitutes a vital vein of any institution. The human resource in the school system includes teachers, support staff in the school, students, parents, community members and a host of other interest and social groups. Human resources is responsible for planning, organizing, coordinating, controlling, manipulating and maintaining other forms of resources, its administrative and forecasting ability placed it ahead of other forms of resources.

There is a full range of human resources that are essential for success. These resources include planners, administrators, teachers, mentors, managers, and support staff. Here, we focus on teachers as one of the critical aspects of human resource commitment.

Study after study shows that quality teaching is the most powerful factor in student learning. There are three critical domains of supportive interactions in good teaching: emotional support, organizational support and instructional support.

Emotional support includes:

- Positive connection of teacher and students,
- Low level of negativity expressed by teacher and students,

- ❖ Teacher sensitivity to students' needs,
- * Teacher regard for students' interests, motivations, and points of view

Organizational support includes:

- **❖** Behavior management
- Classroom productivity

Instructional support includes:

- Learning strategies how teachers engage students in activities and facilitate activities so that learning opportunities are maximized.
- Concept development how teachers use instructional discussions and activities to promote students' higher-order thinking skills and cognition.
- Quality of feedback how teachers extend students' learning through their participation in activities.
- Language modeling the extent to which teachers facilitate and encourage students' language development.
 - (c) **Financial resources**: Financial resources can be allocated to salaries paid to teachers, administrators and support staff; maintenance or construction costs of buildings and infrastructure; and operational costs, such as transportation and meals for students.

Resources invested in education in PISA 2012 and Importance of resources:

Spending on education	Human Resources	Material resources	Time resources
Expenditure on education	Teachers' pre service training requirements for the teaching profession	infrastrucutre: school buildings and grounds; heating/cooling and lighting systems; and instructional	time in schools: At the school level, there is some relationship
Teachers' salaries	Students- teacher ratio: PISA 2012 asked school principles to report the total number of teachers and students in their schools. The students teacher ratio is not	resources: science laboratory equipment instructional	size can affect learning in various

equivalent to class size. Student teacher ratios not equivalent to class size. It ranges from 1:13 to 25.	computers for	
Teachers' shortages: Adequacy of the supply of teachers in the schools, Principals were asked to report on the extent to which they think instruction in their school is hindered by a lack of qualified teachers and staff in key areas.		Students' learning time in after school lessons: The number of hours they typically spend per week attending after school lessons in mathematics, language of instruction and science. These are lessons that may be given at their school, at their home or somewhere else.
Teacher's professional development		Extracurricular activities

Quality education depends on environments that are healthy, safe, caring and be responsible for appropriate resoures and facilities through which qualified teachers use child-concentrated teaching approaches in well managed class rooms and schools, skilfull assessment to facilitate learning and reduce disparities. Physical learning environments or the places in which formal learning occurs, range from modern and well-equipped buildings to open-air gathering places. The quality of school facilities seems to have an indirect effect on learning, an effect that is hard to measure (UNICEF, 2000). Teaching resources are educational inputs and infact the success of any education system depends on how quantities and qualitative are the human and physical resources through which that educational system is benfied. Absolutely a great level of research has been conducted to compare Public and private schools on the basis of variety of measures like effectiveness, quality and cost, student achievements, learning gapes, management, equity, student accountability, job satisfaction, and many more. Comparative study of human and material resources among public and private primary schools is very limited especially in developing countries except of few cases.

FINANCING OF EDUCATION

The central government provides financial assistance to state government and voluntary organisations, either partial or hundred percent for implementing various schemes, programmes, projects on different aspects of school education, non formal education, girls' education, education of SC and STs, scholarships etc. The major functions include planning, implementing, financing, quality control and financing, quality control and educational expansions.

Central ministry's endeavour is to achieve 'Education for All' with an inclusive approach. To strengthen elementary education and to achieve the goal of universal access to quality education for all, the Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education (RTE) Act, 2009 became operative on 1st April, 2010. Further, to enhance enrollment, retention and attendance and simultaneously improving nutritional levels among children, the major intervention includes 'National Programme of Mid-Day Meal in Schools'. At the same time, the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) is being implemented to achieve the goals of universal access and retention, bridging of gender and social gaps in enrolment levels and enhancement of learning levels of all children. Special emphasis is also made for promotion of girls education. Mahila Samakhya which has a special focus on the Educationally Backward Blocks is a unique process-oriented programme which has demonstrated ways of empowering rural poor and marginalised women. It was promoted their effective participation in the public domain and in educational and learning processes. With the enforcement of RTE Act, and further improvement in retention and transaction rates there is an increasing pressure on the Secondary Schools to expand capacity. To meet this demand a number of schemes for Secondary Education are being implemented viz. (i) Rashtriya Madhyamic Shiksha Abhiyan (RMSA); (ii) Setting up of Model Schools; (iii) Setting up Girls' Hostels in Secondary and Senior Secondary Schools; (iv) National Scheme of Incentive to Girls for Secondary Education (NSIGSE); (v) Inclusive Education for the Disabled at the Secondary Stage (IEDSS); and (vi) National Merit-cum-Means Scholarship Scheme (NMMS) and (vii) Scheme of ICT in Schools.

Check Your Progress - 1

Note:(a) Answer the question given below

- (b) Check your answers with those given at the end of the lesson.
- 1. Human resources include:
 - A) Teachers
 - B) Students
 - C) Parents
 - D) All of the above.
- 2. Education resources refer to:
 - A) Human resources
 - B) Material

- C) Both
- D) None
- 3. Material resources:
 - (a) are tangible in any organization.
 - (b) are intangible resources in any organization.
 - (c) are both tangible and intangible in any organization.
 - (d)None of the above
- 4. Central ministry's endeavour is to achieve
 - A) Education for all
 - B) Education for us
 - C) Education for you
- D) None of above

15.4 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PRODUCTIVITY AND EFFICIENCY

In order to explain the differences between productivity and efficiency, we must first understand what they exactly mean. Both productivity and efficiency are absolutely crucial for building a fantastic work ethic. If you manage to learn how to handle both of them and what makes them distinctly important, you and your job will thrive.

Productivity

At its very core, productivity shows you the rate at which products are being developed or a task is being completed. When you are measuring productivity things get a little more complex than that. You have to take into account whether it's physical or office work, if the job requires a certain quality factor or the impact a specific institution's requirements may have on its workers. Productivity is computed by dividing average output per period by the total costs incurred or resources (capital, material, personnel) consumed in that period. Productivity is a critical determinant of cost efficiency. Productivity in education is limited to educational inputs and educational outputs. The common inputs are things like school resources, teacher quality and family attributes and the outcome is student achievement.

Efficiency

Efficiency is all about the comparison between what is really being produced or performed with what can be produced taking into account the same amount of resources, such as: money, time and labour. In simpler terms, efficiency measures whether there is any waste in your institution. Depending on the organization you work in, efficiency may be more desirable than productivity, but usually their importance is proportionate.

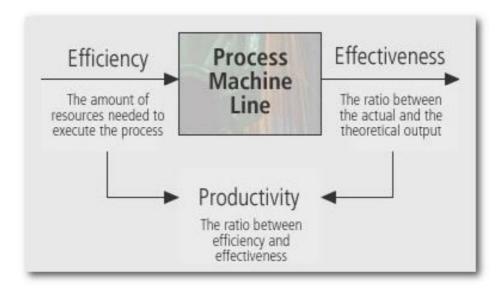
Efficiency is the ability to do something or produce something without wasting materials, time or energy. It is the quality or degree of being efficient. Productivity is the rate at the work is completed. Productivity is

the ratio of output to input in production. It is a measure of efficiency in production. Productivity refers to when something is produced, how much is produced, and in how much time. Quality and wastage are not important factors, but the quantity matters. It focuses only on production. Economic well-being is a characteristic of production. It aims directly or indirectly to satisfy the human needs. Effectiveness is described as the time, effort or cost well used to the task. It is often used for the specific purpose of relaying the capability of a specific application of effort, which is used to produce a specific outcome effectively with a minimum amount or quantity of waste, expense, or effort. It is a measurable concept, which is determined by the ratio of output to input. Effectiveness is all about doing things right. It is based on the principle that the selection of objects for a process is just as important as the quality of that process. It avoids mistakes and errors. It is based on thinking about the present, and not in the future which may result in no innovation. Efficiency is all about focusing on the process and the importance is given to the 'resources' of doing things. Efficiency is considered as the performance indicator of any organization. Productivity measures the output against the inputs required while efficiency measures the output against the expected standard output.

Relationship between efficiency and productivity

Efficiency is determined by the amount of time, money, and energy - i.e. resources - that are necessary to obtain certain results. In order to meet our daily production quota, we commit a specific machine that uses up energy, make operators and maintenance personnel available, and provide raw materials. For example, if we are able to meet our daily production with less energy and fewer operators, we have operated more efficiently.

Effectiveness is determined by comparing what a process or installation can produce with what they actually produce; therefore, effectiveness does not tell anything about the efficiency - the amount of resources that have to be committed to obtain that output. If we are successful in manufacturing more good product in the same time period, effectiveness will increase. A valuable discussion could be whether 'good product' should be seen as 'Good product with customer demand' to prevent over-production.



Productivity is determined by lookiwng at the production obtained (effectiveness) versus the invested effort in order to achieve the result (efficiency); in other words, if we can achieve more with less effort, productivity increases.

Goldrath ('The Goal') defines productivity as: 'the extent in which a company generates money'. The goal of a production company is therefore not to reduce expenses but to generate as much money as possible.

15.4.1 Difference between efficiency and productivity:

Efficiency	Efficiency	Productivity
Definition	It is the ability to do something or produce something without wasting materials, time or	are produced or the work is completed
Measurement	It is the measure of waste in a system.	It is the measure of output produced by one unit of input.
Production	It is how much one produce in a given amount of time with resources.	
Basis	It depends on the quality	It just depends on production

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS - 2

Note:(a) Anwer the question given below

- (b) Check your answers with those given at the end of the lesson
- 1. Efficiency is measure of :
- A) waste
- B) resources
- C) technology
- D) none of above
- 2. Productivity:
- A) is the amount of time one spends on productive tasks.
- B) is wastage of time.
- C)is based on discussion method.
- D)all of above

- 3. Efficiency is focused on:
- A) Product
- B) Process
- C) both
- D) None of above
- 4. Productivity:
- A) measures the inputs against the outputs required
- B) measures the output against the inputs required
- C) both A and B
- D) none of above

15.5 LET US SUM UP

In conclusion, one more idea that is important to remember is this: never sacrifice your work. If you need to do good, solid work then don't rush it by any means, and when you are looking for quantity don't get yourself lost in too many details. With this in mind, you can accomplish anything you want. Do the work you have to do the way it was meant to be done and never compromise. It is essential you know and understand the differences between productivity and efficiency in order to ensure your work never has to suffer again.

15.6 LESSON END EXERCISE

- 1. Define leadership.
- 2. What do you understand by educational management.
- 3. Throw light on the meaning of productivity and efficiency.
- 4. How productivity and efficiency are related to each other.

15.7 SUGGESTED FURTHER READINGS

- 1. Aggarwal, J. C. (2002). Organisation and Practice of Modern Indian Education, Shipra Publications, Delhi.
- 2. Dash, M. (2004). Education in India: Problems and Perspectives, Atlantic Publishers & Distributors, 103-110.

15.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Check Your progress - 1 1-A, 2-B, 3-A, 4-A

Check Your Progress - 2 1-A, 2-A, 3-B, 4-B

Lesson No. 16 Unit-IV

COST -ANALYSIS IN EDUCATION

STRUCTURE

- 16.1 Introduction
- 16.2 Objectives
- 16.3 Cost Analysis
- 16.4 Types of Cost Analysis
- 16.5 Approaches to Cost Analysis in Education: Cost -Feasibility & Cost- Effectiveness
- 16.6 Aspects of costs-
 - Time
 - Context
 - Resources
- 16.7 Practical Challenges to Cost-Effectiveness Analysis
- 16.8 Classification of Costs of Education
- 16.9 Total Cost Calculation
- 16.10 Let Us Sum Up
- 16.11 Lesson End Exercise
- 16.12 Suggested Further Readings
- 16.13 Answers to Check Your Progress

16.1 INTRODUCTION

You have studied previously the concept of school mapping and process of school mapping. You have also studied the factors, functions and benefits of school mapping. In present lesson, the purpose is to make you understand specifically the concept of cost analysis to bring about a positive change in organisation efficiency and effectiveness. You will also come to know about various aspects to be considered for conducting cost analysis.

16.2 OBJECTIVES

After going through this lesson, you shall be able:

- Explain the concept of cost analysis.
- Describe the types of cost analysis.
- Explain approaches to Cost Analysis in education.
- Discuss aspects of cost analysis.
- Enumerate pratical challenges to cost analysis.
- Classify costs to education.
- Describe the procedure of total cost calculation.

16.3 COST ANALYSIS

Applying cost-analysis methods in education can help states determine whether federal, state and local money are being spent wisely. Cost analysis involves evaluating the costs of programs, innovations, policies and projects in relation to the outcomes that result from them. The goal of cost analysis is to reach the desired outcomes while spending the least amount of money.

Decision makers need to understand how funds are targeted and what results can be reasonably associated with that spending. This overview of cost-analysis tools introduces policymakers to key terms and ideas about how to determine the impact of funds on desirable outcomes.

Decision makers can use cost analysis to:

- Assess the resources required and costs of implementing a new program.
- Inform monitoring, accountability, and resource use of ongoing programs.
- Determine whether resources are being distributed equitably across sites and participants.
- Inform decisions regarding scale of program implementation and level of services provided.
- Compare several programs to help select the most effective one for students, relative to its cost.
- Balance the costs of an education program against the expected results to determine whether it represents a wise investment of resources.
- Compare several programs to weigh costs against how well each program meets stakeholder needs

How cost analyses can inform decision making?

- Cost analyses can be helpful for a variety of decision making purposes, either in planning and adopting a new program or in improving the operation of an existing program. Decision makers can use cost analyses to inform decisions in the following ways:
- To determine the resources needed and the associated costs to implement a new program. The most basic use of cost analysis in education is to assess the resources required to implement a new program and to determine what these resources will cost. Before adopting a new program and with this information in hand, decision makers should ask this critical question: does the school or

district have sufficient resources available to guarantee that the program will be implemented as envisioned? If not, can the missing resources be procured?

- To make smart decisions about existing programs. Cost analysis can inform decisions about existing
 programs. It can facilitate the monitoring of and accountability for ongoing programs by determining
 whether resources are being used as planned and are being distributed equitably. It can also show
 whether a program is sustainable and reveal how deviations in implementation may affect both
 costs and effectiveness.
- To identify which sites are doing the best job in implementing a program. Costs can be compared across program sites to spotlight efficiencies and best practices in resource use and to identify sites that are lacking adequate resources. Decision makers can subsequently make informed adjustments to program activities and resource allocation among sites.
- To decide whether to scale up or cut back on a program. By documenting the financial, personnel, and other resources needed to serve program participants and assessing the feasibility of allocating more resources to the program, decision makers can determine the number of additional students that can be served by an existing program and estimate the optimal enrollment. If budget cuts are necessary, information on costs per participant and cost per service component can be used to determine whether to target only the neediest participants or to adjust the amount of each service to ensure that at least a minimal level of services is provided for all potential participants.

16.4 TYPES AND USES OF COST ANALYSIS

Types and uses of cost analysis are as follows:

Cost-Feasibility Analysis: When only the costs of a program are being considered for a decision, the type of analysis may be called a cost-feasibility analysis. Decision makers can use this type of analysis to assess whether, given available budget and resources, it is feasible to implement a new program or whether an existing program can be scaled up to serve more participants. Cost considerations would include whether new teachers must be hired or whether existing teachers can be trained to deliver the program, how many hours of teacher and other personnel time are needed to implement the program, what additional materials or equipment must be purchased, and what physical space is needed to serve students. Depending on the availability of resources, the district could determine how many students can be served by the program and establish a cut-off for eligibility-for example, all first graders scoring below the 25th percentile on a literacy assessment. Decision makers can compare information on program costs to program results to conduct a costeffectiveness analysis to inform a choice among several programs, a cost-benefit analysis to assess whether a program is providing a good return on investment, or a cost-utility analysis that assesses the value of alternative programs based on a number of objective and subjective dimensions, which may include evidence of effectiveness at improving student outcomes as well as some measure of parent support.

Advantages: Can be used to swiftly rule out program choices that cannot feasibly be implemented in the decision maker's context.

Disadvantages: Considers only costs, not effectiveness, benefits or utility.

A combination of cost data with information about the results of a program underlies several types of cost analysis:

• Cost-effectiveness analysis. When more than one program is available to help improve a specific student outcome, it is useful to compare the costs of each program with its impact on that outcome. For example, if the goal is to improve first grade reading fluency, decision makers can compare the costs of implementing literacy groups and literacy after school with the expected increase in performance on a fluency assessment associated with each program. Literacy Groups, the pull-out program that serves students in groups of four, may cost \$6,000 per student and result in a 5-point greater gain in fluency scores compared with similar students not being served by the program. Literacy Afterschool, the afterschool program that serves students in pairs, may cost \$8,000 per student and confer a 10-point greater gain in fluency scores. While Literacy Afterschool is more costly overall, the cost per extra point gained in fluency scores is \$800 (\$8,000/10 points), while for Literacy Groups it is higher, at \$1,200 (\$6,000/5 points). If the district can afford and implement either program with fidelity, decision makers can use this analysis to decide whether the additional 5-point gain produced by Literacy Afterschool is worth the extra \$2,000 per student.

Advantages:

- Can be used to decide among alternative program choices.
- Includes consideration of program effectiveness as well as costs or use of resources.

Disadvantages:

• Can evaluate several programs but only one education outcome (such as reading comprehension) at a time.

Cost-benefit analysis. The term "cost-benefit analysis" is often used informally to describe professional judgements about whether investing time and money in a program or strategy is worthwhile. However, formal economic analysis can be used to assign monetary values to program results so that the dollar value of the results can be compared directly to the dollar amount of costs. For example, if Literacy Afterschool, described above, helps a student avoid special education services costing \$10,000 per year in second grade and beyond, the \$8,000 investment in first grade is more than justifiable on financial grounds.

Advantages:

- Can compare the resource requirements and benefits of two or more programs with similar or different objectives.
- Requires estimating benefits as dollar values.
- Cost-utility analysis. Education leaders must often consider multiple factors and stakeholder groups when choosing among programs: in addition to assessing costs and gains in student performance, they may consider, for example, teacher buy-in, parent preferences, and compatibility with the existing curriculum.

In a cost-utility analysis each of these dimensions of program value is measured and contributes to an overall assessment of each program. For example, if Literacy Groups, described above, is strongly preferred by parents and teachers because it is delivered during school time rather than after school, this preference could tip the balance against Literacy Afterschool, especially if a 5-point gain in fluency scores is considered sufficient by all parties. Cost-utility analysis provides a framework to balance the costs of a program with its overall perceived value to program stakeholders.

Advantages:

- Allows consideration of multiple factors beyond effectiveness and costs.
- Allows multiple stakeholders to participate in the decision about which program to implement.
- Can be used when little objective evidence of effectiveness exists as yet.
- Can be used when programs address more than one educational outcome- for example, both reading and math.

Disadvantage:

• Produces results that are relevant only to the context in which the analysis is conducted.

16.5 APPROACHES TO COST ANALYSIS IN EDUCATION

In recent years, ensuring that all teachers are highly qualified for the classes they teach has been a key priority. Now that most teachers are highly qualified, there is increased emphasis on teacher effectiveness. States and districts are strategizing on ways to increase, measure and reward teacher effectiveness. All of these activities require targeted spending, but how can states and districts ensure that they are making the most of the resources?

According to Levin and McEwan (2001), cost analysis in education consists of four different approaches: cost-effectiveness, cost -feasibility, cost-utility and cost-benefit. District and state education leaders would be most likely to use cost-feasibility and cost-effectiveness analyses.

These cost-analysis tools are likely to be useful in the following circumstances:

- **Cost-feasibility.** This analysis is used when the goal is to reward effective teachers and determine whether the budget can support various types and levels of rewards.
- **Cost-effectiveness**. This analysis is used when the goal is to determine which of two alternatives is associated with the most improvement in overall student achievement: performance pay for effective teachers (those who raise student).

TYPES OF ANALYSIS	DESCRIPTION	PURPOSE/USES	CAUTIONS	EXAMPLE
Cost- feasibility	Assists in deciding whether a particular policy or program can reasonably be implemented, given funding streams and budget limitations. Does not consider outcomes, only initial costs and costs to sustain programs or policies for some period of time.	Rules out alternatives that are too costly. Compare alternatives based solely on the cost to implement and sustain them, not on outcomes.	Cannot be used to judge the worth of a project in terms of outcomes (like student achievement) Only as accurate as the cost estimates used to determine feasibility. If faulty figures are used, the results will be misleading.	Objective: Reward effective teachers. Before considering which types of rewards to put into place and at what levels, education leaders must first determine whether their budget can support various types and levels of rewards. Questions to ask include the following: • How much funding is currently available for awards? • Is that amount sufficient for all eligible teachers to receive rewards? • Is the funding sustainable over time? • What is the cost of implementation?
Cost- effectiveness	Measures the value (in rupees) of resources relative to effectiveness as measured by progress on a specific objective (ie., student achievement, teacher retention, change in teacher practices). May be expresses as a ratio in which the denominator is an outcome such as student achievement and the numerator is the cost associated with particular level of that outcome.	Compare alternative strategies when there is only one objective. Compare strategies when there are only a few objectives.	Difficult to interpret results when there are several measures of effectiveness. Only useful when comparing alternatives for a specific objective.	Objective: Determine which alternative program is associated with the greatest improvement in overall student achievement: • Rewarding teachers for gains in student achievement. • Investing mo ney in afterschool programs for at-risk students. • Providing targeted professional development aimed at improving instructional practice.

Example:

The application of cost-effectiveness analysis can best be understood by providing examples of its use. In a 1984 study, Bill Quinn, Adrian Van Mondfrans, and Blaine R. Worthen examined the cost-effectiveness of two different mathematics curricula. One approach was based upon a traditional, textbook application. The other was a locally developed curriculum that emphasized highly individualized instruction with special methods for teaching mathematics concepts. With respect to effectiveness, the latter curriculum was found to be more effective in terms of mathematics achievement, on average, than the traditional program. It was also learned that the lower the socioeconomic status (SES) of the student, the greater were the achievement advantages of the innovative program.

But the innovative program had a cost that was about 50 percent higher per student than the traditional one. The question is whether the additional achievement justified the higher cost. The evaluators found that the cost per raw score point on the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills was about 15 percent less for the innovative program than for the traditional one, showing that the higher achievement more than compensated for the higher cost. For low SES students the cost per point of the innovative program was less than 40 percent that of the traditional program. For high SES students, however, the traditional program was slightly more cost-effective. This study demonstrates the value of cost-effectiveness and its usefulness as an evaluation technique among different types of students. In a low SES school or district the innovative program was far superior in terms of its cost-effectiveness. In a high SES school or district, the traditional program might be preferred on cost-effectiveness grounds.

16.6 ASPECTS OF COSTS

Educational policies and programs require an innovative, conceptual approach to costing because many resource and outcomes resist numeric values. Three aspects of costs need to be accurately assessed to ensure that the analysis yields valid results: time, context and resources.

Time

Costs are not fixed over the course of time. The cost for the year of implementation of a program may be considerably different from the cost in subsequent years. Multi-year program costs should be annualized along with an analysis of discount and inflation effects.

Context

A third practical challenge is persuading evaluators that collecting cost data is as important as collecting effectiveness data and that both should be collected simultaneously needs to be well understood because educational interventions that work in one community may not be as effective or efficient in another community. Context can affect the costs and outcomes. Also the district or state support may vary for local reforms.

Resources

An analysis of resources is time-intensive but critically important for cost analysis. One approach to

calculating the costs of resources is the "ingredients" approach, a comprehensive method proposed by Levin and McEwan (2001). Ingredients include the following:

- Personal (teachers, support staff, aides, administrators, cafeteria workers, maintenance staff, counsellors, mentors, coaches, consultants, special education service providers, curriculum supervisors
- Facilities (classrooms, computer labs, shared spaces, buildings, grounds, heating/cooling, lighting, repairs, maintenance and cleaning).
- Equipment and Materials (desks, chairs, white boards, curricular materials, computers, books, recreational equipment).
- Other program inputs (dollars, data, data analysis, evaluators, consultants, project managers).
- Required client inputs ("donated time" from teachers, students, parents and other staff).

Ingredients should be estimated by gathering information on market prices

16.7 PRACTICAL CHALLENGES TO COST-EFFECTIVENESS ANALYSIS

The first challenge is to recognize that budgetary data are not sufficient for costing out programs. There are many reasons why budgets are inadequate for determining costs (Levin & McEwan, 2001, pp. 45-46). The over riding concern of accounting and budget reporting in education is to establish transparency in how money is spent, primarily for auditing purposes. Often, capital improvements that last many years are charged to the budget in the year that the improvement is made or over a fixed time period rather than being spread out over all the years of service ability. Also, resources that are received from non-school sources (such as volunteers, gifts, use of facilities belonging to other agencies) are often not accounted for at all. In some states the pension system for schools is charged to the state and does not appear as a cost in local school budgets. By accounting for the ingredients used in a program or intervention, most errors of omission or cost distortion can be avoided.

A second challenge is to use standard prices for particular inputs. For example, if a new teacher with a BA and graduate training is required, the prevailing labor market price should be used. This ensures that interventions can be compared appropriately. Unless 12 standard prices are used, any intervention delivered in New York City will be 30% more costly than one delivered in Wyoming (CPI differences in prices). Unless standard prices are used, school districts will not easily be able to know how much the intervention would cost in their locality. They would have to know all the sites where the intervention was delivered and calculate their own regional price index to apply to their school district. Collecting these standard prices is a challenge, although in the U.S. there are sufficiently detailed datasets that allow for estimating salaries of teachers with many different educational qualifications and training and with varying levels of experience.

A third practical challenge is persuading evaluators that collecting cost data is as important as collecting effectiveness data and that both should be collected simultaneously.

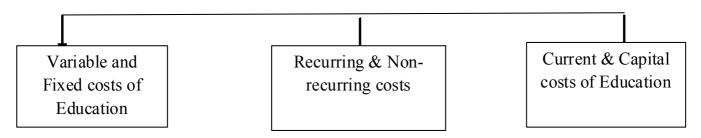
16.8 CLASSIFICATION OF COSTS OF EDUCATION

Costs can be classified into two types:

(a) Individual or private costs-Individual costs or private costs of education are those costs of education incurred by a learner or by his/her parents/guardians or by the family as a whole. It is further of two types: direct and indirect.

Indirect Costs - Indirect costs are those costs which are not directly visible. These costs are sometimes called "opportunity costs". It refers to the value of students time or earning forgone to continue the study. Direct Costs - It involves tuition, other school fees, uniforms, transportation, books and other stationery items.

(b) Institutional or public or social costs- Costs incurred at the institutional level (government, private or mixed) are called institutional costs or public costs of education. Public costs are those that include financing by the government on the basis of taxes, loans and other public revenues. The institutional costs of education are generally, analyzed using the following variables:



16.9 TOTAL COST CALCULATION

The 'total cost' is the sum of all fixed costs and all variable costs.

Equation TC = TFC + TVC

Where, TC = total costs,

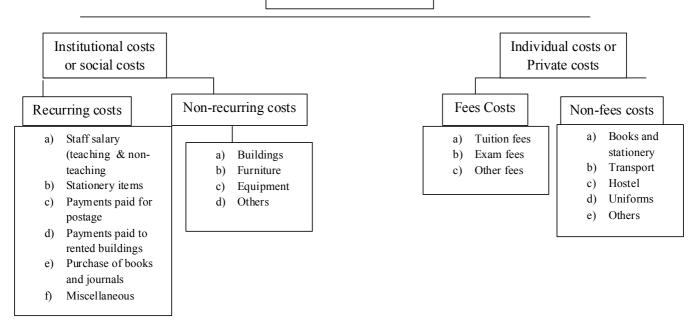
TFC = total fixed costs and

TVC = total variable costs

Fixed costs are defined as those that do not change with a change in the number of learners, e.g., costs on institution's building, purchase of furniture. In other words the costs that do not increase or decrease with the changes in the level of activity of the institution are known as the fixed costs.

Variable costs vary with every change in number of learners. e.g., costs on teachers, laboratory materials and stationery items.

Costs of Education



Check Your Progress - 1

Note: a) Answer the questions given below

b) Check your answers with those given at the end of the lesson

- 1. The sum of variable costs and fixed costs is called
- a) total costs
- b) overhead costs
- c) markup costs
- d) both a and b
- 2. The kind of cost which does not vary with the level of production of company or level of sales is classified as
- a) variable costs
- b) fixed costs
- c) total costs
- d) all of above
- 3. The major categories of inputs are
- a) Fixed, variable, direct, and indirect.
- b) Lab or, capital, material, and utilities.

- c) Short run, intermediate run, and long run
- d) Both a and b.
- 4. A cost-benefit analysis differs from a cost-effectiveness analysis by
- a) Taking into account the cost of health benefits paid for by insurance companies.
- b) By measuring the benefits to society by including cost savings from avoided health costs.
- c) Taking the effects of an intervention and converting the effects into a dollar value and then compares the cost(s) to the benefit(s).
- 5. Total cost equation is:
- a) TC = TFC + TVC
- b) TC = TFC TVC
- c) TC = TFC/TVC
- d) $TC = TFC \times TVC$

16.10 LET US SUM UP

Cost analysis offers a highly useful method to ensure that matters of economic investment in education are handed efficiently. Through cost-effectiveness and cost-feasibility analyses, educators can systematically estimate cost ingredients for a program or policy in relation to effects of time, context and resources while monitoring unintended consequences. This approach is particularly appropriate to assessing the costs and outcomes of programs and policies supporting teacher effectiveness, such as changes to preparation programs, evaluation protocols, or professional development time. At a juncture where resources of people, time, and money are limited, it is essential to examine educational investments and their returns in both fiscal and non monetary terms. Policymakers and administrators need to accomplish educational goals resourcefully, balancing the most effective intervention with the most feasible course of action.

In sum, educational decision makers can make more informed decisions by considering the results of interventions, strategies, and practices in light of implementation costs. Resources such as Cost Out are increasingly becoming available to facilitate cost analysis.

16.11 LESSON END EXERCISE

- 1) How total cost analysis of an educational institution can be determined?
- 2) Discuss the challenges to the cost-effectiveness analysis?
- 3) What is the difference between Recurring and Non-recurring costs of education?
- 4) What is cost analysis? Why is it undertaken by the educational institutions?

16.12 SUGGESTED FURTHER READINGS

Cost effectiveness in education- Methodology, Examples, Use of cost-Effectiveness analysis. *Education encyclopedia*-stateuniversity.com

Belfield, C., Levin, H.M., Hollands, F., & Bowden, B. (2013). Cost-effectiveness in school education.

Dash, M. (2004). *Education in India: Problems and perspectives*. New Delhi: Atlantic Publishers and Distributors

Mohanty, J. (2005). *Educational administration, supervision & school management*, New Delhi: Deep&Deep publications (P) Limited.

16.13 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1-a, 2-b, 3-a, 4-c, 5-a
