Educational Management
DEDU503
EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT
# SYLLABUS

## Educational Management

**Objectives:**
To enable the learners to
(1) become effective manager of teaching/administration of education.
(2) be acquainted with the central and state machinery for educational administration and management.
(3) To enable the students to get some insight into supervision, inspection and know trends of development

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Unit 1: Educational Management: Concept, Nature and Scope, Difference between Administration and Management, Characteristics of Good Management

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Objectives
The objectives of this unit can be summarised as below:
• To explain about the Concept of educational management
• To discuss about the need of educational management
• To describe about the nature of educational management
• To discuss about the scope of educational management
• To discuss about the difference between management and administration
• To describe about the characteristics of good management.

Introduction
Educational management is a field of study and practice concerned with the operation of educational organizations. Educational management is centrally concerned with the purpose or aims of education. These purposes or goals provide the crucial sense of direction to underpin the management of educational institutions. Unless this link between purpose and management is clear and close, there is a danger of "managerialism...a stress on procedures at the expense of educational purpose and values". "Management possesses no super-ordinate goals or values of its own. The pursuit of efficiency may be the mission statement of management - but this is efficiency in the achievement of objectives which others define".
1.1 Concept of Educational Management

The origin of the development of educational management as a field of study began in the United States in the early part of the 20th century.

Development in the United Kingdom came as late as the 1960’s. Herding wrote a Practical handbook of School Management by Teachers. (1) Some General Principle of Management Applied to the Problems of School System Franklin Bobbit of the University of Chicago published an article in 1913. (2) Jesse Newton published Educational Administration as a Social Policy (1934). (3) Koopman et.al, wrote Democracy in School Administration (1934).

Meaning of Educational Management

Educational management operates in educational organizations. As Tony Bush (1986), puts its, “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.”

“School management, as a body of educational doctrine, comprises a number of principles and precepts relating primarily to the technique of classroom procedure and derived largely from the practice of successful teachers. The writers in the field have interpreted these principles and precepts in various ways, usually by reference to larger and more fundamental principles of psychology, sociology and ethics.” -Paul Monroe : (1913)

“Management implies an orderly way of thinking. It describes in operational terms what is to be done, how it is to be done, and how we know when we have done. Management is not an arcane mystique. It is a method of operation. Good management should result in an orderly integration of education and society” -Shelley Umuna : (1972)

1.2 Need of Educational Management

While writing about the purpose of educational management Kandel says, “Fundamentally the purpose of educational management is to bring pupils and teachers under such conditions as well as more successfully promote the ends of education. “Sir Graham Balfour writes very aptly, “the purpose of educational management is to enable the right pupils to receive to the right education from the right teachers, at a cost within the means of the state, which will enable pupils to profit by their learning.

In a democratic country like ours, educational management is a necessity. Some suitable, stable elements are properly motivated and organised in the machinery becomes necessary to withstand and survive the changes and upheavals caused because of change of Governments. Superior educational management in fact is so basic to the satisfactory functioning of democracy. Errors of judgement can be retrieved in a farm or factory but these can be fatal when we are concerned with the moulding or ideas and values of society. An efficient and sound system of educational management is, in fact the basis of a good democracy.

1.3 Nature of Educational Management

It is the management of educational institutions to foster teaching and learning. As a field of practice, it has some aspects in common with other fields of management, such as public administration, hospital administration and business management. As a field of study emerged first at the Teacher’s Training College of Columbia University and was followed shortly by graduate programme of Stanford University, University of Chicago and other institutions in the U.S.A. Indian Universities it had its place only in the 1670s. Since the 1950s educational tration has become a field of study in its own right. As an applied field it has much in common with other applied fields such as medicine, engineering, etc. It builds upon psychology, sociology, economics, political science and other behavioural sciences. For the part twenty to thirty years emphasis has increased on the development
of theory and research in educational management. Also has increased understanding of educational organization and the people working in them yet, there is much to be achieved.

With the beginning of 1970s a new era has emerged in the field of educational management. Changes have been taking place in all its aspects, conceptual as well as operational. At the conceptual level new terms, constructs and approaches are being introduced and used. Even the very nomenclature of the field seems to be changing. The terms educational management and educational organization are frequently being used in place of educational management.

(1) Dynamic Function

As a dynamic function, educational management has to be performed continuously, in an ever-changing environment. It is constantly engaged in the moulding of the enterprise. It is also concerned about the alteration of environment itself so as to ensure the success of the enterprise. Thus, it is a never-ending function.

(2) Practicability

The school management must not be a bundle of theoretical principles, but must provide practical measures to achieve the desired objectives. Whatever the objective that is decided must be made achievable and practicable to avoid frustration.

(3) Distinct Process

Management is a distinct process to be performed to determine and accomplish stated objectives by the use of human beings and other resources. Different forms of activities, techniques and procedures, the process of management consists of such functions as planning, organizing staffing, directing, coordinating, motivating and controlling.

(4) Needed at All Levels of the Organization

According to the nature of task and the scope of authority, management is needed at all levels of the organization, e.g., top level, middle level and supervisory level. Like the executive the lowest level supervisor has also to perform the function of decision-making in one way or another.

(5) System of Authority

Authority to get the work accomplished from others is implied in the very concept of management since it is a process of directing men to perform a task. Authority is the power to compel men to work in a certain manner. Management cannot work in the absence of authority since it is a rule-making and rule-enforcing body. There is a chain of authority and responsibility among people working at different levels of the organization. There cannot be an efficient management without well-defined lines of command or superior - subordinate relationships at various levels of decision making.

Management as an art

As an art, management is about carrying out organisational functions and tasks through people. This art involves the application of techniques in:

• human and public relations
• the delegation of an authority: assigning and sharing responsibilities and duties
• communication: including decision-making and problem-solving.
• managing change.

Management as a science

Management here is concerned with establishing a philosophy, laws, theories, principles, processes and practices which can be applied in various situations, including schools.
Management as an organisation
As an organisation, management is about creating formal structures and an establishment based on a mission (or goals), objectives, targets, functions and tasks. For example, social and welfare organisations in government management can refer to education and health services, whilst public security management services could refer to the police and military.

Management as a person
Managements may be seen as a person or a group of people. For example, a teacher could say ‘The school management has changed the timetable in the middle of the term’. This could be referring to you, as the head alone, or to all the senior staff, or it could refer to the members of the board of governors or school committee. In schools with several promoted staff a ‘senior management team’ might be formed in much the same way as a government has a cabinet of ministers.

Management as a discipline
In this sense, management is a field of study with various subjects and topics. Knowledge, skills and attitudes in management can be acquired through learning, from experience and from certificated courses.

The functions of managers
We will briefly examine five main functions of managers, namely: planning, organising, directing, supervising and evaluating.

Did you know?
Management is a collection of processes, including such things as decision-making, problem-solving and action-planning. These processes involve the management of resources including human, material, financial and time. These processes are also known as the functions of managers.

1.4 Scope of Educational Management
By scope, we mean the area within which functioning of educational management takes place. The scope of educational management today is as vast as that of education itself. Any activity conducive to the achievement of educational goal, is a part of educational management. Such activities could be at the school level, at the college level, at the university level or at the control level. Anything done to improve the quality of education at any stage may be ranging from the supply of material, human and financial resources to the highest cultural or academic needs-comes under the scope of educational management. Hence we shall consider the scope of educational management under the following heads.

(1) Goal Development: The educational system is a sub-system of a society, and therefore the society not only provides human and non-human resources but also certain expectations that the system of education will achieve certain goal. Since society is in a constant process of change, needs of the society change and so do the goal specifications. It is necessary for the educative process to be responsive to these changing expectations and it is through the educational management system that persons involved in the process of management can continuously examine, evaluate and change (if appropriate) the goals of education.

(2) Programme Planning and Actualization: According to the Oxford English Dictionary, Planning is “to design some actions to be done before hand”. Philips regards it is “the process of setting in advance a pattern of action to bring about overall national policies by the closest possible means and end.” Thus we can say that planning is the process of preparing a set of decisions
The essence of planning is the appraisal of as many operational alternatives as possible and then selecting the best for launching action. “Planning selects among alternatives, explores routes before travel begins and identifies possible or probable outcomes of actions before the executive and the organisation is committed to any.”

According to the Education Commission (1964-66) planning at the first two stages, i.e., national level and state levels alone suffers from some deficiencies such as (i) lack of emphasis on local issues in educational development, (ii) non-involvement of educational workers, and (iii) overemphasis on expenditure-oriented programmes. Planning at the local level, i.e. college level is only to offset these drawbacks. Planning at the college level does not mean that the principal or a few of the members of the faculty prepare the plan for various activities of the college. Instead it is a cooperative endeavour of all those who are involved in the implementation of the plans—not only members of the faculty, teaching and non-teaching, but even the students, the parents and the local communities must be associated while planning of the programmes.

The goals that are developed by the management system become the rationale for programme planning and actualization. Programmes represent the intended engagement opportunities for students who are to be educated. The responsibility for the planning and actualization of programmes rests with the management system. It is therefore essential that the management system should provide technological support to the educative process in the form of consultations and services. The management system should initiate, coordinate, provide services and to be a part of these activities.

(3) Organization: Organization has been a problem in the field of education. The debate over the control of education has over and again raised the salient issue of how educational machinery should be best organised, politically, professionally and administratively. Here too, as in several other vital areas, education is handicapped by tradition. If conventional biases and prejudices can be replaced by decisions made logically and scientifically, with the achievement of objectives as the only consideration modern principles and techniques of organization will provide a basis for effective distribution and co-ordination of functions.

1.5 Principles of Educational Management

A principle is a generally accepted truth, which is based on experience and the available information. Henri Fayol (1916) listed principles of management with regards to human activities. They were:

- division of work
- authority, responsibility and accountability
- discipline
- unity of command
- unity of direction
- centralisation; decentralisation
- scalar chain (the chain of command in an organisation)
- remuneration of personnel
- subordination of individual interest to general interest
- equity
- stability of tenure of personnel
- initiatives
1. **Fill in the blanks:**

(i) Educational management, comprises a number of principles and percepts of relating primarily to the techniques of _____.

(ii) Educational management is a _____.

(iii) According to the nature of the task, educational management is needed at all levels of the _____. e.g. top level, middle level and supervisory level.

(iv) Any activity conductive to the achievement of _____, is a part of _____.

1.6 **Difference between Administration and Management**

The difference between management and administration can be summarised under two categories

1. Functions
2. Usage / Applicability

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<th>Administration</th>
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<td>Management is an art of getting things done through others by directing their effort towards achievement of pre determined goals</td>
<td>It is Concerned with formulation of broad objectives, plans and policies.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nature</td>
<td>Management is an executive function.</td>
<td>Administration is a decision making function.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Process</td>
<td>Management decides who should as it &amp; how should he dot it.</td>
<td>Administration decides what is to be done and who it is to be done</td>
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<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>Management decides is doing function because managers get work done under their supervision.</td>
<td>Administration is a thinking function because plans and policies are determined under it.</td>
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<td>Skills</td>
<td>Technical and human skills.</td>
<td>Conceptual and human skills</td>
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<td>Level</td>
<td>Middle and lower level function</td>
<td>Top level function on the basis of Usage.</td>
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<th>Basic</th>
<th>Management</th>
<th>Administration</th>
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<td>Applicability</td>
<td>It is applicable to business concerns profit making organisation.</td>
<td>It is applicable to non business concerns, Clubs, Schools, Hospital etc.</td>
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<td>Influence</td>
<td>The management decisions are influenced by the values, opinions, beliefs &amp; decisions of the managers.</td>
<td>The administration is influenced by public opinion, govt. policies, religious organizations, customs etc.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Status</td>
<td>Management Constitutes the employees of the organization who are paid remuneration in the form of salaries and wages</td>
<td>Administration represents owners of the enterprise who earn return on their capital invested and profits in the forms of dividend</td>
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1.7 Characteristics of Good Management

The characteristics of successful school management are given in the following points:

1. Flexibility,
2. Practicability,
3. Conformity to the social and political philosophy of the country.
4. Efficiency.
5. Successful achievement of desired objectives.

The characteristics of school management details have been given following paragraphs:

1. **Flexibility**: One of the essential characteristics of successful school management is its flexible character. The manager should be dynamic, not static; it should provide enough scope for additions and alternations. The rules and regulations should act as a means to end and not an end in themselves. Dead uniformity and mechanical efficiency is the very antithesis of good administration. The framework of administration should provide enough scope to the administrator to help the needy student, and the needy teacher, to change the time schedule to suit the weather to meet any emergency. A word of caution here. Flexibility does not mean that the administration should be in a fluid condition without any specific norm or standard rules and regulations, creating confusion and chaos at every step. What is meant, is a proper balance between rigidity and elasticity.

2. **Practicability**: The school management must not be a bundle of theoretical principles, but must provide practical measure to achieve the desired objectives. Whatever objective is decided it must be achievable and practicable to avoid frustration.

3. **Conformity to the Social and Political Philosophy of the Country**: There must be close connection between school management and the social and political philosophy of a country. It must adjust itself to the impact of new ideals, new patterns and new moves of the society. In an autocratic country, educational theory and practice will have to be different form that of a democratic country because education is one of the means to achieve social and political objectives. American education is decentralised and democratised whereas Chinese education is characterised by regimentation due to political philosophies of the respective countries. In India, school administration has to be democratic because of political democracy in the country.

4. **Efficiency**: Successful management is that which result in maximum efficiency. This will be possible only when human and material resources are properly utilised—right man at the right place; right work at the right time, every activity and project are well planned and well executed.

5. **Successful Achievement of Desired Objectives**: Successful management is one which leads to the successful achievement of desired objectives of education in a particular community e.g., healthy social living, development of good physical, social, moral, intellectual and aesthetic qualities and healthy democratic living.

   School management must facilitate education. It exists for the pupil and its efficiency has to be measured by the extent to which it contributes to teaching and learning.

**Self Assessment**

2. State whether the following statements are ‘true’ or ‘false’.
   
   (i) Management is an executive function.
   
   (ii) Administration is an implementing function.
   
   (iii) Management is a middle and lower level function.
   
   (iv) Administration is a doing function because administrator get work done under their supervision.
   
   (v) Educational management must provide theoretical measures to achieve the desired objectives.
1.8 Summary

- Educational management operates in educational organizations.
- “School management, as a body of educational doctrine, comprises a number of principles and precepts relating primarily to the technique of classroom procedure and derived largely from the practice of successful teachers.
- “Management implies an orderly way of thinking. It describes in operational terms what is to be done, how it is to be done, and how we know when we have done. Management is not an arcane mystique. It is a method of operation. Good management should result in an orderly integration of education and society.
- In a democratic country like ours, educational management is a necessity. Some suitable, stable elements are properly motivated and organised in the machinery becomes necessary to withstand and survive the changes and upheavals caused because of change of Governments. Superior educational management in fact is so basic to the satisfactory functioning of democracy.
- An efficient and sound system of educational management is, in fact the basis of a good democracy.
- It is the management of educational institutions to foster teaching and learning. As a field of practice, it has some aspects in common with other fields of management, such as public administration, hospital administration and business management.
- Dynamic Function
   As a dynamic function, educational management has to be performed continuously, in an ever-changing environment.
- Practicability
   The school management must not be a bundle of theoretical principles, but must provide practical measures to achieve the desired objectives. Whatever the objective that is decided must be made achievable and practicable to avoid frustration.
- Distinct Process
   Management is a distinct process to be performed to determine and accomplish stated objectives by the use of human beings and other resources.
- Needed at All Levels of the Organization
   According to the nature of task and the scope of authority, management is needed at all levels of the organization.
- System of Authority
   Authority to get the work accomplished from others is implied in the very concept of management since it is a process of directing men to perform a task.
- Management as an art
- As an art, management is about carrying out organisational functions and tasks through people.
- Management as a science
- Management here is concerned with establishing a philosophy, laws, theories, principles, processes and practices which can be applied in various situations, including schools.
- As an organisation, management is about creating formal structures and an establishment based on a mission (or goals), objectives, targets, functions and tasks.
- Management as a person
• Managements may be seen as a person or a group of people. For example, a teacher could say ‘The school management has changed the timetable in the middle of the term’. This could be referring to you, as the head alone, or to all the senior staff, or it could refer to the members of the board of governors or school committee.

• Scope of School Management

• We mean the area within which functioning of educational management takes place. The scope of educational management today is as vast as that of education itself. Any activity conducive to the achievement of educational goal, is a part of educational management. Such activities could be at the school level, at the college level, at the university level or at the control level.

• Goal Development: The educational system is a sub-system of a society, and therefore the society not only provides human and non-human resources but also certain expectations that the system of education will achieve certain goal. Since society is in a constant process of change, needs of the society change an so do the goal specifications.

• Programme Planning and Actualization: According to the Oxford English Dictionary. Planning is “to design some actions to be done before hand”. Philips regards it is “the process of setting in advance a pattern of action to bring about overall national policies by the closest possible means and end.”

• Organization: Organization has been a problem in the field of education. The debate over the control of education has over and again raised the salient issue of how educational machinery should be best organised, politically, professionally and administratively.

• Principles of educational management

• Henri Fayol (1916) listed principles of management with regards to human activities. They were:

  • division of work
  • authority, responsibility and accountability
  • discipline
  • unity of command
  • unity of direction
  • centralisation ; decentralisation
  • scalar chain (the chain of command in an organisation)
  • remuneration of personnel
  • subordination of individual interest to general interest
  • equity
  • stability of tenure of personnel
  • initiatives

• The characteristics of successful school management are given in the following points:

  (i) Flexibility,

  (ii) Practicability,

  (iii) Confirmity to the social and political philosophy of the country.

  (iv) Efficiency.

  (v) Successful achievement of desired objectives.
1.9 Keywords

- **Management**: The act of running and controlling a business or organization
- **Enthusiasm**: A strong feeling of excitement and interest in something and a desire to become involved in it
- **Administration**: The activities that are done in order to plan, organize a business, Institution.

1.10 Review Questions

1. What is the meaning of Educational Management?
2. Why is the need of educational management?
3. What is the nature and scope of educational management?
4. What are the principles of educational management?
5. Give the difference between educational management and administration.
6. What are the characteristics of educational management?

 Answers: Self Assessment

1. (i) classroom procedures  
   (ii) never ending function 
   (iii) organization 
   (iv) Educational goal, educational management
2. (i) T  
   (ii) T 
   (iii) T 
   (iv) F 
   (v) F

1.11 Further Readings

Objectives

The objectives of this unit can be summarised as below:

• To explain about the educational management as a process
• To discuss about planning
• To describe about organising
• To explain about directing
• To discuss about Supervising
• To describe about Controlling
• To discuss about evaluation

Introduction

Management is a social process, responsible for the effective and economical planning and regulation of the operations of the organization. It consists of a number of sub-functions such as planning, decision-making, implementing plans and decisions, guiding other employees, integrating and motivating them, supervising the personnel, managing conflicts, and so on.

Who initiated this controversy in 1923. He regarded administration as that function of the industry concerned with the determination of the corporate policy, the coordination of finance, production and distribution, the settlement of the structure of the organization under the ultimate control of the executive. Manage is the function of the industry concerned with the execution of policy within the limits set-up by administration and the employment of the organization for the particular object before it. Florence and Tead also hold the same view. Contributing to the same view Spriegel says that administration is the ‘determinative function’ and management is ‘executive function’.

A growing number of educators have become interested in the study of educational futures, or as it is sometimes referred to, educational policy studies or policies research. Their forecasts vary, both in terms of the educational topics they choose to study and in terms of their actual projections.
Among the topics education futurists have selected for study and research are curriculum content (i.e., knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes), materials and methods; school and curriculum organization patterns; preserves and in-service education of teachers, schemes for financing public, private, and parochial schools; teachers organizations or unions, and salaries and benefits; student demographic characteristics; educational media and technology; politics and control of education; global, international education; functions of non-school educative agents, such as publishers, commercial television, families, and community agencies; and school buildings and other learning environments.

Managements may be seen as a person or a group of people. For example, a teacher could say ‘The school management has changed the timetable in the middle of the term’. This could be referring to you, as the head alone, or to all the senior staff, or it could refer to the members of the board of governors or school committee. In schools with several promoted staff a senior management team might be formed in much the same way as a government has a cabinet of ministers.

### 2.1 Educational Management as a Process

In this sense, management is a field of study with various subjects and topics. Knowledge, skills and attitudes in management can be acquired through learning, from experience and from certificated courses.

Management is a collection of processes, including such things as decision-making, problem-solving and action-planning. These processes involve the management of resources including human, material, financial and time. These processes are also known as the functions of managers.

There was limited needs of human being prior to development. A person fulfilled his needs of his own efforts, but now a person has large number needs which he can not satisfy his own. He has to take help of other. There are several types of organizations around us. Such as formal, informal, social, economic vocational, administrative, political, educational etc. An organization is group of individuals which has its definite objectives to be achieved by the joint efforts. There is need of management to integrate and to administer. The meaning of the term ‘manage’ the term ‘management’ in education is related of the following components.

1. Educational Planning.
2. Educational Organising
3. Educational Directing
4. Educational Controlling
5. Educational Evaluating

### Planning

Through the planning process the head aims to manage an efficient and an effective school. Efficient means using minimum resources to get maximum results on time. Effective means to achieve the set of objectives. The third part of the planning stage is thus to decide on an appropriate strategy.

### Organising

Organising involves putting in order of priority and preference the resources which are available. An Action Plan is needed in which actions and activities are scheduled. In order to give the plan ‘teeth’, targets are set. These targets should be quite easily attainable within a short period of time.

### Directing

The manager needs to direct the implementation of the plan. He or she should provide leadership by delegating duties and responsibilities to staff, and by motivating them. The directing process also involves co-ordinating and controlling the supply and use of resources.
Controlling

Control involves the human element. Men act under the pressure of power and authority, no doubt. But they act more by their own impulses, motives, like and dislikes, etc. Moreover individuals differ in their capacities and also in their reaction to the forces of power. The good manager realises the importance of the human element.

Evaluating

Evaluation seeks to provide better service. By constant appraisal of procedures, it suggests their modification in the light of experiences gained and to adjust the forces and methods accordingly. The manager should encourage self-appraisal by the workers so that they are able to judge the quality and quantity of their individual contribution to the group effort.

2.2 Planning

Planning is a method of approaching problems and as the later change and differ from time to time and situation to situation, planning should be continuous, dynamic and flexible. Their success depends upon other individuals understanding and willingness to cooperate, i.e., upon their identification of themselves with the activity, its purpose and its success. Planning for others does not bring. Good results, for the individuals keep themselves detached and unconcerned. Good administrators plan with others, their participation leads to identification and successful operation. A wise administrator stimulates group planning without dominating group decisions and actions.

Planning is useful because it clarifies what is to be accomplished. It saves time, effort and money and increases efficiency and effectiveness. It is, therefore, fundamental to the administrative process and a vital step in the enterprise. Democratic society is dynamic and changing for the better. Change is the law of nature and is bound to come. Evolutionary change is better than the revolutionary. It is necessary to bring about change is a smooth and orderly process. The alternative to planning is the trial-and-error approach, which is dangerous and wasteful. Planning is, therefore, indispensable. It requires future objectives, good perception and vision, and ability to profit from theoretical experience in advance of the fact.

Basic Principles of Planning

Basic principles of good planning:

1. It should be related to an intergrated with, the broad social planning for progress.
2. It should be based on extensive research to save it from subjectivity and conjectures.
3. It should look both to the present and the future.
4. It should solve the problems as they arise, so it should be realistic and practical and must be periodically reviewed and revised.
5. It should utilise all available resources.
6. It should be carried under favourable conditions, i.e, experts (without their domination).

Notes

As an organisation, management is about creating formal structures and an establishment based on a mission (or goals), objectives, targets, functions and tasks. For example, social and welfare organisations in government management can refer to education and health services, whilst public security management services, could refer to the police and military.
Educational Management of Teaching-Learning Process

This concept is based upon modern theory of organization. It is task and relationship-centred. This has two type of teaching activities:

First activity is to organize teaching learning situations and second activity is to perform teaching learning tasks. *Bertrand Russell* has pointed out these two teaching activities:

“First alter the position of matter at or near the earth’s surface, relative to other such matter: second is to tell other people to do so.”

He has described the four major activities which he performs in four steps: *Step I-Planning, Step II-Organizing, Step III-Leading, and Step IV-Controlling or Evaluating*. The design of teaching-learning system is prepared with the help of these steps. These steps include the following activities:

1. Analysis of the whole system.
2. Task analysis.
3. Entering behaviours the learner.
4. Specification of knowledge, skills and attitudes of the students.
5. Identifying the students-needs.
6. Formulation of learning objectives.
7. Organizing learning resources.
8. Selecting appropriate teaching strategies.
9. Encouraging and motivating students-activities.
10. Evaluation of teaching system.
11. Learning and teaching system.
12. Observing the learning system.
13. Modification in teaching-learning system.
14. Planning for the criterion test, and
15. Construction of criterion test.

These activities can be put under four steps of teaching-learning process.

**First Step : Planning :** Before going to the classroom, teachers analyse the content or topic into its elements which are arranged in logical sequence. He formulates his teaching objectives in behavioural terms. He selects the appropriate teaching strategies. This step consists of 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 14 and 15 activities of teaching learning process as given above list. Teacher must have knowledge and skill about these activities, then he may be able to solve the problems of learning system and can make his teaching effective. The planning is an important step of managing teaching learning.

**Second Step : Organizing :** This is the second step of managing teaching-learning process. The learning sources and organized by the teacher so that he can achieve the objectives successfully. The effective and economical resources are used. In this step learning environment and learning structures are generated by the teacher for realizing the learning objectives. The teacher has to take decision about teaching strategies, teaching aids and tactics of teaching. In this way, this step includes two major activities: 7-organizing learning resources and 11- learning and teaching system. This step requires the training of teaching skills and practising teaching skills, then the teacher can make his teaching effective. The main problem of this step is to integrate teaching and learning resources.

**Third Step : Leading :** The teacher’s task is to motivate the students-activities, In managing teaching-learning process, the teacher encourages and praises the students-activities and behaviours so that they can learn by being active and learning objectives can be achieved. The leading is an individual activity. The most important aspect is that, how does a teacher motivate his students in leaning process? The main task of teacher is to encourage, to guide and to observe the students activities so that the learning objectives may be achieved.
The leading step involves the various types of instructions and teaching tactics. The appropriate teaching tactics are selected by considering the learning situations. The teacher has to make use of his imagination, creativity and experiences.

In this way the leading step includes: activities 1. Selecting appropriate teaching strategies and 9. Encouraging and motivating the students-behaviour activities, the teacher should have practical knowledge and understanding about the theory of motivation and techniques of motivation. The students-needs are considered about taking decision for strategy of teaching and technique of motivation.

Fourth Step: Controlling: Controlling is also the duty of a teacher. Teaching is incomplete without this step. The teacher takes decision about the success of organizing and leading steps that how far these activities of teaching can be achieved the learning-objectives. If they cannot achieve the objectives successfully the teacher has to revise or modify his teaching activities of these step and has to apply again in teaching process.

This step includes: The following activities 10-evaluation of teaching system, 12 observing the learning system and 13-modifying the teaching-learning system. This step requires practical knowledge of measurement and evaluation strategies, only then the teacher evaluate the workability of organizing and leading activities. He should have the knowledge and skill for developing the criterion test.

*Davies* has given four steps of ‘managing teaching-learning system’ which include the following activities.

**Did u know?** I.K Davies and Thomas have given the new concept of management of teaching-learning. Davies calls the teacher as a manager because he has to organise teaching activities first and then he has to perform these activities in the teaching process.

**Procedure of Classroom Management**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Steps</th>
<th>Classroom Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>I-Planning</strong></td>
<td>1. System Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Task Analysis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Entering behaviour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Specification of knowledge, skills, and attitudes.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Identification of needs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. Formulation of objectives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. Criterion test.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>II-Organizing</strong></td>
<td>1. Organizing learning resources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Implementing teaching activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>III-Leading</strong></td>
<td>1. Selecting Communication strategies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>IV-Controlling</strong></td>
<td>1. Evaluation of teaching system.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Observing learning system.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Modification in teaching system.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Robert Glaser (1962) has developed a ‘Basic Model of Teaching’ which also consists of four steps. These steps are quite similar and involves the following activities:

*John P. Dececco* has designed his book, ‘The Psychology of Learning and Instruction’: ‘Educational Psychology’ on Glaser’s ‘Basic Model of Teaching’.

### Components of Basic Model of Teaching

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Steps</th>
<th>Classroom Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **I- Instructional Objectives** | 1. Formulation of instructional objectives.  
                                  2. Preparation-list of activities.  
                                  3. Task analysis. |
| **II-Entering Behaviour**   | 1. Defining entering behaviours.  
                                  2. The development of objectives and Measurement of intelligence.  
                                  3. Identification of motivation level.  
                                  4. Identifying social and learning conditions. |
| **III- Instructional Procedure** | 1. Determining the basic learning conditions.  
                                  2. Establishing integration between teaching and learning activities.  
                                  3. Selection of teaching principles.  
                                  4. Solution for teaching problems. |
| **IV-Performance Assessment** | 1. Determining criterion behaviour.  
                                  2. Construction of criterion test.  
                                  3. Evaluation of the characteristics of criterion test.  
                                  4. Providing the feedback to I, II, II steps. |

The chapters of this book deal with the activities involved in the above four steps. Similarly *Davies* has also written his book ‘Management of Learning’, which provides the detailed description of the four steps of the concept of ‘Managing Teaching Learning Process’.

![Diagram of Basic Model of Teaching](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instructional Objectives</th>
<th>Entering Behaviour</th>
<th>Instructional Procedure</th>
<th>Performance Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Task** What is leading? Explain.

### 2.3 Organising

It includes both the structures of the machinery process. Organisation, as a structure is a pattern of relationships. It is the positioning of the workers through whom effort will flow, i.e., the assignment of duties and responsibilities, the coordination and integration of activities of all the persons engaged...
in the pursuit, the tool for attaining the objectives. Persons, places and things have to the so arranged that effort flows freely towards the desired goals, and this is the process of organising. As a process, organising means directing and controlling the relationships between persons and persons and between persons and their work.

Organisation can be of two types:

1. **The Formal Organisation**: It is established by law and custom and the informal is the man-to-man relationship. The formal is concerned with positions, the informal with persons. Both these are important and inter-related. All individuals in the formal organization have their parallel roles in the informal.

2. **The Informal Organization**: It is the human factor and related to the reaction of persons to each other and to the activity.

A good establishes both formal and informal organisations. He should set up the formal in keeping with the requirements of the task and also develop informal to reinforce efforts and activities. A good organisation should be democratic, i.e., based on personal relationships, willing cooperation and active participation of all the persons involved. If power and control are not concentrated at the top but shared by all through actual participation. People are brought nearer together and effort integrated. In a good organisation, impetus and initiative for action come from the people themselves, and not imposed from above.

**Basic Principles of Organization**

The basic principle of good organisation:

1. It should not be static; organisation needs continuous reorganisation.
2. It should be flexible so as to improve both relationships and standards of efficiency.
3. It should be modified as and when educational theory advances, bringing in curricular and other changes. New challenges cannot be met with old machinery. But changes should be brought about slowly and with consultation and consent.
4. It should provide for participation in policy-making and other administrative activities by teachers, students, parents and community. Participation broadens and strengthens human relationships.
5. Organisational charts detailing “functions, jurisdictions, responsibilities, relationships, limits of authority, objectives and methods of measuring performance, etc.,” promote better understanding and larger output.

**Operating Functions**

It means executing or working out the plans in concrete and practical terms. In discharging this function, administration has to perform, besides others, three important tasks or responsibilities.

**2.4 Directing**

In the narrow or specific-sense, direction is only a part of the activity. It begins with the start of the act, indicates what is to be done and ends when the activity is over. In the broad general sense, direction means the responsibility for running a number of activities as a whole, in order to achieve certain result.

Direction depends on several factors, such as the prevalent circumstances, staff, equipment, finances, etc., as well as the knowledge and skill of the administrator. It needs coordination of all these factors. It may be that, in a particular situation, the administrator may want one thing, the public may want another, the staff may not be well-trained for either, and the resources may be inadequate for both. Lack of coordination may results in poor administration. Good direction means getting the best possible work done with the least possible expenditure of time, energy and money. For this, the
administrator should ensure that orders are clearly understood and faithfully followed. Written orders are better understood and remembered.

Direction is not merely to point the way, but also to compel action. Here comes the role of authority. The administrator has authority, knowledge and personality to give direction. For good results, he should respect these characteristics in the colleagues and subordinates and give direction and orders with regard to the dignity of the recipients. This ensures cooperation. Direction is best when it gives opportunities for wide participation. However, division of authority is not advisable when matters require prompt and specific decisions. So far as possible, direction should be given according to the wishes of those directed. Self-satisfied and Self-respecting individuals, doing their work with purpose, efficiency, Direction should contribute to the development of these attitudes, for they are the means of good work.

2.5 Controlling

It is the process of directing or guiding an activity and also judging it. It is closely related to the elements of the administrative process, such as planning, organisation, etc., and contribute to these elements. Control is the application of the power and authority to hold the workers responsible for their actions. Control is require in all spheres of the educative process, aims and objectives, teachers and students, instruction and equipment, finance and purpose, e.g., for control of finance we need the budget, accounts and auditing.

Aspects of Control : Control has four aspects — the power that controls, the device of using the power, the process of applying the power, and the purpose for using the power. For applying control, we first determine the point where it is needed. Then, we choose the form of power to be applied. Next, we decide about the device to be used, and finally, we evaluate or judge the results of control to see whether its purpose has been ful-filled. All the time we have to remember that the central purpose of control is to bring about improvement and to promote the realisation of the goals of education.

Control involves both power and devices. The power of control are legal authority social custom, superior knowledge of facts and principles and personal attitudes developed by professional training and ethics. The devices of control are many, such as policies, objectives, budgets, salaries, accounts, building, equipment, time-table, curriculum, methods rules and regulations, personal records, reports, promotion, etc. Each activity or situation has its own device of control. Thus, budget controls expenditure, philosophy and sociology, the aims and objectives and theories of learning control the methods of teaching. The various powers work generally in combination with each other and one or more devices and powers may be applied simultaneously. Educational activity is very complex, and so a large variety of devices and powers are needed for control.

2.6 Evaluating

It is an important part of the management process. It is based on the assumption that performance can be measured and compared with set standards or values. Evaluation permeates the whole administrative process and is continuous. It fosters the realisation of the aims and objectives of the process. As the administrative process starts, evaluation also starts. Its purpose is to make a captaincies appraisal, discover the weak points of the administrative process and rectify these by modifying the process.

Advantages of Evaluation

The following are the advantages :

(1) It is necessary to judge the effectiveness of the management, process in order to improve it. It should lead to continuous improvement by finding out what objectives are being fulfilled and how far. Thus, it is concerned with both quality and quantity, for it answers the questions “what values” ? And “how much”?
It should be remembered that workers do not appreciate appraisal when they feel their security and status are threatened. The administrator should recognise the impact of evaluation on people. He must use it only for its legitimate purpose—to improve the individual and the group, offer them psychological security, to help the organisation fulfil its purposes, measure its progress and public understanding and support.

Evaluation helps, improvement of human relationships. In the management process, the human climate is the most important. A critical analysis of the quality of human relationships in the organisation reveals the prevailing strains and tensions. Evaluation helps the administrator to diagnose the causes of these tensions and adopt quick measures to remove them by social conditioning.

Evaluation helps to secure public interest and cooperation. The administrator, staff and students are daily judging the effectiveness of their actions, but the community should also be given an opportunity to evaluate educational procedures. Their attitude and understanding should be appraised.

In this way, evaluation can be instrumental in convincing the people that education deserves the community’s cooperation, sympathy and support.

Evaluation involves the important question of criteria. Educational purposes are complex and difficult to define precisely. There is also a wide divergence of views regarding these purposes, making the task of evaluation more difficult. Thus, some people measure the results of education in terms of pass percentage, others in terms of degrees and diplomas, and still others in terms of incomes earned after education. But all these criteria are unsatisfactory. The most desirable criteria for evaluation of the administrative process should be in terms of the individuals and group’s understanding the purposes of their activities, their potentialities and participation in the process, appreciation of their own and other’s responsibilities, their inter-communication and utilisation of experiences to increase productivity, modification of procedures, creation of unity and cooperation and full integration of capacities, and above all the total effect produced by the educative process upon society as a whole.

Steps in Evaluation Process

(i) Formulation of objectives and purposes of evaluation in clear and definite terms. For this, we should answer the questions why, and what, we are going to evaluate.

(ii) Identification of the sources of the data. This is to answer the question what information and material are to be collected.

(iii) Development of methods for the collection of the data. This is to answer the question what instruments or tools of appraisal are to be used. The usually instruments are tests, rating scales, questionnaires, schedules, surveys observation and interviews, etc.

(iv) Interpretation of the results obtained in the light of the objectives and purposes. For this, group discussion would be found more useful.

(v) Integration and summarising of the results. The best possible judgement should be formed and the findings or recommendations should be in a form easy for application for future improvement.

Self Assessment

1. Fill in the blanks:
   
   (i) Educational management is a collection of __________.
   
   (ii) ____________ is a method of approaching problems and it saves time, effort and money.
   
   (iii) The ____________ is established by law and custom.
   
   (iv) ____________ depends on several factors such as the prevalent circumstances, staff equipment, finances etc.
2.7 Summary

- Management is a collection of processes, including such things as decision-making, problem-solving and action-planning. These processes involve the management of resources including human, material, financial and time. These processes are also known as the functions of managers.

- Planning is a method of approaching problems and as the later change and differ from time to time and situation to situation, planning should be continuous, dynamic and flexible. Their success depends upon other individuals understanding and willingness to cooperate.

- Planning is useful because it clarifies what is to be accomplished. It says time, effort and money and increases efficiency and effectiveness.

- Basic principles of good planning:
  (i) It should be related to an integrated with, the broad social planning for progress.
  (ii) It should be based on extensive research to save it from subjectivity and conjectures.
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- He has described the four major activities which he performs in four steps: Step I-Planning, Step II-Organizing, Step III-Leading, and Step IV-Controlling or Evaluating.

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- First Step : Planning : Before going to the classroom, teachers analyse the content or topic into its elements which are arranged in logical sequence. He formulates his teaching objectives in behavioural terms. He selects the appropriate teaching strategies.

- Second Step : Organizing : This is the second step of managing teaching learning process. The learning sources and organized by the teacher so that he can achieve the objectives successfully. The effective and economical resources are used. In this step learning environment and learning structures are generated by the teacher for realizing the learning objectives.

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• **The leading step** involves the various type of instructions and teaching tactics.

• Fourth Step : Controlling : Controlling is also the duty of a teacher. Teaching is incomplete without this step. The teacher takes decision about the success of organizing and leading steps that how far these activities of teaching can be achieved the learning-objectives.

• The new concept of management of teaching-learning. *Davies* calls the teacher as a manager because he has to organise teaching activities first and then he has to perform these activities in the teaching process.

• It includes both the structures of the machinery process. Organisation, as a structure is a pattern of relationships. It is the positioning of the workers through whom effort will flow, i.e., the assignment of duties and responsibilities, the coordination and integration of activities of all the persons engaged in the pursuit, the tool for attaining the objectives.

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• Control has four aspects — the power that controls, the device of using the power, the process of applying the power, and the purpose for using the power. For applying control, we first determine the point where it is needed.

• Control involves both **power** and **devices**. The power of control are legal authority social custom, superior knowledge of facts and principles and personal attitudes developed by professional training and ethics.

• Control involves the **human element**. Men act under the pressure of power and authority, no doubt.

• Evaluating Functions

• It is an important part of the administrative process. It is based on the assumption that performance can be measured and compared with set standards or values. Evaluation permeates the whole administrative process and is continuous.

• Advantages of Evaluation
Notes

• The following are the advantages:
• It is necessary to judge the effectiveness of the administrative process in order to improve it. It should lead to continuous improvement by finding out what objectives are being fulfilled and how far. Thus, it is concerned with both quality and quantity,
• Evaluation helps, improvement of human relationships. In the administrative process, the human climate is the most important. A critical analysis of the quality of human relationships in the organisation reveals the prevailing strains and tensions.
• Steps in Evaluation Process
(ii) Formulation of objectives and purposes of evaluation in clear and definite terms. For this, we should answer the questions why, and what, we are going to evaluate.
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(iii) Development of methods for the collection of the data. This is to answer the question what instruments or tools of appraisal are to be used. The usually instruments are tests, rating scales, questionnaires, schedules, surveys observation and interviews, etc.

2.8 Keywords

• Values : beliefs about what is right and wrong.
• Evaluate : To form an opinion of the amount, value of something about it carefully.
• Autocracy : a system of government, country, school or organization.

2.9 Review Questions
1. Discuss the Educational “planning” and “organizing”.
2. Explain the term directing.
3. What is controlling?
4. Describe the formal and informal organization
5. Explain the Educational management of teaching learning process.

Answers : Self Assessment

1. (i) Processes (ii) Planning (iii) Formal organization
   (iv) Direction (v) Power, devices (vi) Evaluation
   (vii) Informal organisation

2.10 Further Readings

Books

Unit 3: Management at Different Levels-Elementary, Secondary, Higher Education

Contents

Objectives
Introduction
3.1 Meaning of Management of an Institution
3.2 Characteristics of Institutional Plan
3.3 Aims and Objectives of Institutional Planning
3.4 Management at Elementary Level Education
3.5 Management at Secondary Level Education
3.6 Management at Higher Level Education
3.7 Records
3.8 Lesson Plan
3.9 Laboratory
3.10 Library
3.11 Role of Head in School or College Activities
3.12 Summary
3.13 Keywords
3.14 Review Questions
3.15 Further Readings

Objectives

The objectives of this unit can be summarised as below:

• To explain about the meaning of management of an institution
• To discuss about the characteristics of institutional plan
• To describe about the aims and objectives of institutional planning
• To discuss about the management at elementary level education
• To describe about the management at secondary level education
• To discuss about the management at higher level education
• To explain about records and lesson plan
• To discuss the role of Head in institutional activities.

Introduction

Institutional management is an attempt to organize resource for the attainment of a chosen goal. In other words, it is purposeful action. Educational planning like other planning “implies the taking of decision for future action with a view to achieving predetermined objectives through
the optimum use of scares resources.” Hence it implies three important stages-taking of decision, working for predetermined objectives, and the fulfillment making optimum use of the resource available both physical and human.

Planning and evaluation are linked together in two ways. One is that planning itself is an educational process and second is that the fruits of planning can yield results only when the people are educated to make full use of the increased means of production and understand the objectives of planning and try consciously to achieve them. In the field of education, planning is needed in teaching, in organization, in administration in business etc. It helps in systematizing, in administration in business etc. It helps in systematizing the work and fixing up aims and objectives of planning. “Each institution will have to learn to plan development on its own line within the broad framework of National Policy on Education.”

To create a planning atmosphere in each institution the Indian Education Commission (1964-66) has recommended institutional planning for this purpose. Each institution should have its own long-term and short-term purpose. Thus plans can be initiated, formulated and implemented by individual educational institution throughout the country.

3.1 Meaning of Management of an Institution

When a plan is prepared by a particular institution on the basis of its own development and improvement, we call it institutional plan. Some eminent authorities have defined institutional planning in the following way.

A programme of development and improvement prepared by an educational institution on the basis of its felt needs and the resources available or are likely to be available, with a view to improving the school programme and school practices constitute a plan for an institution. The plan may be for a longer duration or a shorter duration. —W.M. Buch

If education does not bring in always something which is new, it is not different form traditions. I think the whole notion of institutional planning is based on this idea that at every stage right from the school to the topmost level in the field of education constant effort has to be made in order that we don’t have new ideas for the sake of new ideas but in order that we can do a better job with whatever resources we have at our command. —Dr. Shib K. Mitra

Institutional planning is a milestone in the journey towards the improvement of education. The teacher is the kingpin in any educational effort. It is for the first time that the teaching community is being asked to act as the planner and executor of educational improvement. —E. W. Franklin

3.2 Characteristics of Institutional Plan

It is a fact of experience that no two schools can be identical in their needs and requirements. Hence every schoo will have to prepare an institutional plan for itself independently. An ideal school plan will have the following characteristics.

1. It should be need based. It should be prepared according to the needs of the institution and not on the basis of grants sanctioned.
2. It should aim at the maximum use of the available human and material resources.
3. It should be a ‘plan of work’ and not a charter of demands. In other words, it must aim at utilizing what is available and not demanding what is not available and/or is available to more fortunate schools.
4. 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.
5. If, at all, it needs more finance, the same should be available from the local community which must be a party to the preparation of the school plan.

6. It should be based on certain ‘predetermined objectives’ and goals and all activities planned should help directly or indirectly to achieve these ends.

7. The plan should have a well-defined and finely classified activities for the school improvement and school development.

8. It should be flexible in nature so that at various stages of its implementation changes may be effected according to needs and requirements. How-so-ever brilliantly a plan may be prepared, there can be some unforeseen circumstances which may, later on, force an amendment.

9. It should only further the cause of education-its quality and quantity and should not criticize and condemn the approach of the district authorities or the directorate of education.

10. It should be in consonance with the district educational plan and should in no-case run contrary to it.

11. It should be neither too ambitious to be implemented nor too modest to make any appreciable improvement. It should, therefore, be working plan based on the capacity of teachers, the needs of the students and the local community.

12. It should clearly indicate the time limit for its implementation. It can be a short term one or a long term one depending upon the circumstances and needs of the school.

13. It should have a plan of evaluation also, so that the result of the efforts could be evaluated after some intervals, say every years.

14. It should have a balanced approach so that it does not towards academics or out of class activities alone. The principal has to play a very important role as a coordinator.

### 3.3 Aims and Objectives of Institutional Planning

Each institution should prepare the plan on the basis of the following characteristics;

1. On the academic side institutional planning should aim at.
   
   (a) Qualitative improvement.
   
   (b) Providing more amenities to
       
       (i) the teacher
       
       (ii) the students and
       
       (iii) the local community.
   
   (c) Maintaining if not improving the educational standard if the number of students increases in the school and.
   
   (d) reducing and even eliminating the incidence of wastage and stagnation.

2. On the skill side it should aim at:
   
   (a) cultivating a liking for gardening, craft, interior and exterior decoration.

3. On the attitude side it should aim at:
   
   (a) promoting better relationship between the students and the teachers on the one hand, the teachers, and the parents on the other.
   
   (b) Inspiring the teachers to give their best to the students in particular and the school in general.
   
   (c) developing a taste in the students for dramatics, athletics and hobbies.
   
   (d) creating a felling of belongingness the institution in both the students and teaches.
4. On the economic side it should aim at:
   (a) reducing the cost of education per student by making the optimum utilisation of existing resources.
   (b) tapping all the economic resources of the local community.
   (c) procuring all possible plan and non-plan, recurring and non recurring grants from the government agencies.
   (d) receiving all possible help from the philanthropic associations in the form of scholarships for the students, book aid and amenities like the water cooler, the public address instruments etc.

5. If it is a newly started school, the first aim should be to give a firm footing to it. But if it is an old and established one, the main objectives would be to review and if need be, to redefine its philosophy.

6. On the political side it should aim at developing democratic attitude the teachers and the students.

**Areas of Institutional Planning**

1. Administration:
   A number of projects can be taken up to improve administration, for instance, developing procedures to increase the effectiveness of staff meetings; Improving supervision; Improving Principal-Faculty Relations; Improving Staff relations; Democratic organization of school giving main responsibility to pupils.

2. School-Community relations:
   Utilizing community resource for better learning in different subjects; Arranging talks by commune members etc.

3. Academic:
   Improving reading habits through a planned use of library; Improving internal examinations; Reducing wastage and stagnation; Assistance to retarded students: Education of the gifted; Use of bulletin board for improved teaching.

4. Co-curricular Activities:
   Trying out different ways of organising co-curricular activities; Better use of leisure by teachers as well as students; Trying out new programmes in school assembly; Promoting student interests in school activities; Developing hobbies among students and so on.

5. Discipline:
   Finding out ways for removing various evils like truancy, stealing etc: Projects in democratic organisation of school giving more responsibility to pupils; Mock Parliament in school etc.

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**Caution**
A word of caution for a principal hers is necessary. If there is no resistance for the teachers and all of them surrender to the idea, it may prove to be as a bad omen and never and good one.

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**3.4 Management at Elementary Level Education**

An Elementary school is the basic need of our society. This is the first level of Education. Management of Education at this level is not an easy task. There are different categories in which management is necessary. Without proper management, it is very difficult to implement all the educational plans. Here we will discuss all the things in which we need management at this level of Education.

**3.4.1 School Infrastructure**

School building and management is a major part of Educational management. There are various things which we will discuss in the following heads.
A school building must be excellent, spacious functional and with pleasing architectural features. "Buildings are to education as body is to the mind." "A sound mind can only be there in a sound body." It is the statement; "A fine building makes a fine school and a poor building a poor one." School should be housed in beautiful buildings, which are not only stimulating centres of education for children but also vital centres of community life. The American Association of School Administrators has suggested the following seven principles for planning a school plant building:

1. **Curriculum adequacy**: The institution must be planned to provide the facilities necessary for the efficient and effective accommodation of all the phases of the curricular, co-curricular and community activities for which the plant is intended.

2. **Safety and well-being**: The school should be so planned as to protect the comfort health and safety of pupils, teachers, and all who will use its facilities. Lighting, heating and ventilating should be in accordance with the best practices.

3. **Interfunctional co-ordination**: Each unit or portion of a plant may be well-planned for its specific purpose, yet if the units are not put together with respect to their mutual relationships, the plant, as a whole, will be unsatisfactory. For example, certain rooms, because of their association, should be planned ensuite. The noisy units should be located, so as not to interfere with quite zones.

4. **Efficiency and Unity**: The school plant should be planned and assembled in a manner that will promote efficient school management and convenience of pupils and the public in its use.

5. **Beauty**: The entire school plant should be cheerful, attractive and pleasing.

6. **Adaptability**: A school plant should be planned for economical future adaptations to changing requirements.

7. **Economy**: A school plant should be economical in its original cost, upkeep and operation.

Any material — metal, glass or kacha material, all should be universally adopted to the uses of young life growing up in sunlight and cherishing the ground as its native birthright. Low initial cost, functionality, durability, appearance, acoustical properties cost of maintenance and low operational costs should decide the type of building.

3.4.2 **The School Office**

The school office is the nerve centre of the school plant where various records, reports and registers are stored, where the important matters of administrative policy are discussed and where the visitors are received. It serves as a ‘home-base’ for the principal, ‘professional centre’ for the school staff, and the ‘service-centre’ for the entire school. It is fulcrum around which the whole of the school rotates. On its efficient organisation and management depends the efficient administration of the entire school.

**Functions of the School Office**

1. **Up-to-date file of data about the children**: Teachers should be free from the onerous task of book-keeping wherever possible. The clerk should be mainly responsible for book-keeping, so that teachers energies may be released for the creative job of guiding the development of children.
Notes

2. **Setting up the actual schedules**: Every school has to establish certain schedules for the control of such materials and spaces as the Assembly-Hall, Music Room, Laboratories, Workshops, Visual education equipment, text books, supplies etc. After the teachers have determined the ways by which they desire these to be handled, the office can take the responsibility of setting up the actual schedules. The office can circulate the blank schedules for the use of different faculties, get the teachers comments, get the principal’s final approval, prepare a master copy of the schedule, duplicate it or type it so that each teacher could have a copy for constant reference. Thus office can act as a service agency.

3. **Making up supply order and doing the actual purchasing**: Let each teacher determine his own needs, all of which may be sent to office and compiled as a total list of needs for the school. This compilation may be examined by the staff to determine whether the total is within the limits set for such expenditures. Any cuts in amounts or kinds of material may be co-operatively agreed upon by all teachers. Thus the approved revised list may be sent to the office for ordering. It is the responsibility of the office to order the goods, and deliver the goods to the individual teachers. Thus the office can also act as a central collecting and distributing agency.

4. **Help teachers in survey tests**: After the teachers have agreed upon The kind of testing programme they desire and have selected the test appropriate to their purposes, the actual task of ordering and distributing the tests can be handled by the office. The office can help the teacher perform his or her tasks with a minimum of clerical labour.

5. **Help in duplication or typing of teacher-made materials**: Modern school techniques include the use of teachers made materials, materials that are made specially for an actual group of children, based on their present needs. The office can prove useful here as well. New materials, assignments etc. can be duplicated by the school office. In this way, office can help in good teaching practices as well.

6. **Help in acquainting the community with the work of the school through desirable publicity programmes**: Copy of newspaper releases, brochures depicting the work of the school, notices sent home with children announcing school functions, invitations to parents and patrons to visit the school are some of the ways by which the office can lighten the burden of the teacher. Whenever the school needs to communicate with the outside world, the school office should supply the technical facilities.

The school clerk can be assigned the following duties:

1. Office work.
2. Correspondence.
3. Maintenance of records.
4. Typing and duplicating.
5. Banking and accounts.
7. School Meals.
8. First Aid.

The clerk should be trained in these jobs.

**Filing Systems**

The different letters, papers and reports have to be filed in such a careful manner that the documents are available at a moment’s notice when required.

1. **The Flat File System**: It is very useful for some schools. The files are kept in a wooden-box with a number of drawers—one drawer is used for two or three alphabets. The names of files in each drawer are pasted on one side of the box.
2. **The Vertical File System**: It is generally adopted in schools. All materials pertaining to a subject are filed together. The files are arranged in alphabetical order and there is an alphabetic index. A number of compartments in the office rack may be labelled according to the nature of the problem e.g. “Urgent”, “Deferred”, “Immediate”, “Reports from teachers” and so on. This will facilitate handling cases according to priority.

**The School Farm**

**Principles of farm Management**

"It is a fundamental error to suppose that farming is neither a business nor a profession. It is a business which requires the highest business talent; it is a profession which requires the best technical skill. No other profession requires such a variety of learning, such an insight into Nature and such a skill of technical kind in order to be successful as the profession of farming."

It is necessary that 10 acres of land are attached with every school and this farm is easily accessible. The work of the farm demands system. A specific decision must be made by the teacher about economic organisation and operation of the farm. He must decide about the kinds and amount of resources to use and the products to produce. He must know how to get the work done; sequence of operation; how much time to devote to each job and the method of doing the same. Farming is concerned directly with ‘lie’ and ‘layout’ of the land, water-
Notes

supply, soil management, farm equipment, seeds, manure, marketing of the products etc. In farming, the major factor which matters is ‘nature’. Nature will neither be forced nor driven, and is very often very hard to be led, but will do wonders when properly assisted. It is for this reason, scientific planning and management is important. Good management can ensure continuous profits consistent with the welfare of the school.

3.5 Management at Secondary Level Education

Secondary Schools play a very important role in every student. Students spend their most crucial and adolescence years in it, so there are different needs and different aspects as according to their course choices, interests etc.

All the things are same, in school and class structure but, some important buildings like laboratories, libraries, gymnasium are on addition. Here we will discuss them.

3.5.1 Different Types of Designs for Secondary Schools

Following types of designs are in vogue for secondary schools in our country:

1. The I type—consisting of a row of class-rooms.
2. The L type—I type with an extension on one side.
3. The T type—I type with extension on one side both ways.
4. The U type—Two I’s joined on one side.
5. The E Type, and
6. The H type.

Figure: E-TYPE Design

Any one of the above six types can be selected for a Middle or High school which does not need more than 25 rooms. The selection depends upon following factors:

1. The size and shape of the site.
2. The number of rooms needed.
3. The possibility of future expansion.

If more expansion is expected, we can select H type as expansion will be possible by lengthening the vertical side-rooms. At the same time, erecting the second storey will not entail much difficulty.
The above types of designs will not suit a multipurpose school which is supposed to provide a number of elective groups and a number of departments like the science section, the technology section, the art section, the commerce section, the agriculture section, the humanities section. A full-fledged residential multipurpose school also needs an extension campus, the hall, the hostel, the staff quarters, the agricultural farm, play-grounds etc.

School Architecture
An ideal school building should be planned spaciously, functionally and with pleasing architectural features. It should stand out in the village or city as something of which the local community can be proud of.

Essential Qualities
1. Simple but elegant and beautiful design.
2. Low cost.
3. Comprehensive Plan: A comprehensive plan is necessary in which function and space are so harmonised that the soil from which the synthesis grows, will be enriched by such a pattern.
4. Maximum Utility: It must give the maximum utility to the pupils, as regards accommodation protection from weather maximum light, maximum ventilation, free movement and comfortable stay in the room for longer hours.
5. High standard Material: The material used for the building must be of high standard to enable them to stand the great load put on its use.

Solutions to Shortage of Accommodation
1. Reducing the Cost: Following studies have been made in our country for, reducing the cost of building:
   (i) Studies made by Committee on Plan Projects in Delhi. The conclusions of this study are found in Reports on Delhi School Buildings, 1960 and Reports on Primary School Building in Delhi, 1963.
   (ii) Study done by Central Building Research Institute in Roorkee University.
   (iii) Study made by a committee of the Ministry of Education in their brochure, Planning Schools for India, 1959.

   These studies show that the total cost of an elementary school building can be reduced by paying attention to the follws,
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(i) Proper space requirements.
(ii) Proper design and specifications.
(iii) Use of local material.

Simpler the design, less the cost. Ornamental designs resulting in unnecessary cost, should be avoided. Rectangular designs of rooms with open verandah on one side is, economical. A two storeyed building is less costly than one storeyed building, as there is no cost of laying the foundations.

Attempt should be made to make the design economical as well as beautiful. The designs of primary and secondary schools at Chandigarh designed by La Corbusier who designed Chandigarh, combine the essential qualities of maximum beauty with minimum labour and cost.

(2) Raising Funds: Funds shall have to be raised by the following methods for providing the minimum essential of built-up space:

(i) Loans: The loan system has been tried with success in Bombay. The Government of Bombay took over the responsibility of maintaining the provident fund accounts of all the elementary teachers, and advanced loans to local authorities for building purposes out of the provident fund amounts. The total deduction of G.P. Fund amounted to Rs. 80 lacs per annum. The loans were given through District School Building Committees. The success of the scheme can be very well estimated by finding that between 1952 and 1961 Rs. 250 lacs were advanced as loans, and 10,000 new class-rooms were built and special repairs were done to 1,200 class-rooms.

(ii) Donations: The philanthropists from the local area can be approached to lend a helping hand in constructing school buildings by giving rent free accommodation and accommodation on nominal rent for school purposes. The community can be approached for help in cash, kind and labour.

(iii) Non-Lapsable Funds: The method of raising a non-lapsable fund was tried by Bombay State. A primary school building’s fund was created in each district. All the grants and loans and public donations were credited into it. The fund remained permanently and there was no usual risk of annual grant, being lapsed.

3.5.2 Class-Rooms in School Plant

In a secondary school each section of students should have a room, though, two sections or more can be accommodated in one big room designed to seat about 70 pupils. Some rooms should accommodate as many as 70 and others 30 — 40 students. About one fourth to one fifth of the rooms should be larger and smaller than the average.

All class-rooms should be workshops or learning laboratories. Each room should have its individual character. The new tendency is to have a larger period, a portion of which is to be utilized for directed study. There is also a tendency towards more informal small group activities and therefore, more space is needed for books, reference books etc. Twenty-five to 35 sq. ft. of space per pupil is desirable. The class-rooms should be further provided with adequate storage cabinets, shelves and filing cases for teaching supplies, materials and books. Sufficient tack board at eye level and black board should be provided for the teaching programmes.

The class-room should present a pleasant and inviting look. The walls should be painted with some light colour. The rooms should be tastefully decorated. Rooms with northern and eastern light should have warm colours such as red, yellow, orange, etc. Rooms with southern and western light should have cool colours such as green blue and certain compositions of grey. In dark coloured wall-rooms, ceiling should be white, in others, it should be cream coloured.
The walls of the room should be utilized to the fullest advantage. One wall should have writing surface throughout its length, and green is preferable to black because the latter causes glare. One wall should have wooden surface covered with flannel for pinning notices, news sheets, charts, maps etc. The other walls should have built-in cup-boards for keeping books, equipment and other teaching aids. The class-room should have one door opening outside.

**Requirements of a Classroom**

1. **Space** : A classroom needs plenty of area, lighting, ventilation, furniture of good taste and decoration of atmosphere. A room should be large enough to accommodate 40 to 45 pupils. The dimensions should be 22 x 23. The Secondary Education Commission recommends that with a view to establishing personal contact between the teacher and the taught and to exert a wholesome influence on the pupils the optimum number that should be admitted to any class should be 30 and the maximum should not exceed 40. On general principle each pupil must have a space of ten square feet. The height of the room must not be beyond 15 feet. A very high room will mean more cost without any commensurate advantage in the educational effort. Moreover, a very high room is hard to ventilate or decorate easily.

2. **Lighting** : Proper means of lighting should be provided. Every room should be well-lighted. Light should be well diffused and should not fall directly on the eyes of the students. It should come from the left. Where light from the left is not possible, light from the right may be allowed. Direct front light will be injurious. The desks, therefore, should be arranged in such a manner so to take full advantage of light coming from the left; otherwise the light will either shine in the teacher’s face or dazzle the children. The colour of the walls also should not tax the eyes of the students.

3. **Ventilation** : Ventilation can be done by natural and artificial methods. Natural ventilation depends upon natural forces while artificial ventilation is brought above by the use of fans etc.

4. **The Blackboard** : The blackboard is a very necessary equipment of the class-room and a handy apparatus in hands of a teacher. A teacher who does not use the blackboard properly is not a good teacher. There are usually two types of blackboards — wall blackboards and easel blackboards. The latter are better as they can be moved to any part of the room and their angle changed to suit the light. The blackboards should never be placed between windows. Its back should not be towards the light, otherwise the surface would be dark and it will tax the eyes of the students in trying to read what is written on the blackboard. The blackboard should be either black or green in colour.

5. **Furniture** : The Secondary Education Commission observes : The whole of the furniture and equipment of a school can be divided into two sections—movable and immovable. The latter are usually provided during the courses of the building and since they are fixtures, great care should be given to their design. Movable furniture should be given equal thought and because it can be moved, there can be variety in design, the school furniture and equipment is a very prominent feature in the child’s environment. It should be pleasing the design and efficient in function.

The child spends a good deal of time at desk, it is but obvious that right postures can be maintained only when good seats are provided. A comfortable child will pay more attention and concentration to his work.

The following points should be borne in mind while providing furniture to the students in the classroom :
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(i) There should be as far as possible single desks with slight slope towards the seat.
(ii) The seat should be supported by a back.
(iii) The maximum length of the desk should be twelve feet.
(iv) The desks should be suited to the size of the students.
(v) The desks should not be arranged more than six-rows deep.
(vi) 18 of space should be provided to each pupil.
(vii) There should be sufficient space between the row of desks as well as between desks and walls so as have free movement.

The class-room should have not only space for good study but adequate space for using maps, charts, pictures, specimens, models, exhibits, reference books, tools, craft materials, experiment apparatus and the like. Every instructional room should provide a healthful living and working environment for pupils and teachers.

Special Rooms

1. Library and Reading Room: Library is the hub of the academic life of a school. With the new techniques of teaching, library should be the centre of the school educational programme. When resources permit, reading room should be separate from the library hall, otherwise the square hall preferably 24 × 80 sq. ft. can serve both the needs. The secondary school library should be easily accessible to all class-rooms and near those departments that use it most, but remote from centres of noisy activities, such as the street or athletic field.

2. Assembly Hall: The hall can be used as a multi-purpose room, as an auditorium with a combination of functions such as gymnasium and refreshment room, or as the audio-visual room. Its size will be determined by the local needs, but the hall should have a suitable stage of not less than 20 by 30 feet with green rooms and other equipment and furnishings. It should be located on the ground floor and possibly in a wing isolated from the quieter areas to ensure safety of crowds, easy access for both pupils and the public, reduced sound interference and accessibility to parking.

3. Medical Examination Room: Every secondary school should have a room set aside for medical and dental services, equipped with running water and electric power outlets.

4. The Office Room: To serve as a good co-ordinating centre for the school. The office room should be centrally located. It should be easily accessible to visitors, teachers and pupils. A good office in a large secondary school requires four things:
   (i) A room for the Headmaster:
   (ii) A waiting room for the visitors:
   (iii) An office room for the clerk, and
   (iv) A store room with shelves and wall cupboards for office and educational files.
   Alternatively a part of the Headmaster’s room may be used for receiving visitors while office and educational files may be stored in wall cupboards in the clerk’s room.

The school office should be equipped with modern equipment. It should have timesaving devices as the type-writer, duplicating machine, desk calendar and rubber stamps, clock for the bell system storage space for instruction and office supplies. They must be telephone, book-keeping machine, sorting equipment and computing machines etc. A fire proof vault or safe is a ‘must’ in every office for the safe keeping of cash and confidential records.

5. Staff Room: A room should be made available to teachers where they can meet each other, may work together or individually. It should have cupboards in the walls or lockers may be there where the teachers may keep their things.
6. **Storage and Supply Rooms**: Some rooms should be provided for storing the tools, unused furniture, laboratory, workshop and office equipment athletic supplies etc. These stores should be at a fairly safe place.

*The School Play-Grounds*

The play ground and few other smaller areas for different games are as important for educational purpose as school building with their class-rooms and other paraphernalia. When play is to be accepted to be the natural agency for the education of the child up to the age of puberty, then school must have playgrounds for activities, games or projects which can be conducted only in the open. Hence schools must provide open spaces garden plots areas, sufficient ground spaces under shady trees and so on for different types of school work.

### 3.6 Management at Higher Level Education

Colleges or higher education institution are made for giving job oriented information, they prepare students in a particular field in a specialized way. So many things are same as secondary schools and some are different.

#### 3.6.1 College Structure

There is no big difference between secondary school and college building structure, but as the college has different faculties, a huge quantity of students of various courses, there is larger and bigger building structure.

There is big laboratories as compared to schools, big halls, theatres, music rooms, as according to the courses in which they enroll.

#### 3.6.2 Classroom structure

Rooms are big and airy in which students of college may study in a better environment.

**Self Assessment**

1. *Fill in the blanks :*
   
   (i) Management of educational institution should be ______.

   (ii) The school must be planned to provide the _____ necessary for efficient and effective accommodation.

   (iii) The office room should be ______ to serve as good Co-ordinating centre for the school.

   (iv) The _____ and equipment is a very prominent feature in the child’s environment.

   (v) In a secondary school the window area should not be less than ______ of the floor area.

   (vi) ______ can be done by natural and artificial methods.

### 3.7 Records

**Concept of School Records**

In the school the emphasis must shift from examination to education. Teachers and children should concentrate on the real purpose of the school and take examination in their stride. Much greater credit can be given to the actual work done by the students from day-to-day, of which careful and complete records should be maintained. Moreover, in assessing his progressed and his position, factors other than academic achievement should be given due weight his social sense, initiative, truthfulness discipline, co-operation leadership, etc.
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Objectives of School Records

1. To help the School
   (i) To locate each pupil quickly.
   (ii) To have available the facts significant about each pupil.
   (iii) To explain and remove undesirable conditions.
   (iv) To find if all legal requirements are met.
   (v) To determine if any administrative or other changes are desirable.
   (vi) To make important investigation and case studies possible.
   (vii) To find if school funds are adequate and wisely expended.
   (viii) To reduce retardation and failure to the minimum.

2. To help the Class-room Teacher
   (i) To know pupils when the school year begins.
   (ii) To determine what work a pupil is capable of doing.
   (iii) To provide learning activities suitable to each pupil.
   (iv) To formulate a basis for the intelligent guidance of pupils.
   (v) To explain the behaviour characteristic or unhappy conditions of any pupil.
   (vi) To make possible the development of unusual capacities or exceptional talents.
   (vii) To identify and make proper provisions for mentally slow.
   (viii) To make assignments to committee work and monitory positions.
   (ix) To make periodic reports correctly and in time.
   (x) To be properly informed when conferring with parents and others about pupils.

3. To help the Pupil
   (i) To receive fair consideration in his classification.
   (ii) To do his best in making a good record.
   (iii) To make a progress in accordance with his ability.
   (iv) To secure development of his natural capabilities.
   (v) To secure transfer of correct information to other schools when desired.
   (vi) To receive proper adjustment and guidance.

Types of School records

School records and registers can be broadly classified under the following heads:


A stock list of registers should be prepared in the school. On the outer cover of each register, the following particulars should be written directly:

(i) The name of the school.
(ii) The serial number of the register.
(iii) The name of the register.
(iv) The number of volume.
(v) The number of pages of the volume
(vi) The opening and closing dates.

**Maintenance of School Records**

1. **Stock List**: In every institution, a stock list of registers should be prepared.

2. **Particulars**: On the outer cover of each register, the following particulars should be written:
   (i) The name of the school,
   (ii) The Serial No. of the register,
   (iii) The name of the register,
   (iv) Number of the volume.
   (v) The number of pages in the volume and dates on which the volume was opened and closed.

3. **Pages**: When a register is opened, the pages should be numbered consecutively, either in red ink or with a numbering machine.

4. **Registration**: Registration should be kept tidy. Writing and figuring should be such as will give a neat appearance to the entries. Figures must not be joined. Registers should not be folded or the pages crumpled. Over-writing should not be permitted.

5. **Countersigning**: Entries should be countersigned by the principal. A new volume of a register should not be opened every year, if the previous volume contains some blank pages. Whenever a fresh book is put into use, a remark on the flysheet of the book that the previous volume has been fully used and lodged in the records should be recorded and the date from which the new register is used and the number of pages it contains should also be noted therein.

**The School Calendar**

School calendar is a useful record. It helps in the systematic organisation of school activities. It should contain the following items of information:

1. General, partial and local holidays.
2. Dates for the submission of monthly, quarterly, half yearly and annual reports and returns.
3. Dates of public and school examinations.
4. Dates of sending up applications for public examinations.
5. Dates of meetings of School Committees, Teachers Associations, different clubs and societies, school tournaments, school excursions and educational tours.
6. The dates of periodic and terminal tests in different subjects.
Notes

The school calendar, gives us a clear picture of various activities to be conducted throughout the academic year. It is helpful to the administrator, teachers and pupils.

The Log Book

Every school should keep a Log Book. At present only the inspecting officers are entitled to put down their remarks in it. But it should contain a complete record of events and furnish material for a history of the school. It should mention special events, the introduction of new text-books, apparatus or courses of instructions, any plan of lessons approved by the inspector, the visits of the inspecting officers and other distinguished persons interested in education, absence and illness of any of the school staff and any failure in duty on their part, changes in the working hours of school, some special circumstances affecting the school that may deserve to be recorded for future reference or any other reason.

Admission Register

A record of all the pupils who are admitted to the school. The Admission Register contains the date of admission, the serial number of the pupil, the age and name of the pupil, the father’s name, caste, occupation and address, the class to which the pupil is admitted and the date on which he leaves the school. An admission register has to be preserved permanently and is often required by some superior authority in a court of law as evidence for the date of birth of a pupil. Special care should be taken in keeping the register so that there are no mistakes whatsoever, especially in the column of the date of birth of the pupil when he is admitted to the school. Fresh entries have to be made when pupils move from one department to another in the school.

Pupils’ Attendance Register

Only one attendance register should be kept by one teacher. Exceptions may be made, however, in those cases where classes are small. As the attendance registers provide a separate column for each session of the school day, attendance has to be marked for both the morning and the afternoon sessions, as soon as the class assembles at the prescribed time. Holidays and their nature should be shown in the attendance register. It should show the absences, tardiness, entrances, withdrawals, promotions, failures and other information which may be desired by the administrators.

Attendance registers should be preserved for five years.

Cash Book

All financial transactions occuring from day to day in a school are to a entered in a cash book. It should be a bound volume and containing pages numbered in print.

All transactions to which a principal is a party in his official capacity must be brought in the school cash book. All sorts of amounts received on a particular date should be deposited in full into a Government Treasury or the Bank, as the case may be.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Month &amp; Date</th>
<th>Receipts Ledger Folio</th>
<th>Amount Rs.</th>
<th>Total Rs.</th>
<th>Month &amp; Date</th>
<th>Payments Ledger Folio</th>
<th>Amount Rs.</th>
<th>Total Rs.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cash Book - - - - - - for the - - - - - - of - - - - - - 200
Specimen of Cash Book

All transactions relating to the school, such as salary, fees and fines, should be entered in the cash book. It must be kept up-to-date. There must be agreement between entries in the cash book and the corresponding entries in the other registers such as contingent register, Union Account Register, Admission Fee Register, Medical Register, Games Account Register, etc.

Stock Register of School Equipment

Whenever any equipment or furniture, that is of a more or less permanent nature, is bought and placed in the school, it must be duly entered in the stock register. Alongwith the name of the article should appear the date of its receipt in the school, its price, and name of authority who ordered the purchase. The stock of equipment should be checked by the principal at least once a year. Verification should be recorded in stock register, with an explanation for discrepancy if any, and action taken for its regularisation. Checking is much simplified if room-wise inventories are prepared. A duplicate of the inventories in each room may be displayed in each room and items added as articles are placed in the room or scored off, if they are taken away from the room. The teachers in charge of rooms have then a better chance of keeping a check on it and checking is made much easier. Nothing should be struck off the register without the permission of the officer competent to do so.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kind of Property</th>
<th>School Invoice Number</th>
<th>Value beginning of School Year</th>
<th>Increase During Year</th>
<th>Decrease During Year</th>
<th>Value at end of School Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Capital Outlay</td>
<td>Maintenance</td>
<td>Total Loss or Sale</td>
<td>Depreciation Total Loss</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Specimen of Stock Register

Teachers’ Attendance Register

It records the daily attendance of the teachers in a school showing the time of arrival and the time of departure of the teacher each day. It should be regularly filled in and signed by all teachers, morning and afternoon, every day. Late comers should indicate the time at which they arrive. The principal should also mark his own attendance and check the attendance of his assistants at the commencement of each school session. Holidays and their nature should also be indicated in it. Leave and nature of the leave should be shown and all application for leave should be filed in the school office. The number of days of casual leave or other leave taken by each teacher during the month, should be noted in the register by the principal at the end of the month.

Personal Record

There should be a complete personnel record of all the employees. It is valuable in helping the principal to study and become, acquainted with the teaching personnel. It is also essential for the teachers’welfare.

Enrolment Record

All pupils should be required to furnish certain general information upon entering school for the first time. The enrolment card should be made in duplicate, one for the superintendent’s office and one for the principal’s office. If may be used as a continous enrolment card and should be kept up-to-date at all times. Some schools print the enrolment card in different colours, one colour for the superintendent’s office and another colour for the principal’s office.
Notes

Popularly known as progress report, this report card establishes a link between the parents and the teacher. It should give an honest and complete evaluation of the child’s growth and development. It should stress the kinds of behaviour in a democracy. It should provide for individual differences. It should be constructive, diagnostic, and complete in all phases of child growth and development. The reporting system developed co-operatively by all concerned should be consistent with the educational philosophy of the whole school.

Promotion and failure Report

Some schools make out a promotion and failure report at the end of each year. It may show the principal certain danger points which deserve his attention. It will also give a teacher a chance to see his position in relation to the whole school. If a grade or subject have an unusually high percentage of failures, further investigations should be made to find out the reasons. Through such studies the principal of a school can locate pupil promotion problems that should be solved.

Promotion and Failure Report

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School ..................</th>
<th>Date ..........</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grades or Subjects</th>
<th>Number Enrolled</th>
<th>Number Appeared</th>
<th>Number Promoted</th>
<th>Percentage Promoted</th>
<th>Number Failed</th>
<th>Percentage Failed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 or 2 Maths.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
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<td>Language</td>
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</table>

Cumulative Records

Importance

The Secondary Education Commission has recommended the maintenance of cumulative record of each pupil by the class teachers. It will include not only the personal data of the pupil but also his school-attainments, health report, personality traits and participation in activities.

Placing a great emphasis on the cumulative records Indian Education Commission 1964-65 said, “Cumulative record cards play a vital role in indicating the growth and development of the pupil at each stage, his academic and emotional stage, his academic and emotional problems, and his difficulties of adjustment if any, and the directions in which remedial action is to be taken to solve his problem or difficulties.”

“When a school accepts the philosophy that it has the duty to meet the needs of its students in their growth towards proper development, it would provide for gathering, recording, and using cumulative factual evidence of each pupil’s growth, adjustment and potential.” The cumulative record is a systematic accumulation of significant factual information about an individual which when progressively developed and maintained over a sufficient period of time, gives a summarized “growth record” indicating the direction and rate of development.

Cumulative record shifts the emphasis from a one time or once-a-year performance in a few academic subjects to the full development in practically all the important aspects of education and general, physical, social and mental development over a longer period of time. This shift of emphasis is necessary before examination reform can be taken up.
Objectives of Cumulative Record

1. **To give a “comparative” achievement of pupils**: A pupil’s achievement is compared with that of his classmates. This comparative function is helpful in selection, promotion and classification of students for various jobs in the school and later life.

2. **To interpret progress and behaviour**: The cumulative information and data collected over a continuous period regarding a pupil helps us to understand his progress or lack of it; and his behaviour is interpreted. Proper educational and other kinds of guidance can then be given.

3. **To preserve results**: Cumulative record preserves the results of four to ten independent and objective studies brought together on one card. It is based on the belief that such assessments are more informative than one, and that guidance may be more effectively given in the light of such a series of measurements than in terms of the results of one selective examination.

4. **To give a full view of the student**: Cumulative record should show his interests, preferences, achievements, leisure time activities, his reading interests, his special traits, his attitudes, his special aptitudes. It should give both a clear cross-sectional and a longitudinal view of the student. It should show his status in different areas of growth. It should disclose developmental trends by showing his status in these areas at different times in the past. It should tell a story of the child’s growth and development in relation to the goals and objectives of the school’s educational programme. But it should never become so unwieldy and complex that it becomes a burden rather than an asset in guiding pupils. It should be so planned that there is minimum of clerical work.

Designs of the Cumulative Record

1. **Folder type**: It is a broad card which can be folded into many parts—say eight parts having sixteen pages. The first four parts are used for permanent record and the next four for periodical records. Some pages are kept blank for annual entries.

2. **File type**: A file may be maintained for each pupil. The permanent record is written on the printed columns of the cover. The periodical data of achievement and activities are entered on separate leaves of paper for each period or year, to be inserted and added year after year.

3. **Envelope type**: When closed on three sides and kept open on one side the file type forms an envelop. The permanent record is entered on the front and back cover. The period record is entered on separate leaves tagged together and inserted into the envelope.

Characteristics of a Cumulative Record System

1. It is started for each child at the time of his entrance to school.

2. It is transferred as the child progresses from lower to higher school or moves to another school.

3. It presents a comprehensive picture of the child’s growth and development.

4. The forms used are simple and easy to understand.

5. Its maintenance does not require too much of clerical work.

6. It is flexible, requiring a minimum of data for all pupils but permitting great latitude in the types of additional data which may be accumulated for individual pupils.

7. It is so designed that it reveals trends of growth over a period of year. Data which are cumulative can be presented in chronological sequence. All entries are dated. Informal data are summarized at the end of each school year to reveal evidence of pupil growth, as well as his special needs and problems.

8. It is readily accessible to teachers. However, the confidential nature of data must be respected and the records always kept in a secure place.
9. In the recording of date every attempt is made to distinguish facts from personal opinions. Teachers must distinguish between objective facts and subjective impressions.

10. It enables teachers to think more about what happens to the pupil in all his areas of development.

Problems regarding the Maintenance of Records

1. **Who should maintain the record cards?** The teachers in charge of various subjects should maintain records and evaluate the child’s achievements from time to time and to record the same.

   The class teacher should maintain a file containing the record cards of all the students in his class. He should be responsible for getting the necessary entries made by subject teacher or class teacher or teacher in charge of various activities. He is to act as a liaison between the pupil and the subject matter and between the pupil and the parents.

2. **Where to keep them?** The record should remain with the class teacher, but should be easily accessible to the other teachers. Whenever they want to make entries, the best place is the principal’s room or the staff room where these remain confidential.

3. **When to fill up these cards?** Record of written work may be kept by the teacher and entries made fortnightly and monthly. Other entries may be made at the time of particular event or tests. Each teacher should have a small note-book in which he records his observation at the time of incident about a particular pupil and then makes entries in the card at some convenient time.

4. **How do check the maintenance of the cumulative record?** The principal or one of the teachers should keep a proper check to see whether the entries are being made regularly by each teacher. The principal should sign the records and arrange to send reports of the pupils’ achievement to their parents at regular intervals.

Criteria of a Good Cumulative Record

1. **Validity:** It must be true, exact and authentic. Nothing based on rumour or second hand information should find a place in it.

2. **Objectivity and reliability:** Personal opinions and judgments should be avoided. The teacher should maintain an objective outlook.

3. **Usability:** It must be usable and readily accessible. The arrangement of date must facilitate ready interpretations.

4. **Comprehensiveness:** The information recorded should be so comprehensive to give a complete picture of the child both horizontal as well as vertical.

3.8 Lesson Plan

Meaning and Definitions of Lesson Plan

Teaching is organized in three phases: pre-active, interactive and post active phase of teaching. Before entering into the classroom whatever activities a teacher plans may be put in a preactive phases of teaching. The lesson planning is virtually the preactive phases of teaching.

N.L. Bossing has given a comprehensive definition of lesson plan.

“Lesson plan is the title given to a statement of the achievement to be realized and have the specific meaning by which these are to be attained as a result of the activities engaged during the period of teaching.”
Need and Importance of Lesson Plan

The lesson plan has significant role in planning and organizing instructional procedure with the following reasons:

1. In teacher-education programme, the lesson planning provides the guideline to pupil-teachers during their teaching practices.
2. It provides awareness of teaching objectives and structure of content and teacher has to perform his activities in the direction to achieve the objectives.
3. The sequence of content is to be planned and finalized by content-analysis in lesson-planning.
4. The apperceptive mass of the learner is developed or encouraged by linking the new knowledge with the previous knowledge of the students.
5. The use of teaching aids, techniques, methods and maxims are predetermined for the presentation of the content.
6. The teaching activities are related to learning structures with the help of scientific lesson plan.
7. It maintains the sequence of content presentation and prevents the teacher to deviate from the topic.
8. It determines the suitable places of reinforcing and controlling the students behaviour during teaching.
9. The classroom teaching activities are organised by considering the students individual differences.
10. The effectiveness of a teacher depends on a good lesson plan. It develops the reasoning, decision making ability and imagination and pupil teachers.
11. The micro-lessons are helpful in developing specific teaching skills.
12. The pupil-teacher gains confidence in performing the classroom teaching activities for presentation and demonstration.

Principles of Lesson Plan

The lesson planning is an instructional procedure designed and prepared by pupil-teachers and in-service teachers before the classroom teaching. It is also known as pre-active stage of teaching or planning of teaching. The lesson planning involves several types principles, because teaching is an art as well as science. The principles of lesson planning can be broadly classified into the following categories.

(a) Philosophical principles or propositions.
(b) Psychological principles and concepts,
(c) Sociological principles or norms.
(d) Pedagogical principles and
(e) Principles of technology of teaching.

Approaches of Lesson Planning

There are various approaches for designing the lesson planning. The important approaches have been discussed here.

(i) The Herbert Approach: The Herbartian Approach is based on apperceptive mass theory of learning. The proposition of that theory is that the learner is like a clean state and all the knowledge is given from outside. If new knowledge is imparted by linking with old knowledge of the student, it may be acquired easily and retained for a longer period. The teaching content should be presented into units and these units should arranged in a logical sequence. Herbart has given five steps: Introduction, presentation, organization, comparison
Notes and evaluation. These steps have been discussed in detail in ‘Memory Level Teaching’. In our training colleges and teacher education programmes the lesson plans are prepared on the Herbartian Approach. The main emphasis is given on content presentation.

(2) **Evaluation Approach**: B.S. Bloom has given a new dimension to education. He considers education as a tripartite process (1) educational objectives, (2) learning experiences and (3) change of behaviours. He has made education as objectives-centred rather than content-centred. **Bloom’s Approach** of lesson planning is termed as ‘Evaluation Approach’. The testing should be based on teaching. The evidences and data are collected for the change of behaviours of the students. The decision can be taken about objectives of learning and these evidences may provide the basis for revision and improving the learning experience. All the teaching activities must be objective-centred.

(3) **John Dewey and Kilpatrick Approach**: John Dewy was an American pragmatic philosopher. He was a great philosopher as well as a great psychologist. He was a professor of education in Columbia University. He originated a pragmatic school of thought.

He has given the valuable contributions in the field of education. He has shifted the focus of education to social efficiency. The knowledge of student should be related to their life situations. The learning experiences should be provided by solving the real problems.

(4) **Morrison’s Approach**: Henry C. Morrison has developed this approach lesson planning. He has explained the ‘Unit Method’ in detail in his book ‘The Practice of Teaching in Secondary Schools’ published in 1926. This unit method is most popular and frequently used in U.S.A.

H.C. Morrison defines, ‘Unit is a comprehension and significant aspect of the environment of an organized science and art.’

Wisely has also defined the term unit in the following manner:

“The unit is an organized body of information and experience designed to effect significant outcomes for the learner.”

Morrison has formulated ‘Cycle Plan of Teaching’, and the unit method of Morrison is more psychological in nature. His major emphasis in teaching is that the teacher should be clear about the learning objectives. The student’s needs are considered in planning the teaching tasks. Morrison has given five steps for employing his ‘cycle plan of teaching’ under the heading of ‘Understanding Level of Teaching.’

Morrison gives main emphasis on assimilation aspect of the learner where as Herbart stresses on the presentation aspect of the teacher. It is evident from the paradigm of teaching that it is a learner-centred approach to lesson-planning. This approach is more useful in science and maths teaching rather than in social studies subjects.

**The paradigm of lessons-plans differs from country to country**: Therefore, another basis of lesson-planning approaches may be denoted by the names countries:

**Did you know?** W. H. Kilpatrick has developed a project-method and introduced integrated approach of the curriculum. A project is whole hearted purposeful activity proceeding in a social environment. It is also a pupil planned purposeful task accomplished in real life situation. The approach stresses on self-activity and real experiences of life situation.

1. **American Approach**: The specific features of American approach is that the priority is given to learning objectives in lesson-planning. The teacher and students activities are so organized that the optimum realization of objectives may be done. The teacher-activities should generate
appropriate learning situations for bringing the desirable change in learner behaviours. The teaching and learning performances are evaluated on the basis of learning-objectives and a criterion test is developed for this purpose. The learner’s performance serve the purpose for providing feedback to planning and organizing aspect of lesson planning. The instructional procedure can be revised and improved on the basis of students performance.

2. **British Approach**: The main feature of British approach is that the emphasis is given to teacher and content presentation in lesson planning. The Britshers believe in slow change but from 1970, new innovations and new practices have been introduced in the field of education. The teacher has to play major role in teaching-learning process. He has to plan, organize and control the student-activities in the teaching process. On the other hand, the stress is given on student-testing. The achievement test has to content coverage or maintains the content validity. The oral, essay type and objective type test are used for measuring the students achievements.

3. **Indian Approach**: The Indian approach of lesson-planning has the major influence of both earlier approaches. The learning objective, Teacher-activities, student-activities and evaluation of student are crucial aspects of lesson-planning. The Regional Colleges of Education NCERT have made great efforts in this direction. The Regional College of Education Mysore has developed a paradigm of lesson plan. It consists of teaching objectives and learning experiences. The question answer strategy is followed in developing lesson plan, because teaching is considered as an interactive process. The classroom interaction among teacher and students can be encouraged by this strategy of teaching. In most of training colleges the lesson Planning is based on Herbartian Approach.

The lesson-planning approaches may be classified into two categories on the basis of lesson-plan structures:

(a) **Macro Approach**: The focus of Macro-approach of lesson planning is the development of students and their modification of behaviours. The size of topic, size of class and size of period are usually large. More than one objectives are achieved with the help of Macro-lesson-plan. The cognitive, conative and affective-learning-objectives can be achieved by one teaching-practices. This paradigm of lesson considers the general classroom teaching activities or teacher behaviours, the specific teaching, skills are not included in this approach.

(b) **Micro-Approach**: It is the recent innovation in the field of teacher-education. The micro-approach is employed in lesson-planning micro-teaching for the modification of teacher behaviour. Its focus is to develop the specific teaching skills rather than to bring desirable change among students. It is a real classroom teaching. The micro-lesson means to reduce the size of the topic to be taught, the size of class and the size of the period. It is designed to develop one teaching skill at a time. It is used in written and oral form for the modification of pupil-teachers and also for the in-service teachers.

(c) **Unwritten Form Approach**: The unwritten lesson plans are developed by the in-service teachers. They develop the outline of his teaching activities at their cognitive level, before entering in the classroom.

The written lesson plans are generally rigid because pupil-teachers have followed the rigidly for developing in teaching efficiency whereas unwritten lesson-plans are relatively flexible and such lesson-plans are used by the in-service teachers. They develop tentative outline of their teaching activities, therefore, it can be changed according to the classroom situations and needs of the students. It is essential even for a more experienced teacher to develop an outline of teaching takes at his cognitive level before his teaching.

3.9 **Laboratory**

The study of Physical Sciences is not possible without a laboratory. In laboratory the science teacher provides students an opportunity to observe facts and carry out experiments so that they
may obtain proper and complete knowledge of the subject. The students work in the laboratory by themselves, observe, and on the basis of these, they try to deduce conclusions.

**Meaning of Laboratory**

The word ‘Laboratory’ is used for a large room where practical classes are conducted and a group of students carry out practicals. ‘Science laboratory’ provides instruments, apparatus, chemicals and other materials safe and secure and ready for use. Various types of apparatus and material are placed in shelves or almirah under lock and key. The environment and the setting of the laboratory encourages students’ participation. Laboratories help in the development of a sense of cooperation and a spirit of competition.

**Objectives of Laboratory**

1. To develop scientific attitude among children through practical work in the laboratory.
2. To develop the skill in handling scientific apparatus, instruments and equipments.
3. To provide opportunity for the training in scientific method.
4. To help students in developing the of cooperation resourcefulness, initiative, self-dependence, self-confidence, cohesion, sociability, self-reliance, and self-discipline.
5. To provide real and stable knowledge of science.
6. To provide opportunities to think, observe, apply reason to arrive at a decision/conclusion independently.
7. To encourage students to save the time, resources as well as energy.
8. To arrange an atmosphere conducive to learning science.
9. To enable the students to interpret and verify the various scientific principles.

**Planning A Science Laboratory**

*The Govt. of India, Committee on Plan Projects*: In its report on Science Education in secondary schools, laid down that the following factors should be taken into consideration at the planning stage for the laboratory:

1. The number of students working at a time in the laboratory.
2. The minimum space necessary for every student for comfortable working.
3. Limitation of number of science teacher in secondary schools.
4. Need for ancillary accommodation for storage.
5. Designing the science-classroom and laboratory in such a way that it could be used for science teaching.
6. Imperative need for economy.

**Organization of Laboratory**

The laboratory should have a preparation room, store room, science room and dark room for organised teaching of physical sciences. In the preparation room of laboratory such apparatus are collected which are to be used in the laboratory. In this room apparatus for daily experiments are kept. The laboratory assistant or the teacher can prepare the experiment in the ‘preparation room’. In this are used various apparatus likenails, rings, screws, glass tubes, jars, ropes, pipes and various tools. Physical Science related apparatus and articles are stored in the store room which is generally inside the laboratory. This room should be kept locked. There should be one door opening in the ‘science room’. The articles should be properly arranged in large glass almirahs. The various articles should be labelled. There should be proper light and ventilation. In the ‘science room’ the teacher demonstrates the practical/experiment. The seating arrangement in this room should be
such, so that all the students can watch the experiment clearly. The seats should be as in theatre, i.e., in ascending order lower in front to higher at the back. There should be proper arrangement of light. The windows should have dark curtains so that the room can be darkened as and when required. The teacher’s table should be big enough to place all the apparatus in front of the students. There should be a blackboard at the back or towards the left, which the teacher can use whenever required. There should be pictures of scientists on the walls. The ‘dark room’ is permanently dark but ventilated.

Types of Physical Science Laboratories in Schools

Various types of laboratories are shown in the following diagramme:

![Diagram of laboratory types]

Laboratories For High Schools

At high school level in our country there are three types of science labs. They are:

(A) Lecture-Room-cum-laboratory
(B) All purpose laboratory
(C) Lecture Theatre-cum-laboratory.

Did you know? Lecture-room-cum-laboratory was originally suggested by Dr. R.H. Whitehouse Formerly Principal Central Training Institute, Lahore.

(A) Lecture-Room-Cum Laboratory

Now it is adopted as one of the standard plan for High Schools. It is an economical plan very much suitable to Indian conditions. It is more beneficial in developing science climate as well as more convenient for the students and teachers.

(1) The Lay Out: In this plan, it is suggested to have a room of 45’x25’ for a class. It should be partitioned into two equal compartments, one of which may be used as the lecture-room and the other, for laboratory purpose. This lecture room can accommodate 40 to 50 students. In the laboratory 20 to 25 students can work for the science practicals.

(2) Walls and Floor: Walls and floor of the lecture room-cum-laboratory should be tough and durable. The thickness of the walls should be equal to $1 \frac{1}{2}$ feet. The walls should be well-plastered and painted up to a height of 90 cm. and rest be white washed or distempered. The floor should be cemented or tiled with a proper drainage system. There should be round corners between the walls and floor to avoid dirt lodging. A slight slope in the floor is better so that the water may be swept easily.
Notes

(3) Doors: For getting more sunlight and fresh air the rooms should have doors facing north. There should be two doors, one near the lecture room and another near the laboratory. These should open outwards as it saves the space and is also convenient for emergency exist. One door may be used for entrance and another for exit. Whatever plan is adopted, a rigid observance of the rules of entrance and exit is a must. There can also be a door connecting both the apartments, i.e., lecture room and laboratory.

(4) Windows: Three windows each 6' x 8' x 8 should be provided on the side opposite to the doors. Out of these, one should be near the practical benches and two of these should be near the seating accommodation. The windows should open outwards so that their inner sills may be used as shelves. Wire gauze screens should be fitted to avoid flies and mosquitoes etc. Provision should be made for the window blinds for darkening the room required for various experiments. Adequate arrangements for ventilations should be made as proper ventilation is necessary. The windows and doors should have glass panes to bring sky-light in the laboratory.

(5) Furnishing of Lecture Room:

(i) Black board: There should be a blackboard of 10’x 4’ size,

(ii) Teacher’s table: It should be at a distance of about three feet. The size of the table should be 6’x 2’ high so that it may also be use as a demonstration table. No raised platform is required for the table.

(iii) Seats: The lecture room should have seating arrangement for 40 students.

There should be 20 dual tables of \( \frac{3}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{2}{1} \) high with two students on each table. The top of the table should be flat. The chairs or stools may be of wood or iron, are \( \frac{1}{2} \) high. The area allowed for dual tables and two chairs be \( \frac{3}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} \) with passage way of \( \frac{1}{2} \) for single file and a space of \( \frac{2}{1} \) to \( \frac{1}{2} \) at the sides. Thus, the total area needed for 40 students is \( 18 \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{17}{2} \). The dual tables should be placed at a distance of 9 cm. to 120 cm. from the walls.

(6) Furnishing of Laboratory:

(i) Blackboard: A blackboard of 10’ X 4’ should also be provided in the laboratory.

(ii) Tables: There should be a provision of 6 big plain-tables systematically arranged for conducting, experiments. There should also be one smaller table for the use of the teacher near the black board. It may also be used for keeping the apparatus and other material required for the experiment. It may also act as the demonstration table. The top of each table should be waxed or fixed with sheets of aluminium or glass to act as acid resistant. The size of the table should be \( 6 \times \frac{3}{2} \times \frac{2}{3} \). Each table accommodates 4 students.

(iii) Shelf: The six big tables referred above should have a shelf along the working sides for placing books and papers.

(iv) Sinks: No sinks should be provided with the laboratory tables. However, three sinks should be fitted in the room one for teacher, and two for the students, one fitted in the window recess and another in the recess in the wall. Each sink should provided with
a straight down pipe leading to a bucket. A drainage board be provided to drip water over the sink. Beakers cylinders, flasks etc. may be invested on it for drying and draining off water.

**Notes**

(a) **Recesses :** The recesses in the walls should be 1 wide and at a height of $\frac{3}{2}$ feet from the ground where balances can be placed.

(b) **Almirahs :** There should be 8 almirahs, each of 7' high and 5' wide and $\frac{1\frac{1}{2}}{2}$ deep and 6' projected in the room are provided for storage accommodation.

(c) **Notice boards and bulletin boards :** There may find place between the windows or just inside the doors.

Proper arrangement should be made for water supply and electricity in the laboratory.

This lecture room-cum-laboratory plan is as follows:

The above plan may be modified’ as per today’s need, requirements and budget etc.

(B) **All Purpose Laboratory**

This type of laboratory may serve the dual purpose of practical as well as theory work. It is also known as integrated plan of both physical and life sciences.

A laboratory of an area of 45'x 25' is sufficient for seating 30 to 32 students. These can be placed around 16 tables and on each table 2 (two) students can work. The size of the table is generally 6'x 2'. If the table is required for four (4) students then the size of table is 6'x 4'. In between the tables there should be a tap from where the student can take water easily. The tables should be polished so that they are not spoiled by water, acid or alkali. A cupboard is arranged for each student to keep the articles for experiments. There should be a tap, gas burner etc on the seat of each student. There should be arrangement of stools of height 22" to 26" for the students to sit and perform experiment. The legs of the stool should be rubberised so as to avoid making noise. The teacher’s table in the laboratory is of a size of 10'x 4' and behind it a black-board. The position of the black-board should be such that all students can see it. There should be proper lighting and ventilation in the laboratory. Every equipment should have fixed place in the laboratory.

There should be books related to practicals kept in the alimarhs. The tables of the students should be close to the walls near the windows to give proper light. The students are given apparatus for the session and there are collected back at the end of the session.

All the windows should be fitted with good blinds so that the laboratory may be darkened in order to use film projector, slide projector and epidiascope etc.

A sketch of the plan has been shown on the following page.

(C) **Lecture-cum-Laboratory**

This is the plan suggested by panel for science in secondary school as given in its report on science teaching in schools by UNESCO. The details of this plan are given below:

(1) **Location :** According to this plan the laboratory should be located on a groundfloor on extreme side of school so that other classes may not be disturbed and permits, extension of the laboratory may be done if finances.

(2) **Layout :** The panel has suggested 825 square feet area for 42 students. Another laboratory measuring 490 s.q. ft. may be provided if the need arise. This will be an extension of the lecture-cum-laboratory room with a common store-cum-preparation room of 150 sq. ft. in between. The area in these two labs comes to 125 sq. ft. and 20.4 sq. ft. per student.

Laboratory ‘A’ may be used for chemistry and Laboratory ‘B’ for Physics and Biology.
Notes

(3) **Furnishing**: The panel preferred portable furniture. According to this panel there should be tables of \(4\times1\frac{3}{4}\times2\frac{1}{2}\) for laboratory ‘B’ along with the provision of under shelves to keep books etc. In laboratory ‘A’ the size of the tables should be \(3\frac{1}{4}\times3\frac{1}{4}\times2\frac{3}{4}\). If it is to be used for chemistry practicals, then it should be painted with acidproof paint. No shelves are recommended in these tables.

The panel recommended that demonstration table or teacher’s table should have the size of \(8\times2\frac{3}{2}\times2\frac{3}{4}\). It should be on the raised platform of 7” height. It should have sink, gas and light arrangements for demonstration of experiments. A side cupboard and drawer may also be provided.

There should be a blackboard of 8’x 3’ size near the teacher’s table. The panel considered black colour as the dull colour and recommended green or brown colour of the Board.

No cupboard is recommended for students. Sinks are recommended in the walls. Thick dark curtains are hung to make it a darkroom if needed. Provision of other fittings are also made along the walls for hanging charts, graphs, pictures, and shelves for display of the material.

(4) **Construction Material**: The panel recommended the use of locally available material for construction purpose. It will be cheaper. Prefabrication or precasting etc may be employed to reduce the costly steel and concrete material. The walls can be plastered and ceiling be white washed. The floor may be cemented preferably with grey cement. Windows should be iron grilled. Ventilators should have exhaust fans and fly wire on the external face.

(5) **Light**: Adequate system of light, should be worked out. Ventilation should be such that there is ample day light. The windows should be 3’ high, so that there may be ample light in the laboratory. The windows should open outside. The window area of 15-20% of the floor area is considered adequate for light. Artificial light should be avoided as far as possible.

(6) **Water and Drainage Facilities**: Proper arrangement should be made for water supply. Four water points with sinks of 12”x 9”x 6” be provided on the walls, on teacher’s table, working tables and in preparation room. Where water is not available, small drums should be arranged for storing water. Underground drainage is considered better then uncovered drains.

**Laboratories For Intermediate Colleges**

At + 2, stage, the science students have to study physics, chemistry and biology etc. Therefore, there should be separate laboratories in each subject. The laboratories and lecture rooms may be developed of almost the same type as found in colleges.

The size of each lab depends upon the number of students working at a time in the laboratory and also as per needs and requirements of the Intermediates colleges. A preparation room and a store room should be provided in these subject laboratories.

1. **Physics Laboratory**

   Following things should be arranged in physics laboratory :

   (1) Working tables of about \(6\times3\frac{1}{2}\times3\) size along with drawers.

   (2) One demonstration table of 8’x 4’ size, with water and gas fittings.

   (3) One chalk board and one sliding board, behind the demonstration table.

   (4) Two big sinks in the corners of the laboratory.
(5) Almirahs may be wooden or with glass pane.

(6) Stools for sitting purposes.

(7) Projected platform in the wall for keeping balances or if possible separate balance room.

(8) Arrangement for film show etc.

(9) Black curtains for doors, ventilators and windows.

(10) Dark room.

(11) Places grooved for hanging Barometers and Thermometers.

(12) First Aid Box and fire extinguishers.

(13) Physics Kit.

**List of Equipment and Material**


2. **Chemistry Laboratory**

'The chemistry laboratory should be equipped with the following:

(1) One Demonstration table of 8’x 4’ size, along with shelves, cupboards and acid proof tops, and also with gas and water fittings.

(2) One chalkboard and one sliding; chalkboard.

(3) Working tables with cupboard and with water and gas fittings and with acid proof tops.

(4) Projected plateform in the wall for balances or separate balance room.

(5) Shelves for keeping chemical reagents. These may be fitted on the working tables or in the walls.

(6) Two big sinks in the corners of laboratory.

(7) Drawing rack and fume cupboard near the sink.

(8) Black curtian for doors, windows and ventilators.

(9) Almirahs.

(10) Arrangement for film show etc.

(11) First Aid Box and fire extinguishers.

(12) Chemistry kits.

The plan for chemistry laboratory is given below:

**List of Equipment and Material**

Notes


3. Biology Laboratory

List of Items :

(A) Prepared Permanent Slides :


(B) Plant Tissues : (1) Collenchyma, (2) Parenchyma, (3) Sclerenchyma, (4) Merislimatic Tissue, (5) Phloem, (6) Xylem.

(2) Animal Cells (4) Plan Cells, (5) Mitosis (Different Stages), (6) Meiosis (Different Stages)

(B) Preserved Specimens :


(C) Charts on Black Rexine with proper labelling :


(D) Prepared Permanent Slides : (1) T. S. (Transverse Section) Stomach, (2) T. S. Liver, (3) T. S. Kidney, (4) T. S. Ovary, (5) T. S. Testis, (6) T. S Duodenum, Ileum and Colon, (7) V. S. (Vertical Section) Skin, (8) Entamoeba (w.m.) (9) Hydra (w.m.), (10) Paramecium (w.m.), and (ii) Plasmodium (w.m.)

Quantity and Quality of Laboratory Apparatus

The quantity and quality of the apparatus depends upon the following factors :

1. Scheme of work : The apparatus and material should be adequate to provide demonstrations and class practical work for the students. The quantity of chemicals consumed and the sets of apparatus required are roughly proportional to the time spent on practicals.

2. Level of Students : The level and number of students should be considered while equipping a laboratory. So the apparatus in the laboratory should be planned according to the level and number of students.

3. Finance : It controls the quantity and quality of equipment of a laboratory.

4. Storage space : It is important that there should be enough storage space for the equipment ordered.

Arranging the Equipment

1. Equipment may be arranged alphabetically or subject wise.

2. Dangerous chemicals like mercury, phosphorous, sodium, calcium, spirit etc should be kept in a separate cup-board under lock and key.
Essentials For Any Subject Laboratory

(1) There should be 30 sq. ft. space for each student.
(2) Every lab should have one store room. It may also be used as the preparation room or the separate preparation room may be provided.
(3) Appropriate benches are necessary while working with science tools in the lab.
(4) There should be the provision of lecture room-cum-laboratory in each science subject.
(5) Proper lighting, ventilation, water supply, gas supply and waste disposal arrangements should be made in each laboratory.

3.10 Library

In the foreword addressed to the Reader in Eastman’s Books it has been said, “Books are not mere paper, ink or cloth, they are persons. For the most part, they are a company of the immortals who have weathered the centuries and are now marching toward eternity. They told me of their adventures, their romances, their meditations and their exploration of the inner world. They lifted my horizons. They made me laugh and cry and rejoice living in the same world. They invite you too.” Books are collected and preserved in library. Therefore, the Library occupies a very prominent place in the educational set-up. Modern changing pattern of education demands that the learning must be accelerated and broadened by the use of many and varied devices and materials. Library is an essential part of school. In a dynamic approach to teaching, it supplies enriched materials in all fields of study. “All good methods of education postulate the existence of a well-stocked, efficiently organised library.” Modern teaching is class-room centred but child centred and library centred. The child’s learning has to be self-directed. He has to acquire reading skill and do reading activities through the school library.

While curriculum and text-book aim at providing the least common multiple of all students in a class, the library aims at bringing out individual differences and developing special interests and aptitudes their best advantage. Civilization has progressed by virtue of specialization. Library habit creates specialists.

It is one of the duties of the school to provide this environment and environtment of attractive books. Carlyle has aptly said, “The ultimate aim of education is to teach boys how to read once they learn to read, education will take care of itself.”

Recent discussions about the role of library in the life of the school have led to the following conclusions:

1. It is a collection of a “background material” which can be drawn upon to enrich the work of the curriculum.
2. It is a place where the use of books as sources of information may be taught and practised.
3. It provides material to inspire and develop a pupil’s extra-mural interests and pursuits.
4. It is a place where various valuable responsibilities may be exercised.

Thus the school library plays an important role in all aspects of education. Its service makes a substantial contribution to children’s education during school life and also helps in their future search for knowledge. H. G. Wells remarked, “A school without an easily accessible library of at least a thousand volumes is really scarcely a school at all it is a dispensary without bottles, a kitchen without a pantry.”

Frances Henne writes, “Good schools, very good schools, and excellent schools, all need excellent libraries. Inferior schools, need excellent libraries too, to overcome the commissions of the curriculum and to compensate for the poor instructional programme.”
Notes

Objectives of the School Library
1. To facilitate the instructional programme for the teacher. With a wide variety of text and reference books related to various school subjects, library facilitates the instructional programme. It provides reading materials to the pupil for answering questions, doing assignments and solving problems.
2. To teach a skilful use of books for self-education.
3. To create an atmosphere conducive to the growth of reading habits.
4. To stimulate literary appreciation.
5. To demonstrate the desirability of books and libraries as companions in one’s leisure.
6. To provide fruitful social experiences.
7. To make the library an agency for:
   (a) Curriculum enrichment;
   (b) Pupil exploration; and
   (c) The dissemination of good literature.

Important Library Resources
1. Book Resources: Books are essential for presenting different points of view, for providing adequate background, for understanding the people, the processes and the places. Book resources include:
   (i) Text-books: The library should contain a variety of most up-to-date text-books in various subjects.
   (ii) Unit Booklets: The booklets on a variety of topics ranging from family life and neighbourhood to people of other lands and places, should also be available in the school library.
   (iii) Literary Materials: Essay biographies, historical series, animal stories are favourites with children. Travel books lively and interesting. Therefore, inspirational and imaginative literature, particularly tales of adventure, should appear prominently along side books of information on children’s hobbies.
   (iv) Reference Materials: The school library should be fairly well-equipped with reference materials. Which may be divided into the following:
      (a) Standard of Conventional Reference Books: Conventional reference books include dictionaries, encyclopaedias, Directories. Year Books, Atlases, Maps, Charts, Pamphlets, Handbooks and Manuals. The Dictionary and the Encyclopaedia are basic reference works which from the ‘look-it-up’ habit. Oxford illustrated dictionary and a set of Oxford Junior Children’s Encyclopaedia or a Book of Knowledge may be provided in the school library. Picture collections should include reproduction of well-known masterpieces and everything to which teachers and children are attracted e.g. animals, insects, flowers, portraits, seasons, holidays, places of interest and events.
      (b) Non-conventional Reference Books: The non-conventional reference material consists of all other library books that may be employed for reference service of any other kind. They include books on miscellaneous information and books on special subjects.
2. Non-Book Resources: Modern curriculum is concerned with happenings in the local community, the state, the nation and the world. Therefore, books should be supplemented by periodicals, pamphlets, newspapers and other such materials which may vitalise the teaching of subject. The following are the important non-book resources which should be available in the school library:
(i) **Periodicals**: These include current events periodicals and magazines, about the current events and various aspects of life showing art, literature, music, dance etc.

(ii) **Pamphlets**: Published by various Government agencies and bureaus pamphlets for specialised services are important sources of information about different walks of social, economic and political life. As they are generally low priced every school library should subscribe for these.

(iii) **Newspapers**: Each school library should provide for local newspaper and daily several national weekly newspapers. The teachers and pupils should be well informed about events of national and international importance and newspapers is a wonderful agency for that.

### 3.11 Role of Head in School and College Activities

The headmaster is the major component of school management. On his ability and skill, personality and professional competence largely depend on the tone and efficiency of the school. “Schools are good or bad, in a healthy or unhealthy mental moral and physical condition, flourishing or perishing as the headmaster is capable, energetic and high ideals or the reverse. Schools rise to fame or sink to obscurity as greater or lesser headmasters have charge of them.” Everything in the school, the plan, the staff, curriculum, methods and techniques of teaching, co-curricular activities, human relationships bear the impress of the personality of the headmaster. The school is as great as the headmaster. The schools become great not because of the magnificent buildings but because of “magnificent” headmaster. Harrow, Eton and Rugby have been made famous by their great head. As is the headmaster so is the school.

**Role of Headmaster**

The following are the main roles of a headmaster of a school:

1. Leadership behaviour.
2. Alert to the forces of environment.
3. Selection of goals.
4. Knowledge and professional training.
5. Loving the teachers, students and parents.
7. Sound attitude towards life.
8. Winning of faith.
9. Supervision of each Teacher’s work.
10. Right delegation of authority.

The details of the above roles are given in the following paras.

1. **Leadership Behaviour**: Hodgkinson points four maxims for leadership in school administration:
   1. Know the tasks.
   2. Know the situations.
   3. Know his followers, and
   4. Know himself.

   Hodgkinson’s second maxim can be taken to include the organizational situation. Maxim 3 on followership would also imply a knowledge of the environment in lists of management tasks. There is relatively little discussion in the literature of the skills required and strategies entailed in the leader transforming the forces in the environment into a mission for the
organization. Hodgkinson gets much closer to this in the conception of administration-as philosophy.

2) **Alert to Forces of Environment**: An expectation of heads is that they will be alert to the forces in the environment of the school which have potential relevance for its internal activities. These forces can be divided into two clusters. One cluster will contain relevant knowledge of what is happening in the broader educational worlds. This would largely entail a knowledge of existing and emerging educational policies at national and local levels.

3) **Selection of Goals**: The head who would create a mission for the school would have the continuous task of selection from these clusters of knowledge which, as modified by an awareness of forces within the head and within the teachers currently teaching in the school and such other organizational forces as structures and resources, would fashion set of goals for the school which could be designed as a mission. Different leadership style entail differences in the degree to which heads construct mission alone or in collaboration with members of staff who would have been encouraged to contribute to the negotiation of a mission on the basis of their knowledge of environmental forces and forces within themselves. To the head would fall the task of articulating and presenting the mission. This would be achieved through verbalization, through the deliberate deployment of symbols, or through a series of less obstructive symbolic acts. At this point the task merges into the middle elements of Hodgkinson's model: Politics and mobilizing. This involves the securing of staff commitment to the mission. The task then moves to the operationalisation stage and merges with the managerial components of the Hodgkinson model. This involves the fulfilment of the two basic dimensions of leadership: task achievement and social needs satisfaction.

4) **Knowledge and Skill of Professional Training**: The headmaster must have knowledge in social sciences, psychology, philosophy, sociology and economics. He must also remain in touch with the latest scientific developments. He should not only know his own subject of specialization but should also know the latest thinking in other school subjects. He should possess adequate and effective professional training because educational administration is a specialized job. Only a highly trained headmaster can show the way to the members of the staff on teaching techniques. He must have mastery of education child and social psychology.

5) **Loving his Teacher Students and Parents**: The headmaster has to deal with his teachers, the students and their parents. He should be able to get the best out of every teacher. The headmaster should recognize the good work done by his colleagues. As Ryburn says, "Nothing will more encourage a man or a woman, a boy or a girl, to greater effort than an encouraging recognition of good work done, of sincere efforts made, a good qualities shown."

6) **Sound Physical Health**: The headmaster with poor health cannot be justice to his difficult assignment. For maintaining physical efficiency, Jaswant Singh has given the following suggestion. "A balanced diet, supply of vitamins, adequate intake of water, elimination of waste products, exercise and health living."

7) **Sound Attitude Towards Life**: The headmaster must take to optimism to the extent of seeing something good in an event of misfortune. He must approach everything with the confidence of air of success. Financial worries must not trouble him. He must guard himself against any frustration. Intelligent planing and budgeting will relieve him of financial worries. On the whole, he must have ultimate faith in himself and his creator. He should drives the same satisfaction from working for the institution as the artist or the sculptor derives when working late hours over his handwork, fully attentive to the smallest detail, never tiring.

8) **Winning of Faith**: The headmaster should be a man of faith. As Ryburn says, "It is essential therefore, that be he not only a man of high character but also that he be a man of faith; faith in vocation, faith in his pupils, faith in human nature and faith in his staff."
(9) **Supervision of Teaching Work**: Supervision means actual inspection, should have the spirit of cooperation. The teacher enjoys a certain amount of prestige with the class and if he is rebuked in the presence of the class, his headmaster encroaches upon the rights of the teacher. If the headmaster feels that the teacher needs correction, he should send for him after the period is over. In this post-visit conference details may be discussed. The headmaster should deal with the teacher. Every teacher should come out of the headmaster’s room after a post-visit conference as a better person, wiser and in more pleasant mood than when he went to him. The headmaster should have friendly attitude towards his teachers. He should regard himself and his staff as a team, as a little family. He is the head of the family to guide all other members.

(i) The headmaster should supervise the registers and accounts of the school

(ii) The cleanliness of the school students and the surroundings.

(iii) The school farm and the craft work, and

(iv) Games, discipline, etc.

*Hart* enumerates seven abilities which every administrator and supervisor should possess in sample degree to discharge his duties:

1. The ability to recognize the essentially worthwhile that are taking place in the school system.
2. The second is to organize the school system so that essentially worthwhile things discovered are spread through the whole system.
3. The third is to overcome the inefficiencies of others without losing their goodwill.
4. The fourth is to set goals that are within the reach of an individual.
5. The fifth is that of making everyone in the school system feel the worthwhileness of his job.
6. The sixth is that of helping everyone in the system to grow professional and in service to society.
7. The seventh is to make those who work for the administrator or supervisor personally happy.

(10) **Right Delegation of Authority**: The headmaster should nominate the other members of the staff supervision of the examinations, school cleanliness, morning assembly, funds, hostel, scouting, literary and social activities, etc. The delegation of power will develop in them a sense of responsibility for the school. He should consult his colleagues regarding improvement in school discipline and instruction. The advantage will be that a spirit will be instilled in them that they belong to the school.

**Headmaster Duties**

The headmaster is supposed to discharge numerous duties which may be grouped under two heads

(1) General duties, and (2) Specific duties.

(l) **General Duties of Headmaster**

1. Duties before the session.
2. Duties thought the year, and.
3. Duties at the end of the session.

(1) **Duties before the Commencement of the Academic Year**: Before the commencement of the academic year the following items demand and careful attention on his part:

1. Preparation of a school calendar showing details of different courses, co-curricular activities, rates of tuition fees, school timings, duration of the class-period or recesses, a list of holidays, the practice for the collection of tuition fees;
2. Provision of teaching, clerical and other staff;
3. Distribution of work-teaching and administrative;
Notes

(4) Finalising the school time-table;
(5) Purchase of necessary equipment, books and supplies;
(6) Completion of the admission of as many new pupils as possible;
(7) Formation of new classes showing the names of pupils of class teacher, and
(8) A school administration bulletin may be prepared for the convenience of teachers. It should show the distribution of work of different teachers, the co-curricular duties, different committees of the schools, clubs and associations, dates of staff meetings, the procedure for taking casual leave etc. Every teacher should be supplied with a copy of the bulletin. It is helpful to a new teacher. It acts as a reminder to the old teachers. It is an aid to headmaster to plan for the coming year.

(2) Duties on the Opening Day: The opening day of the school must be planned with great care. The classrooms, the library, the lavatories, the laboratories should be spick and span to receive the new comers. A staff meeting for facing the new problems with confidence should meet headmaster. Everyone should be familiar with the work he or she is supposed to do.

On the first day, the headmaster should meet the students and clarify the days’ arrangements of work.

So many problems need immediate solutions during the first week e.g., arrangement of optional subjects, balancing class sizes, adjustment of classrooms and equipments, etc.

(3) Duties Throughout the Year: One or two weeks preliminary work would settle the major issues. After that the headmaster has to the supervisory programme, organise the guidance service, arrange medical examination of children, check the evaluation programmes, send internal assessment marks and inform parents regarding the deficiencies of their children.

He has to administer the entire programme of the school through his personal supervision and direction. He should reach the school before the regular work begins, inspect the sanitary arrangements of the campus, attend the school assembly, do office work, supervise curricular and co-curricular activities, meet visitors and parents and should be the last to leave the school.

(4) Duties While Closing a School Year: Before the close of the year, a headmaster should attend the following:

1. Arrangement of the final examination programme setting and printing of questions papers, evaluation of answer-books, preparation of result sheets, and declaration of results;
2. Completion of pupil’s cumulative records, and the data on which they are to be submitted to parents for information;
3. Announcement of the next year’s textbooks to pupils;
4. The issue of school leaving certificates to pupils, desiring to leave the school before close of the year; and the annual report of the school.

(2) Specific Duties of Headmaster in a School

1. Supervision of school working
2. Teaching work and teaching supervision
3. School Management, and
4. Special services in school organization

(1) Supervision of Headmaster

As the leader of the school, the headmaster has to supervise various types of activities:

i. Supervision of Instruction.
(ii) Supervision of Instruction: Classroom is the heart of teaching situation. It is the centre of instruction. It is a centre of supervisory attention. The headmaster should upgrade the quality of education through creative, co-operative and constructive supervision.

Supervision of the teaching work is a very ticklish job. It is not a simple matter of rushing into a classroom to make a correction or an adjustment or the apply a skill as an automechanic adjust a faulty motor. Instead, it calls for deliberate and long-range planning. A classroom has many human, ramifications, and its operation is tied into a multitude of connecting parts on the outside. Its supervision includes classroom visitation.

Task: What is Indian Approach of lesson plan?

2. State whether the following statements are ‘true’ or ‘false’.
   (i) School Calender is a useful record which helps in the systematic organisation of school activities.
   (ii) All financial transactions occurring from day to day in a school are to be entered in stock register.
   (iii) A record of all the pupils who are admitted to the school is kept in admission register.
   (iv) The lesson planning is an instructional procedure designed and it is also known as preactive stage of teaching.
   (v) The Herbariation Approach is based on tripolar process.
   (vi) The specific feature of Indian approach is at the priority is given to learning objectives in lesson planning.

3.12 Summary

- When a plan is prepared by a particular institution on the basis of its own development and improvement, we call it institutional plan. Some eminent authorities have defined institutional planning in the following way.

- A programme of development and improvement prepared by an educational institution on the basis of its felt needs and the resources available or are likely to be available, with a view to improving the school programme and school practices constitute a plan for an institution.

- Characteristics of Institutional Plan
- It is a fact of experience that no two schools can be identical in their needs and requirements.
- An ideal school plan will have the following characteristics.
  (i) It should be need based. It should be prepared according to the needs of the institution and not on the basis of grants sanctioned.
  (ii) It should aim at the maximum use of the available human and material resources.
Notes

(iii) It should be a ‘plan of work’ and not a charter of demands. In other words, it must aim at utilizing what is available and not demanding what is not available and/or is available to more fortunate schools.

(iv) 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.

• Each institution should prepare the plan on the basis of the following characteristics;
• On the academic side institutional planning should aim at.
  (a) Qualitative improvement.
  (b) Providing more amenities to
    (i) the teacher
    (ii) the students and
    (iii) the local community.
  (c) Maintaining if not improving the educational standard if the number of students increases in the school and.
  (d) reducing and even eliminating the incidence of wastage and stagnation.

• On the skill side it should aim at:
  • cultivating a liking for gardening, craft, interior and exterior decoration.

• On the attitude side it should aim at
  • promoting better relationship between the students and the teachers on the one hand, the teachers, and the parents on the other.

• Management at Elementary Level Education

• An Elementary school is the basic need of our society. This is the first level of Education, Management of Education at this level is not an easy task. There are different categories in which management is necessary. Without proper management, it is very difficult to implement all the educational plans. Here we will discuss all the things in which we need management at this level of Education.

• School Infrastructure : School building and management is a major part of Educational management. There are various things which we will discuss in the following heads.

• A school building must be excellent, spacious functional and with pleasing architectural features. "Buildings are to education as body is to the mind." "A sound mind can only be there in a sound body."

  (i) Curriculum adequacy : The institution must be planned to provide the facilities necessary for the efficient and effective accommodation of all the phases of the curricular, co-curricular and community activities for which the plant is intended.

  (ii) Safety and well-being : The school should be so planned as to protect the comfort health and safety of pupils, teachers, and all who will use its facilities. Lighting, heating and ventilating should be in accordance with the best practices.

  (iii) Interfunctional co-ordination : Each unit or portion of a plant may be well-planned for its specific purpose, yet if the units are not put together with respect to their mutual relationships, the plant, as a whole, will be unsatisfactory.

  (iv) Efficiency and Unity : The school plant should be planned and assembled in a manner that will promote efficient school management and convenience of pupils and the public in its use.
(v) Adaptability: A school plant should be planned for economical future adaptations to changing requirements.

- The school office is the nerve centre of the school plant where various records, reports and registers are stored, where the important matters of administrative policy are discussed and where the visitors are received. It serves as a 'home-base' for the principal, 'professional centre' for the school staff, and the 'service-centre' for the entire school.

- Functions of the School Office
  - Up-to-date file of data about the children: Teachers should be free from the onerous task of book-keeping wherever possible. The clerk should be mainly responsible for book-keeping, so that teachers' energies may be released for the creative job of guiding the development of children.
  - Every school has to establish certain schedules for the control of such materials and spaces as the Assembly-Hall, Music Room, Laboratories, Workshops, Visual education equipment, text books, supplies etc.
  - Help teachers in survey tests: After the teachers have agreed upon the kind of testing programme they desire and have selected the test appropriate to their purposes, the actual task of ordering and distributing the tests can be handled by the office.
  - Modern school techniques include the use of teachers made materials, materials that are made specially for an actual group of children, based on their present needs.

- Management at Secondary level of Education
  - Secondary Schools play a very important role in every child. They spend their most crucial and adolescence years in it, so there are different needs and different aspects as according to their course choices, interests etc.

- Different Types of Designs for Secondary Schools
  - Following types of designs are in vogue for secondary schools in our country:
    (i) The I type—consisting of a row of class-rooms.
    (ii) The L type—I type with an extension on one side.
    (iii) The T type—I type with extension on one side both ways.
    (iv) The U type—Two I’s joined on one side.
    (v) The E Type, and
    (vi) The H type.

- School Architecture
  - Essential Qualities
    (i) Simple but elegant and beautiful design.
    Low cost.
    (iii) Comprehensive Plan
  - Maximum Utility: It must give the maximum utility to the pupils, as regards accommodation, protection from weather, maximum light, maximum ventilation, tree movement and comfortable stay in the room for longer hours.
  - High standard Material: The material used for the building must be of high standard to enable them to stand the great load put on its use.
    (i) Library and Reading Room: Library is the hub of the academic life of a school. With the new techniques of teaching, library should be the centre of the school educational programme. When resources permit, reading room should be separate from the library hall, otherwise the square hall preferably 24 × 80 sq. ft. can serve both the needs.
Notes

(ii) Assembly Hall: The hall can be used as a multi-purpose room, as an auditorium with a combination of functions such as gymnasium and refreshment room, or as the audio-visual room. Its size will be determined by the local needs, but the hall should have a suitable stage of not less than 20 by 30 feet with green rooms and other equipment and furnishings.

(iii) The Office Room: To serve as a good co-ordinating centre for the school. The office room should be centrally located. It should be easily accessible to visitors, teachers and pupils. A good office in a large secondary school requires four things:

(i) A room for the Headmaster:

(ii) A waiting room for the visitors:

(iii) An office room for the clerk, and

(iv) A store room with shelves and wall cupboards for office and educational files.

- Management at Higher level Education
- Colleges or higher education institution are made for giving job oriented information, they prepare students in a particular field in a specialized way.
- There is no big difference between secondary school and college building structure, but as the college has different faculties, a huge quantity of students of various courses, there is larger and bigger building structure.
- There is big laboratories as compared to schools, big halls, theatres, music rooms, as according to the courses in which they enrolle.
- In the school the emphasis must shift from examination to education. Teachers and children should concentrate on the real purpose of the school and take examination in their stride. Much greater credit can be given to the actual work done by the students from day-to-day.

- Types of School records
- School records and registers can be broadly classified under the following heads:


- The School Calendar
- School calendar is a useful record. It helps in the systematic organisation of school activities.
• Every school should keep a Log Book. At present only the inspecting officers are entitled to put down their remarks in it. But it should contain a complete record of events and furnish material for a history of the school.

• A record of all the pupils who are admitted to the school. The Admission Register contains the date of admission, the serial number of the pupil, the age and name of the pupil, the father’s name, caste, occupation and address, the class to which the pupil is admitted and the date on which he leaves the school.

• Only one attendance register should be kept by one teacher. Exceptions may be made, however, in those cases where classes are small. As the attendance registers provide a separate column for each session of the school day, attendance has to be marked for both the morning and the afternoon sessions, as soon as the class assembles at the prescribed time.

• All financial transactions occurring from day to day in a school are to be entered in a cash book. It should be a bound volume and containing pages numbered in print.

• Any equipment or furniture, that is of a more or less permanent nature, is bought and placed in the school, it must be duly entered in the stock register.

• It records the daily attendance of the teachers in a school showing the time of arrival and the time of departure of the teacher each day. It should be regularly filled in and signed by all teachers, morning and afternoon, every day.

• There should be a complete personnel record of all the employees. It is valuable in helping the principal to study and become acquainted with the teaching personnel. It is also essential for the teachers’ welfare.

• All pupils should be required to furnish certain general information upon entering school for the first time. The enrolment card should be made in duplicate, one for the superintendent’s office and one for the principal’s office.

• Some schools make out a promotion and failure report at the end of each year. It may show the principal certain danger points which deserve his attention. It will also give a teacher a chance to see his position in relation to the whole school. If a grade or subject have an unusually high percentage of failures, further investigations should be made to find out the reasons.

• The Secondary Education Commission has recommended the maintenance of cumulative record of each pupil by the class teachers. It will include not only the personal data of the pupil but also his school-attainments, health report, personality traits and participation in activities.

• Teaching is organized in three phases: pre-active, interactive and post active phase of teaching. Before entering into the classroom whatever activities a teacher plans may be put in a preactive phases of teaching. The lesson-planning is virtually the preactive phases of teaching.

• The lesson plan has significant role in planning and organizing instructional procedure with the following reasons:
  (i) In teacher-education programme, the lesson planning provides the guideline to pupil-teachers during their teaching practices.
  (ii) It provides awareness of teaching objectives and structure of content and teacher has to perform his activities in the direction to achieve the objectives.
  (iii) The sequence of content is to be planned and finalized by content-analysis in lesson-planning.
  (iv) The apperceptive mass of the learner is developed or encouraged by linking the new knowledge with the previous knowledge of the students.

• There are various approaches for designing the lesson planning. The important approaches have been discussed here.
Notes

(i) The Herbert Approach: The Herbartian Approach is based on apperceptive mass theory of learning.

(ii) Evaluation Approach: B.S. Bloom has given a new dimension to education. He considers education as a tripo lar process (1) educational objectives, (2) learning experiences and (3) change of behaviours. He has made education as objectives-centred rather than content-centred.

(iii) John Dewey and Kilpatrick Approach: John Dewey was an American pragmatic philosopher. He was a great philosopher as well as a great psychologist.

• American approach: The specific features of American approach is that the priority is given to learning objectives in lesson-planning. The teacher and students activities are so organized that the optimum realization of objectives may be done.

• British Approach: The main feature of British approach is that the emphasis is given to teacher and content presentation in lesson planning. The Britishers believe in slow change but from 1970, new innovations and new practices have been introduced in the field of education.

• Indian Approach: The Indian approach of lesson-planning has the major influence of both earlier approaches. The learning objective, Teacher-activities, student-activities and evaluation of student are crucial aspects of lesson-planning. The Regional Colleges of Education NCERT have made great efforts in this direction.

(a) Macro Approach: The focus of Macro-approach of lesson planning is the development of students and their modification of behaviours. The size of topic, size of class and size of period are usually large.

(b) Micro-Approach: It is the recent innovation in the field of teacher-education. The micro-approach is employed in lesson-planning micro-teaching for the modification of teacher behaviour.

(c) Unwritten Form Approach: The unwritten lesson plans are developed by the in-service teachers. They develop the outline of his teaching activities at their cognitive level, before entering in the classroom.

The written lesson plans are generally rigid because pupil-teachers have followed the rigidly for developing in teaching efficiency whereas unwritten lesson-plans are relatively flexible and such lesson-plans are used by the in-service teachers.

• Meaning of Laboratory

• The word ‘Laboratory’ is used for a large room where practical classes are conducted and a group of students carry out practicals. ‘Science laboratory’ provides instruments, apparatus, chemicals and other materials safe and secure and ready for use.

• Objectives of Laboratory

(i) To develop scientific attitude among children through practical work in the laboratory.

(ii) To develop the skill in handling scientific apparatus, instrullments and equipments.

(iii) To provide opportunity for the training in scientific, method.

(iv) To help students in developing the of cooperation resourcefulness, initiative, self-dependence, self-confidence, cohesion, sociability, self-reliance, and self-discipline.

• The Govt. of India, Committee on Plan Projects: In its report on Science Education in secondary schools, laid down that the following factors should be taken into consideration at the planning stage for the laboratory:

(i) The number of students working at a time in the laboratory.

(ii) The minimum space necessary for every student for comfortble working.
(iii) Limitation of number of science teacher in secondary schools.

• The laboratory should have a preparation room, store room, science room and dark room for organised teaching of physical sciences. In the preparation room of laboratory such apparatus are collected which are to be used in the laboratory. In this room apparatus for daily experiments are kept.

• Types of Physical Science Laboratories in Schools

• Various types of laboratories are shown in the following diagramme:

• Laboratories For High Schools

• At high school level in our country there are three types of science labs. They are:
  (i) Lecture-Room-cum-laboratory
  (ii) All purpose laboratory
  (iii) Lecture Theatre-cum-laboratory.

• Lecture-room-cum-laboratory was originally suggested by Dr. R.H. Whitehouse Formerly Principal Central Training Institute, Lahore.

• Lecture-Room-Cum Laboratory
  (i) The Lay Out : In this plan, it is suggested to have a room of 45’x25’ for a class.
  This lecture room can accommodate 40 to 50 students. In the laboratory 20 to 25 students can work for the science practicals.
  (ii) Walls and Floor : Walls and floor of the lecture room-cum-laboratory should be tough and durable.
  (iii) Doors : For getting more sunlight and fresh air the rooms should have doors facing north.
  (iv) Windows : Three windows each 6’ x 8’ x 8 should be provided on the side opposite to the doors.
  (v) Furnishing of Lecture Room :
    (i) Black board : There should be a blackboard of 10’x 4’ size,
    (ii) Teacher’s table : It should be at a distance of about three feet. The size of the table should be 6’x 2’ high so that it may also be used as a demonstration table.
    (iii) Seats : The lecture room should be have seating arrangement for 40 students.

• All Purpose Laboratory
  • This type of laboratory may serve the dual purpose of practical as well as theory work. It is also known as integrated plan of both physical and life sciences.

• Lecture-cum-Laboratory
  • This is the plan suggested by panel for science in secondary school as given in its report on science teaching in schools by UNESCO. The details of this plan are given below:
    (i) Location : According to this plan the laboratory should be located on a groundfloor on extreme side of school so that other classes may not be disturbed and permits, extension of the laboratory may be done if finances.
    (ii) Layout : The panel has suggested 825 square feet area for 42 students.
    (iii) Furnishing : The panel preferred portable furniture. According to this panel there should be tables of \(4 \times 1 \frac{3}{4} \times 2 \frac{1}{2}\) for laboratory ‘B’ alongwith the provision of under shelves to keep books etc.
• Laboratories For Intermediate Colleges
  • At + 2, stage, the science students have to study physics, chemistry and biology etc. Therefore, there should be separate laboratories in each subject. The laboratories and lecture rooms may be developed of almost the same type as found in colleges.

• List of Equipment and Material

• Chemistry Laboratory
  • The chemistry laboratory should be equipped with the following:
  (i) One Demonstration table of 8’x 4’ size, along with shelves, cupboards and acid proof tops, and also with gas and water fittings.
  (ii) One chalkboard and one sliding; chalkboard.
  (iii) Working tables with cupboard and with water and gas fittings and with acid proof tops.
  (iv) Projected plate form in the wall for balances or separate balance room.
  (v) Shelves for keeping chemical reagents. These may be fitted on the working tables or in the walls.

• Biology Laboratory

• List of Items:
  • Prepared Permanent Slides:
    (iii) Animal Cells (4) Plan Cells, (5) Mitosis (Different Stages), (6) Meiosis (Different Stages)
  • Preserved Specimens

• Essentials For Any Subject Laboratory
  (i) There should be 30 sq. ft. space for each student.
  (ii) Every lab. should have one store room. It may also be use as the preparation room or the separate preparation room may be provided.
  (iii) Appropriate benches are necessary while working with science tools in the lab.

• Carlyle has aptly said, “The ultimate aim of education is to teach boys how to read once they learn to read, education will take care of itself.”
  (i) It is a collection of a “background material” which can be drawn upon to enrich the work of the curriculum.
  (ii) It is a place where the use of books as sources of information may be taught and practised.
  (iii) It provides material to inspire and develop a pupil’s extra-mural interests and pursuits.

• Objectives of the School Library
  (i) To facilitate the instructional programme for the teacher. With a wide variety of text and reference books related to various school subjects, library facilitates the instructional
programme. It provides reading materials to the pupil for answering questions, doing assignments and solving problems.

(ii) To teach a skilful use of books for self-education.

(iii) To create an atmosphere conducive to the growth of reading habits.

- Important Library Resources

- The headmaster is the major component of school management. On his ability and skill, personality and professional competence largely depend on the tone and efficiency of the school. “Schools are good or bad, in a healthy or unhealthy mental moral and physical condition, flourishing or perishing as the headmaster is capable, energetic and high ideals or the reverse.

- Role of Headmaster

- The following are the main roles of a headmaster of a school:
  
  (i) Leadership behaviour.

  (ii) Alert to the forces of environment.

  (iii) Selection of goals.

  (iv) Knowledge and professional training.

  (v) Loving the teachers, students and parents.

  (vi) Sound physical health.

  (vii) Sound attitude towards life.

  (viii) Winning of faith.

  (ix) Supervision of each Teacher’s work.

  (x) Right delegation of authority.

- The details of the above roles are given in the following paras.

- Headmaster Duties

- The headmaster is supposed to discharge numerous duties which may be grouped under two heads (1) General duties, and (2) Specific duties.

- General Duties of Headmaster

  (i) Duties before the session.

  (ii) Duties thought the year, and.

  (iii) Duties at the end of the session.

    (i) Duties before the Commencement of the Academic Year: Before the commencement of the academic year the following items demand and careful attention on his part:

    (i) Preparation of a school calendar showing details of different courses, co-curricular activities, rates of tuition fees, school timings, duration of the class-period or recesses, a list of holidays, the practice for the collection of tuition fees;

    (ii) Provision of teaching, clerical and other staff;

    (ii) Duties on the Opening Day: The opening day of the school must be planned with great care. The classrooms, the library, the lavatories, the laboratories should be spick and span to receive the new comers.

    (iii) Duties Throughout the Year: One or two weeks preliminary work would settle the major issues. After that the headmaster has to the supervisory programme, organise the guidance service, arrange medical examination of children, check the evaluation programmes, send internal assessment marks and inform parents regarding the deficiencies of their children.
3.13 Keywords

- Elementary: In or connected with the first stages of a course of study.
- Primary education: Education for children between the age 5 to 11.
- Secondary education: Education for young people between the ages of 11 and 16 or 18.

3.14 Review Questions

1. What do you understand by management of an education institution?
2. Explain the various aspects of management at primary and secondary level of Education.
3. How many types of laboratories are there in secondary schools. Explain.
4. What are the different types of records used in the schools and colleges?
5. Explain different approaches of lesson plan.

Answers: Self Assessment

1. (i) need based (ii) facilities (iii) Centrally located (iv) school furniture (v) one fifth (vi) Ventillation (vii) Laboratory
2. (i) T (ii) F (iii) T (iv) T (v) F (vi) F

3.15 Further Readings

Objectives

The Objectives of this unit can be summarized as below:
• to know the mean of SWOT
• to know SWOT as an essential tool for strategic planning.
• to know SWOT analysis is used to formulate strategies.
• to know Pros and Cons of using SWOT in strategic planning.

Introduction

SWOT Analysis is widely used in the business world but not exposed to many employees. They are used by high level management staffs. Unit is about a brief concepts of SWOT Analysis aimed to provide a basic understanding of SWOT Analysis.

4.1 Meaning of SWOT Analysis

S.W.O.T. is an abbreviation for Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats. So, what constitute these factors in our real life applications?

As a general guideline, S.W.O.T. May be categorized into two factors. They are the commonly known external and internal factors.

The external factors refer to elements that are normally outside your own control and most of the time deal with external environmental factors. Example factors are: political, economic, societal and technological in short commonly known as P.E.S.T. Within the S.W.O.T., Opportunities and threats belongs to this category.

On the other hand, Internal factor refers to factors that are internal in nature and normally within your own control. Examples of factors are capabilities related factors such as production capability, market knowledge, management of distributors etc. Within the S.W.O.T., Strengths and Weaknesses are internal factors.

In real life application, how do you differential between all the four factors. To explain, it with a situation as below:
Notes

S.W.O.T. is an abbreviation for Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats. As you can see, the S.W.O.T. consists of four factors each clearly has its own identity and purpose. S.W.O.T is commonly classified as External and Internal Factors. For the External factors, it consists of the Opportunities and Threats, whereas the Internal Factors are Strengths and Weaknesses. S.W.O.T. or S.W.O.T. Analysis as it may sometimes being called can be performed in a variety of application or situation. It can be used as a situation analysis as an input into a strategic planning process at corporate of company level. It can also apply to evaluate the situation in terms of its capabilities. We use S.W.O.T. as a situation analysis tool.

In common practice, S.W.O.T. Analysis is performed during the Strategic Planning or School budget session normally done at the end of a financial year. But to perform a S.W.O.T. should not be limited to a yearly affair. We may perform a S.W.O.T. Analysis whenever it is needed to help you to identify causes of a non-conformance and you needed a new solution or strategy.

In most cases, leaders of an organization perform a S.W.O.T. Analysis. However, it should not be limited to this group of people. In fact, anyone who has an interest and trained can perform a S.W.O.T. Analysis for the situation they are in. I have many situations where heads of a department perform a S.W.O.T. Analysis for their own operation issues because they want to develop solutions based on facts.

As data collection is one of the key activities in S.W.O.T. analysis, it should allow enough time to bring back the data.

In summary, with some basic understanding of S.W.O.T. Analysis, the solution derived from it can be value add to the organization.

1-3 month before a S.W.O.T. Analysis session is conducted. Once the data is collected, it should be grouped into the four factors. This can be done individually or in a team.

Self Assessment

1. Fill in the blanks:
   (i) We use ...................... as a situation analysis tool.
   (ii) P.E.S.T. stands for ......................... .
   (iii) Internal factors refer to factors that are internal in normally within your own ....................
   (iv) SWOT analysis is performed during the strategic planning or business budget session normally done at the end of a ..................... .
   (v) Within SWOT, strengths and weaknesses are ......................... factors.

4.2 SWOT: Essential Tool for Strategic Planning

SWOT Analysis is one of the effective analytical tools to evaluate a situation. The situation may be strategic related or capabilities related. SWOT Analysis is often used along with Strategic planning and it forms one of the key critical success factors in a Strategic Planning Process.

While detail Analysis is performed, it can become a complex process because it entails several data analysis involves external factors such as Political, Economical, Societal and Technological in short called P.E.S.T. Besides, it also examines internal factors such as operational capabilities as compared to the competitors.
To recap, S.W.O.T. is an abbreviation for Strengths-Weaknesses-Opportunities-Threats. It represents a group of four factors which data are collected to reflect each of these four factors. These four factors are categorized into Internal and External Factors.

### 4.2.1 How to Collect Relevant Data for the S.W.O.T.?

In order to use the SWOT Analysis for the Strategic Planning, you need to understand how to collect the data for the SWOT factors.

Let’s start with the Strengths. To collect data for the Strengths in relation to your competitor, you may use the following guides:

- What are the advantages of your company over your competitor?
- What are some of the customer benefit you can offer?
- What are some your customer relationship?
- What are some of the offers to customer your can fulfilled?
- What are some of the low cost operation capabilities?
- What are your financial strengths?

Similar to the Strengths, Weaknesses is another internal factor that deals with the weaknesses of the operation. The impact of these weaknesses is more urgent when compared it with the competitors who are ahead of you. Below is the guideline you can use to identify weaknesses:

- What are some of the setback with your company or operation
- What are some of the “out-dated” or inefficient equipment?
- What are some of the bad customer experience?
- What are some of the repeated operation failure?
- What are some of the escalated cost components?

In the area of Opportunities, it is an external factor. When dealing with external factors, you have to be objectives. Keep focus on external factors that has an influence to the market and your sales opportunity and those are not within your control. You may use the following guidelines to help you to generate the list of opportunities:

- Political or Policy changes that may spur development
- Economic situation that encourage spending.
- Societal stability that may encourage harmony (more spending)
- Technological advancement that can accelerate your operation

In the area of Threats, it is another external factor you must deal with realistically and that the information has great impact to your business. Keep focus on external factors that has an influence to the market and your sales opportunity and those are not within your control. You may use the following guidelines to help you to generate the list of opportunities:

- Any new entrance to your industry?
- Any form of substitutions or alternatives
- What are some of the Political changes that influence the economy?
- Policy imposed that cost more in the long run
Notes

- Economic downturn in your own targeted market
- Societal instability
- Obsolete technology that hinder speed to market

Once you have completed the data collection for the four factors, you need to study the list to ensure they are clearly understood. You need to keep your list short probably within 10 items. You may make use of some TQM tools to help you. Examples of some of the TQM tools are selection grid, you and competitor matrix, with the finalized list the S.W.O.T. factor then it is ready be used to generate strategies options. I will cover this step in my next distribution.

Did you know? When generate the list of S.W.O.T., try to write the statement as precise and concise as possible. Ensure all members understand and interpret them correctly.

4.3 Application of SWOT Analysis in Formulating Strategies

This is perhaps the most powerful usage of SWOT Analysis in the Strategic Planning Process. By now, you would have collected several data pertaining to the Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats. Then you will use them to formulate strategy. Not sure how to do it?

4.3.1 Evaluate the Surrounding

Let's take a moment to think about both of us as the coach for two teams of football teams.

4.3.2 Identify the Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats

Now, it is time to evaluate the teams in the four factors of SWOT. Let's take the following examples as the result of the evaluation:-

**Strengths** - Your team full of fighting spirit

**Weaknesses** - One of your team members is hurt

**Opportunities** - Your opposition team seems to lose stamina

**Threats** - Your opposition team is full of energy

Some of these factors seem to be conflicting each other. For the purpose of this step, this conflict is ignored.

4.3.3 Pair the SWOT factors to formulate strategies

Now, you would start to formulate strategies in the four categories. Namely:-

- SO Strategies (Strengths and Opportunities Strategy)
- ST Strategies (Strengths and Threats Strategy)
- WO Strategies (Weaknesses and Opportunities Strategy)
- WT Strategies (Weaknesses and Threats Strategy)

In this case, your strength is "your team is full of fighting spirit" and paired with your opportunities is "Opposite team is losing stamina". With this scenario, what would you do? Perhaps you formulate a strategy to "ATTACK". There it goes, you just formulate a attacking strategy.

Then you do the same procedure for SW Strategies, WO strategies and WT strategies.
4.3.4 Evaluate the strategic options

At the end of this paring of SWOT factors, you would have end up several strategic options. Do a quick evaluation of each of these strategies to the extent of meeting the company objectives.

4.3.5 Selecting Strategic Options

At this step, you would have a long list of strategic options. Too many strategies to implement may not be practical. Therefore, you need to shorten the list to perhaps maximum three strategies.

After you have completed all the 5 steps to use SWOT Analysis to Formulate Strategies, you have a list of strategies for you to implement to your business.

Self Assessment

2. Multiple choice questions:

   Choose the correct option

   (i) In SWOT, T stands for
       (a) Tree    (b) Threats    (c) Teacher    (d) Time

   (ii) In P.E.S.T, S stands for
        (a) Societal    (b) Success    (c) Sculpture    (d) Scientist

   (iii) How many factors are involved in SWOT analysis?
         (a) 5    (b) 6    (c) 4    (d) 10

   (iv) How many strategies are pairing of SWOT factors?
        (a) 4    (b) 7    (c) 8    (d) 3

4.4 Pros and Cons of using SWOT in Strategic Planning

You may have gained some basic understanding of SWOT Analysis. You like to start using it for your work or your personal objectives. Whichever way you do it, it will bring about a your desired outcome because the data you collected for the Four factors of S.W.O.T. is objective and relevant.

If you have put the SWOT Analysis into real life practice, you could have faced with some difficulties in using it. But don't worry too much, as more practice would gain better experience with SWOT Analysis.

4.4.1 PROS

1. Factual data are available to understand external factors as well as internal capabilities
2. Get a chance to evaluate the external opportunities and threats
3. A factual evaluation of own strengths and Weaknesses as compared with competitors
4. Open up a new dimension of competitive position

4.4.2 CONS

1. Time consuming
2. Data collected may not be current (member may take past single even to make conclusion)
3. Differences in opinion due to difference understanding of the SWOT process
4. Form own opinion of an event instead of base on factual information

While you go through the SWOT Analysis yourself, you may encounter various different experiences. Feel free to add your experience into the list above. More importantly, it is for you to take advantage of the PRONS and avoid the CONS
4.5 Summary

- S.W.O.T. is an abbreviation for Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats.
- S.W.O.T is commonly classified an External and Internal Factors. For the External factors, it consists of the Opportunities and Threats, whereas the Internal Factors are Strengths and Weaknesses.
- In common practice, S.W.O.T. Analysis is performed during the Strategic Planning or Business budget session normally done at the end of a financial year.
- The external factors refer to elements that are normally outside your own control and most of the time deal with external environmental factors. Example factors are: political, economic, societal and technological in short commonly known as P.E.S.T. Within the S.W.O.T., Opportunities and threats belongs to this category.
- On the other hand, Internal factor refers to factors that are internal in nature and normally within your own control. Examples of factors are capabilities related factors such as production capability, market knowledge, management of distributors etc. Within the S.W.O.T., Strengths and Weaknesses are internal factors.
- SWOT Analysis is one of the effective analytical tools to evaluate a situation. The situation may be strategic related or capabilities related. SWOT Analysis is often used along with Strategic planning and it forms one of the key critical success factors in a Strategic Planning Process.

Self Assessment

3. State whether the following statements one ‘True or False’:
   (i) In PROS factual date are available to understand external factors as well as internal factors.
   (ii) CONS is not time consuming.
   (iii) Data collected may not be current.

4.6 Keywords

- Strategic : Done as a part of a plan to achieve a particular purpose.
- Economic : Connected with the trade, industry and development of wealth of a country.
- Political : A time when a particular situation makes it possible to do or achieve something.

4.7 Review Questions

1. How do collect relevant data for the SWOT?
2. What do you mean by SWOT?
3. What consists of SWOT?
4. Give a short note on PROS an CONS.

Answer: Self Assessment

1. (i) SWOT (ii) Political, Economical, Societal and Technological (iii) Control (iv) Financial year (v) internal
2. (i) (b) (ii) (a) (iii) (c) (iv) (a)
3. (i) True (ii) False (iii) True
4.8 Further Readings


Unit 5: Application of SWOT Analysis at Various Levels of Education

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Objectives
The Objectives of this unit can be summarized as below:
• to know about the definition.
• to know about the SWOT analysis at elementary (primary) and secondary levels of education.
• to know about the SWOT analysis of Indian higher education.
• to know about the SWOT analysis at higher secondary level of education.

Introduction
A SWOT analysis is a tool that can provide prompts to the governors, management teachers and staff involved in the analysis of what is effective and less effective in the schools systems and procedures, in preparation for a plan of some form (that could be an audit, assessments, quality checks etc.). In fact a SWOT can be used for any planning or analysis activity which could impact future finance, planning and management decisions. It can enable you (the governors and management) to carry out a more comprehensive analysis. We shall discuss about the SWOT analysis in Education levels.

5.1 Definitions
SWOT analysis contains four components, the definitions of the components are as follows:
• Strengths: Factors that are likely to have a positive effect on (or be an enabler to) achieving the educational objectives
• Weaknesses: Factors that are likely to have a negative effect on (or be a barrier to) achieving the educational objectives
• Opportunities: External Factors that are likely to have a positive effect on achieving or exceeding the educational objectives, or goals not previously considered
• **Threats:** External Factors and conditions that are likely to have a negative effect on achieving the educational objectives, or making the objective redundant or un-achievable.

5.2 **SWOT Analysis at Elementary (Primary) and Secondary Levels of Education**

**Strength**

Indian children represent an excellent source of global intellectual capital.

(i) India has a huge untapped reservoir of productive and creative human capital. Properly stimulated, this 'unutilized brainpower' can be transformed to generate massive economic, social and cultural returns for the country.

(ii) Given its low-cost education structure, India presents one of the best opportunities in the world for generating returns from investment in education. Modest injections of capital and resources can produce significant improvements in education quality and output.

(iii) Quality teacher training can bring about quantum improvements in learning and increase the practical and creative output of students and teachers.

(iv) There exist a number of effective low-cost teaching methods to educate and rapidly disseminate useful skills and knowledge to those that need them most.

**Opportunities**

(i) Many rural teachers demonstrate openness to new ideas and high innate levels of creativity, often of a higher level than that found among urban teachers.

(ii) There has been little attempt by educators in the country to improve rural education, where the motivation among children to attend class is low because of such factors as negative parental pressure, poor facilities and uninspired teaching.

(iii) There is high enthusiasm for learning and experimenting among children. Right stimuli can create an explosion in creativity and productivity in rural India.

(iv) Urban schools with their greater resources can play a catalytic role in the growth of rural education. Urban schools therefore need to adopt a proactive community-building role.

(v) Given resource limitations a case can be made to focus on low capital-intensive skill-based education. Given the real limitation of resources, e.g. lack of adequate physical facilities, books and materials, a case can be made to focus on skill-based education, which requires less capital and can be effectively and widely disseminated. At science workshops for 30,000 rural children sponsored by AGASTYA, over 100 experiments were demonstrated using low-cost everyday materials.

(vi) Students to think independently, freely express themselves, get them to believe in themselves, protect and stimulate their imagination and creativity, he added.

(vii) "If India is to truly rise as a global economic power, it must focus its efforts on creating a world class education system. Adequate resources, higher standards for teachers and the flushing out of corruption must be part of a reforms package that seeks to make Indian education the nation’s top priority.

(viii) There can be no greater foundation for a rising India than a strong educational system. Discovering new answers, not reproducing the work of others, could enable India to advance its economy and society at a much more rapid clip.
Implementing educational reforms is the best way for India to truly harness the power of its demographic dividend.

**Weaknesses**

(i) Education in most schools is one dimensional, with an obsessive focus on marks. The products of Indian school education tend to be narrow minded and even selfish in their aims and approach.

(ii) There is little focus on nurturing:
   (a) Behavioral skills - teamwork, leadership, community
   (b) Application skills
   (c) Creative-thinking skills

(iii) Teachers generally have limited knowledge of how to spark creativity in children.

(iv) The knowledge transmitted to children is therefore bookish. Few opportunities exist for children to apply their knowledge to real life situations.

(v) Children are rarely encouraged to participate in community-based activities such as working with disadvantaged groups or the environment.

(vi) The shortfall of teachers is over 3 million. India needs 7 - 8 million primary/secondary school teachers, versus the 3 - 4 million available.

(vii) Instilling the right type of skills in teachers and implementing a process to transfer such skills and knowledge effectively through the system would have a powerful 'multiplier effect' on the entire system of learning.

(viii) Most of them lack an overarching and inspirational vision. Given the increasing demand for 'quality schools' by the growing Indian middle class and the willingness of parents to invest significant money in their children's education, many schools are promoted as commercial ventures, rather than as centers of excellence.

(ix) Indian primary and secondary schools suffer from the additional weaknesses of infrastructure limitations and inefficiency. The shortcomings are likely as damaging in the long run as the high levels of corruption. Poor infrastructure at schools makes teaching even harder. The 2011 Annual Status of Education report found that roughly 51 percent of schools didn’t have available lavatories, while 26 percent of schools had no drinking water.

(x) Inefficient teaching methods, such as rote learning, which focuses on memorization as opposed to critical reasoning, are also widespread at secondary school level. The rote teaching methodology has demonstrated shortcomings. Studies by the Program for International Students Assessment, an OECD initiative, and Wipro, an Indian consulting firm, found that students secondary school level have regressed in math, science, and reading literacy in recent years.

Not only is the rote method detrimental to currently enrolled students, but it's also more difficult to address than infrastructural or corruption issues, as it has become an institutionalized practice.
Threats

"The focus on exams and marks in urban schools is like winning a 100 meter race on steroids."

(i) Private resources for promoting rural education are minimal to non-existent. Allocated public resources are more often than not, not effectively utilized.

(ii) Single teacher schools, most of them with just a single room, are unable to provide even the basic environment for learning

(iii) Lack of adequate classroom facilities means that children from different age groups typically sit in the same classroom, leading to boredom and disinterest.

(iv) Driven by pressing short-term economic needs, most parents are reluctant to send their children to school. They often pose obstacles to learning. In some cases, the State has to offer incentives, such as subsidized rice through the mid-day meal scheme to attract children to school.

(v) Even a cursory interaction with naturally bright rural children and teachers reinforces the view that there is indeed a huge amount of unutilized talent and creativity, which if given even the most basic opportunity will produce major benefits for the community and country.

(vi) Many rural teachers have the "hunger" and desire to learn and teach. They are interested in acquiring new skills and show high levels of innate creativity. Some are even so committed as to have spent money out of their own pockets to provide basic learning materials for their students.

(vii) There is little to no transfer of technology, knowledge or ideas from better-endowed urban institutions to their rural counterparts. The reason for this is not lack of money as much as the lack of interest and concern for community.

(viii) Even small injections of money and resources in kind, such as part-time volunteer teachers, can produce major improvements in the existing quality of teaching and learning opportunities available to rural children.

(xi) Teaching and learning methods used in most schools discourage questioning, learning, application and creativity.

(x) An education system focused on exams and marks ("factory approach") has produced few world-class creators and original thinkers.

Self Assessment

1. Fill in the blanks

(i) India has a huge untapped reservoir of ............... and .......... human capital.

(ii) There is high enthusiasm for ............... and experimenting among children.

(iii) Education in most schools is one dimensional with an ................. focus on marks.

(iv) The knowledge transmitted to ............... is bookish.

(v) Most of them lack an overarching and ................. vision.

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Caution

SWOT analysis is a qualitative tool which by identifying the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats to the Indian higher education makes an overall assessment of the Indian Universities education system.
5.3 SWOT Analysis at Higher Secondary Level of Education

Strengths

(1) Indians have become the richest and the most skilled ethnic community in abroad by the virtue of the highest education and human resources.

(2) Higher education is highly subsidized and, thus it is accessible to the poorest of the poor.

(3) It is equity & accessibilities principle has enabled many of the economically poor to acquire higher education.

(4) Higher education has proved as an instrument of social change.

Weaknesses

(1) No provision of academic audit in Universities and Colleges.

(2) Lack of quest for quality in majority of institutions.

(3) Academic heads in majority of Universities, Colleges at the faculty level are elected by majority, not selected on merit. Decision making in universities is highly centralized. Complicated office procedures and administrative staff are not professionally trained.

(4) Students are not involved as partners in decision-making process. Multiple apex agencies like UGC, AICTE, NAAC, NBA, etc. are often overlapping functions. Autonomy of universities and institutions has not correspondingly increased the accountability. Lack of equality of educational opportunities.

(5) Uniform fee structure, irrespective of economic status and affordability of students.

(6) Multiple entrance tests for similar courses burdening students. No student assessment/feedback.

(7) No campus recruitment as well as part time job likes foreign universities in higher education.

Opportunities

(1) The percentage of NET/SLET examination results of a University may be taken as one of the key parameters of performance of a University/Institution.

(2) Gains in the information technology are to be taken to advantage education sector. Flexibility can be allowed for students in selections of curriculum.

(3) Removal of roadblocks in opening of educational institutions as done in the sectors of trade, industry and commerce. Apex agencies like UGC, AICTE have to pursue the responsibility of setting up and monitoring the academic standards.

(4) Private Universities may be allowed to be set up and their functions must be monitored and facilitated by the govt. agencies.

(5) Interface to be created between university-society, university-local community and university-industry.

(6) Universities required to react at pace with the global changes in other sectors. Students are needed to be treated as clients and the Universities have to work more towards satisfaction of the changing needs and ambition of the students.

Threats

(1) Professional education to a significant extent is commercialized despite the intervention of the government.

(2) Majority of the students are studying traditional courses out of compulsion and lack of alternative but without an interest to pursue them earnestly.
(3) Art education and science streams have become endangered and hardly few takers are there for them.

(4) Several courses are run just for sake of survival of those departments and to sustain the jobs of teachers.

(5) Lack of academic audit mechanism makes it less possible to provide financial assistance on the basis of academic quality and output instead of numerical parameters.

(6) State government, which has larger role, has taken insufficient care of improving the quality of education.

What are the weaknesses of higher secondary level of education.

5.4 SWOT Analysis of Indian Higher Education

Indian higher education is one of the best and the second biggest in the World after U.S.A. India is anticipated as one of the Nations to lead the future scenario. During independence there were 20 Universities, 500 Colleges with 2,40,000 students. Today there are more than 300 University level Institutions and 13,000 Colleges with approximately 10 Million students. There are more than 4,30,000 teachers engaged in teaching in these Institutions. When we compare the higher education with the other developed and leading developing countries we find that only 7.5% of Indian youth in the age group of 17 -23 years are studying in the institutions of higher education whereas 15.22% of the youth access to the higher education in many other countries. Compared to India many of the institutions of higher education in abroad have excellent infrastructure, resources, faculty developing programs and research but the same cannot be said about the institutions of higher education in India. In this paper, an attempt has been made to comprehend the present status of the higher education system through the SWOT analysis, a prevalent technique of management studies.

Central and State Universities, Deemed Universities, Institutions of National Importance, Research Institutions and Colleges for General Education in Arts, Sciences and Commerce and Colleges for Professional Education are regarded as the Institutions of Higher education in India. Most of the Institutions of Higher education can be called Public Institutions in sense that either these are directly run by the Union or State Governments or Receiving Substantial Grants from the Government.

Self Assessment

2. State whether the following statements are 'True' of 'False'

(i) Indians have become the richest and the most skilled ethnic community in abroad by the virtue of the highest education and human resources.

(ii) Higher education has not proved as an instrument of social change.

(iii) Going in the information technology are to be taken to advantage education sector.

(iv) Several courses are not run just for sake of survival of those departments and to sustain the jobs of teachers.

(v) Indian higher education is one of the best and the second biggest in the world after U.S.A.

5.5 Summary

- A SWOT analysis is a tool that can provide prompts to the governors, management teachers and staff involved in the analysis of what is effective and less effective in the schools systems
and procedures, in preparation for a plan of some form (that could be an audit, assessments, quality checks etc.).

• Education in most schools is one dimensional, with an obsessive focus on marks. The products of Indian school education tend to be narrow minded and even selfish in their aims and approach.

• Even a cursory interaction with naturally bright rural children and teachers reinforces the view that there is indeed a huge amount of unutilized talent and creativity, which if given even the most basic opportunity will produce major benefits for the community and country.

• Indian higher education is one of the best and the second biggest in the World after U.S.A.

• When we compare the higher education with the other developed and leading developing countries we find that only 7.5% of Indian youth in the age group of 17 -23 years are studying in the institutions of higher education whereas 15.22% of the youth access to the higher education in many other countries.

• Central and State Universities, Deemed Universities, Institutions of National Importance, Research Institutions and Colleges for General Education in Arts, Sciences and Commerce and Colleges for Professional Education are regarded as the Institutions of Higher education in India.

5.6 Keywords

• **Application** : a formal (often written) request for something.

• **Reservoir** : a natural or artificial lake where water is stored before it is taken by pipes to house, etc.

• **Scenario** : a description of how things might happen in the future.

5.7 Review Questions

1. Define SWOT analysis.

2. Explain the SWOT analysis at the higher level of higher education.

3. Explain SWOT analysis at elementary and secondary level of education.

4. Write about Indian education system of India.

**Answer: Self Assessment**

1. (i) Productive, creative (ii) learning (iii) obsessive (iv) children (v) Inspirational

2. (i) True (ii) False (iii) True (iv) False (v) True

5.8 Further Readings

1. The Principles and Practice of Educational Management: *Tony Bush, Les Bell, SAGE Publisher, 2002.*

2. Educational Management: *Strategy, Quality, and Resources, Margaret Preedy, Ron Glatter, Publisher Open University Press, 1997.*

Unit 6: Managerial Process and its Importance

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Objectives
Introduction
6.1 History
6.2 Need of Management
6.3 Meaning of Management Process
6.4 Definition of Management Process
6.5 Functions of Management
6.6 Elements of Management Process
6.7 Importance of Management
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6.11 Further Readings

Objectives
The Objectives of this unit can be summarized as below:
• to describe about history of management.
• to explain about need of management.
• to discuss about meaning of management process.
• to explain about the functions of management process.
• to discuss about elements of management process.
• to describe about importance of management.

Introduction
Management is a managerial process. The tasks of getting results through others by coordinating their efforts is known as management. Management ensures effective use of managers so that the benefits of their experience, skills and maturity are available to the enterprise. Management ensures smooth, orderly and continues functioning of an enterprise over a long period. It also raises the efficiency, productivity and profitability of an enterprise. Efficient management reduces labour turnover and absenteeism and ensures continuity in the business activities and operations. In this unit we will discuss about managerial process and its importance.

6.1 History
The recorded use of organised management dates back to 5000 B.C. when the agricultural revolution had taken place. These agricultural civilizations existed in India, China and Egypt According to Peter Drucker these irrigation civilizations "were not only one of the great ages of technology, but it represented also mankind's most productive age of social and political innovation". As the villages
grew and civilizations evolved, the managers too grew and evolved. They became the priests, the kings, the ministers holding power and wealth in the society. Written documents found in the Sumerian civilization which flourished some 5000 years ago, contains evidence of management control practices.

As early as 4000 B.C., the Egyptians were aware of the importance of planning, organising and controlling. The huge pyramids of Egypt stand a mute testimony to the managerial and organizational abilities of the ancient Egyptian civilization.

In the Grecian civilization we find the origin of the Scientific Method in the famous Socratic discourses. The Romans who built a vast empire extending from Britain in the west to Syria in the east ruled it for many years only because of their superior and advanced managerial abilities.

In ancient India Kautilya wrote his Arthashastra in about 321 B.C. the major theme of which was political, social and economic management of the State. The study of administration of the cities of Mohenjodaro and Harappa of the ancient Aryans in 2000 B. C., Buddha’s order and the Sangha in 530 B. C., provide evidence about the use of the principles of management.

During the 13th and 14th centuries AD the large trading houses of Italy needed a means of keeping records of their business transactions. To satisfy their needs Luca Pacioli published a treatise in 1494 describing the Double Entry System of Book-keeping for the first time.

Management thought is an evolutionary concept. New theories and principles were suggested along with new developments in the business field. The new thoughts supplemented the existing thoughts and theories. This is how developments are taking place continuously in regard to management thoughts/theories. Management thinkers and thinkers from other fields such as economics, psychology, sociology and mathematics have also made their contribution in the evolution of management thought.

**6.2 Need of Management**

1. Direction, coordination and control of group efforts: In business, many persons work together. They need proper direction and guidance for raising their efficiency. In the absence of guidance, people will work as per their desire and the, orderly working of enterprise will not be possible. Management is needed for planning business activities, for guiding employees in the right direction and finally for coordinating their efforts for achieving best/most favorable results.

2. Orderly achievement of business objectives: Efficient management is needed in order to achieve the objectives of business activity in an orderly and quick manner.

3. Performance of basic managerial functions: Planning, Organising, Co-ordinating and Controlling are the basic functions of management. Management is needed as these functions are performed through the management process.

4. Effective communication at all levels: Management is needed for effective communication within and outside the Organisation.

5. Motivation of employees: Management is needed for motivating employees and also for coordinating their efforts so as to achieve business objectives quickly.

Self Assessment

1. Multiple choice questions :
   Choose the correct option
   (i) In the making of one pyramid required ..................... men.
   (a) 1 lakh  (b) 2 lakh  (c) 50 thousand  (d) 25 thousand
   (ii) Luca Pacioli published a treatise describing the double entry system of book keeping in the year ................... .
   (a) 1590  (b) 1494  (c) 1500  (d) 2009
   (iii) ...................... is not a function of management process.
   (a) Planning  (b) Organising  (c) Co-ordinating  (d) Stability

6.3 Meaning of Management Process

The term management is explained in different ways. For example, it is said that management is what management does. Here, management is explained with reference to its basic functions which include planning, organising, coordinating and controlling. Similarly, management is described as a process which involves various elements. Management process is a continuous one and is run by the managers functioning at different levels. Management is now recognised as a distinct process in which managers plan, organise, lead, motivate and control human efforts in order to achieve well defined goals. In fact, process means a series of activities/operations undertaken/conducted for achieving a specific objective. Process is a systematic way of doing things. For example, in a factory there is a production process. Similarly, in the management process, resources and human efforts are used in an orderly manner for achieving specific objectives. The management process suggests functions to be performed by the managers.

6.4 Definition of Management Process

1. According to D. E. McFarland, "Management is the distinct process by which the managers create, direct, maintain and operate purposive organisation through systematic, co-coordinated and cooperative human efforts".

2. According to Gemp R. Terry, "Management is a distinct process consisting of planning, organising, actuating, and controlling, performed to determine and accomplish objectives by the use of people and other resources".
6.5 Functions of Management

The essential elements/components of Management Process are four.

(a) Planning  
(b) Organising  
(c) Directing and  
(d) Controlling.

We may add some more elements in the management process. Such elements are:-

(i) Motivating  
(ii) Co-coordinating  
(iii) Staffing and  
(iv) Communicating.

The elements in the management process are actually the basic functions of management these functions constitute the management process in practice. Management process is in fact, management in practice. This process suggests what a manager is supposed to, do or the basic functions that he has to perform while managing the job assigned to him.

Gullic coined the word "PODSCORB" to suggest seven functions of management.

The following figures show the management process and the elements involved:

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**Did you know?** Luther Gullic gave a new formula to suggest the elements of Management Process i.e. basic functions of management. According to him, management process may be indicated by the word "PODSCORB". Here, 'P' states for 'planning', 'O' for 'organising', 'D' for 'directing', 'S' for 'Staffing', 'CO' for 'Coordinating, 'R' for 'Reporting' and 'B' for 'Budgeting'.

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**Self Assessment**

2. Fill in the blanks:

(i) Management is the distinct .................... by which the managers create, direct, maintain and operate purposive organisation.

(ii) The four essential elements of management process are ...................., organising, directing and controlling.

(iii) The ........................... in the management process are the basic functions of management these functions constitutes.

(iv) Process means a .................... of activities undertaken for achieving a specific objective..
6.6 Elements of Management Process

1. **Planning**: Planning is the primary function of management. It involves determination of a course of action to achieve desired results/objectives. Planning is the starting point of management process and all other functions of management are related to and dependent on planning function. Planning is the key to success, stability and prosperity in business. It acts as a tool for solving the problems of a business unit. Planning plays a pivotal role in business management. It helps to visualize the future problems and keeps management ready with possible solutions.

2. **Organising**: Organising is next to planning. It means to bring the resources (men, materials, machines, etc.) together and use them properly for achieving the objectives. Organising is a process as well as it is a structure. Organising means arranging ways and means for the execution of a business plan. It provides suitable administrative structure and facilitates execution of proposed plan. Organising involves different aspects such as departmentation, span of control, delegation of authority, establishment of superior-subordinate relationship and provision of mechanism for co-ordination of various business activities.

3. **Staffing**: Staffing refers to manpower required for the execution of a business plan. Staffing, as a managerial function, involves recruitment, selection, appraisal, remuneration and development of managerial personnel. The need of staffing arises in the initial period and also from time to time for replacement and also along with the expansion and diversification of business activities. Every business unit needs efficient, stable and cooperative staff for the management of business activities. Manpower is the most important asset of a business unit. In many organisations, manpower planning and development activities are entrusted to personnel manager or HRD manager. ‘Right man for the right job’ is the basic principle in staffing.

4. **Directing (Leading)**: Directing as a managerial function, deals with guiding and instructing people to do the work in the right manner. Directing/leading is the responsibility of managers at all levels. They have to work as leaders of their subordinates. Clear plans and sound organisation set the stage but it requires a manager to direct and lead his men for achieving the objectives. Directing function is quite comprehensive. It involves Directing as well as raising the morale of subordinates. It also involves communicating, leading and motivating. Leadership is essential on the part of managers for achieving organisational objectives.

5. **Coordinating**: Effective coordination and also integration of activities of different departments are essential for orderly working of an Organisation. This suggests the importance of coordinating as management function. A manager must coordinate the work for which he is accountable. Co-ordination is rightly treated as the essence of management. It may be treated as an independent function or as a part of organisms function. Coordination is essential at all levels of management. It gives one clear-cut direction to the activities of individuals and departments. It also avoids misdirection and wastages and brings unity of action in the Organisation. Coordination will not come automatically or on its own. Special efforts are necessary on the part of managers for achieving such coordination.

6. **Controlling**: Controlling is an important function of management. It is necessary in the case of individuals and departments so as to avoid wrong actions and activities. Controlling involves three broad aspects: (a) establishing standards of performance, (b) measuring work in progress and interpreting results achieved, and (c) taking corrective actions, if required. Business plans do not give positive results automatically. Managers have to exercise effective control in order to bring success to a business plan. Control is closely linked with other managerial functions. It is rightly treated as the soul of management process. It is true that without planning there will be nothing to control. It is equally true that without control planning will be only an academic exercise. Controlling is a continuous activity of a supervisory nature.

7. **Motivating**: Motivating is one managerial function in which a manager motivates his men to give their best to the Organisation. It means to encourage people to take more interest and initiative in the work assigned. Organisations prosper when the employees are motivated through
special efforts including provision of facilities and incentives. Motivation is actually inspiring and encouraging people to work more and contribute more to achieve organisational objectives. It is a psychological process of great significance.

8. Communicating: Communication (written or oral) is necessary for the exchange of facts, opinions, ideas and information between individual's and departments. In an organisation, communication is useful for giving information, guidance and instructions. Managers should be good communicators. They have to use major portion of their time on communication in order to direct, motivate and co-ordinate activities of their subordinates. People think and act collectively through communication.

Notes

According to Louis Allen, "Communication involves a systematic and continuing process of telling, listening and understanding".

6.7 Importance of Management

1. Optimum utilisation of resources: Management facilitates optimum utilisation of available human and physical resources, which leads to progress and prosperity of a business enterprise. Even wastages of all types are eliminated or minimized.
2. Competitive strength: Management develops competitive strength in an enterprise. This enables an enterprise to develop and expand its assets and profits.
3. Cordial industrial relation: Management develops cordial industrial relations, ensures better life and welfare to employees and raises their morale through suitable incentives.
4. Motivation of employees: It motivates employees to take more interest and initiatives in the work assigned and contribute for raising productivity and profitability of the enterprise.
5. Introduction of new techniques: Management facilitates the introduction of new machines and new methods in the conduct of business activities. It also brings useful technological developments and innovations in the management of business activities.
6. Effective management: Society gets the benefits of efficient management in terms of industrial development, justice to different social groups, consumer satisfaction and welfare and proper discharge of social responsibilities.
7. Expansion of business: Expansion, growth and diversification of a business unit are possible through efficient management.
8. Brings stability and prosperity: Efficient management brings success, stability and prosperity to a business enterprise through cooperation among employees.
10. Creates sound organisation: A dynamic and progressive management guarantees development of sound Organisation, which can face any situation - favorable or unfavorable with ease and confidence.

Tasks

Give names of some mega projects which have fulfilled by proper managements.
The very survival of an enterprise depends on its management. Ineffective management leads to disastrous consequences. According to George Terry, "Ineffective management cuts at the very roots of economy of an enterprise's. This suggests the importance of efficient management. In brief, management occupies a unique position in the functioning of business enterprises. Its importance and positive role is accepted in all sector-private, public, joint and co-operative. Management is like a human brain. It is an integral aspect of business itself.

The importance of management is not fully realised in many developing countries. The economic progress of western countries is not merely due to abundant material resources but because they are efficiently managed and utilised. In other countries, resources are not utilised fully and properly due to lack of managerial skills. This suggests that management is a key factor in the working of business enterprises. There is no substitute to efficient management. An inefficiently managed business enterprise has no place in the present complex and competitive business world groups.

Self Assessment

3. State whether the following statements one ‘True or False’ :

(i) Planning is the function of management.
(ii) The need of staffing does not arise in the final period and also from time to time for replacement along with the expansion and diversification of business activities.
(iii) Manpower is the most important asset of a business unit.
(iv) Control is not closely linked with other managerial functions.
(v) The economic progress of western countries is not merely due to abundant material resources but because they are officially managed and utilised.

6.8 Summary

- Management is a managerial process the task of getting results through others by coordinating their efforts is known as management.
- Modern business is highly competitive and needs efficient and capable management for survival and growth. Management is needed as it occupies a unique position in the smooth functioning of a business unit.
- Management is explained with reference to its basic functions which include planning, organising, coordinating and controlling. Similarly, management is described as a process which involves various elements. Management process is a continuous one and is run by the managers functioning at different levels.
- The elements in the management process are actually the basic functions of management these functions constitute the management process in practice.
- In the management process, resources and human efforts are used in an orderly manner for achieving specific objectives.
- Planning is the primary function of management. It involves determination of a course of action to achieve desired results/objectives.
- Organising is next to planning. It means to bring the resources (men, materials, machines, etc.) together and use them properly for achieving the objectives.
- Staffing refers to manpower required for the execution of a business plan. Staffing, as managerial function.
- Directing as a managerial function, deals with guiding and instructing people to do the work in the right manner.
- Effective coordination and also integration of activities of different departments are essential for orderly working of an Organisation.
Notes

• Controlling is an important function of management. It is necessary in the case of individuals and departments so as to avoid wrong actions and activities.
• Motivating is one managerial function in which a manager motivates his men to give their best to the Organisation.
• Communication (written or oral) is necessary for the exchange of facts, opinions, ideas and information between individual's and departments.

6.9 Keywords

• Co-ordination : The act of making parts of something, groups of people etc. work to gather in an efficient and organised way.
• Control : The power to make decisions about how a country, an area etc. is run.
• Process : A series of things that are done in order to achieve a particular result.

6.10 Review Questions

1. Give the historical background of Managerial process.
2. Give five reasons for the need of management.
3. What is managerial process?
4. Give different functions of management.
5. Write the importance of management.

Answers: Self Assessment

1. (i) (a) (ii) (b) (iii) (d) (iv) (c)
2. (i) process (ii) planning (iii) elements (iv) series
3. (i) True (ii) False (iii) True (iv) False (v) True

6.11 Further Readings

Objectives

The objectives of this unit can be summarised as below:

• To explain about the Meaning of Educational Planning
• To discuss about the Nature of Educational Planning
• To describe about the Principles of Educational Planning
• To discuss about the Process of Educational Planning
• To describe the Educational Planning in India

Introduction

A plan is conceptualized as a predetermined strategy, detailed scheme or programme of action related to the accomplishment of an objective. It implies some kind of mental activity during the course of analysing or laying out a method of achieving something. It focuses on ‘what’, ‘why’ and ‘how’? An educational plan refers to make efforts on planned and deliberate change to be brought about in the system of education for achieving identified relevant objectives. Visualized in relation to specified objectives these changes have to be coordinated in relation to objectives and conditions in other related aspects. They have to be systematically planned. Educational planning means the process of setting out in advance a pattern of action to bring about over all changes as viewed by national policies by the closest possible articulation of means and ends.

7.1 Meaning of Educational Planning

According to Hagman and Schwartz, “Planning selects among alternatives, explores routes before travel begins and identifies possible or probable outcomes of action before the executive and his organization is committed to any.” Educational planning has been one of the early instruments of independent governments. Resources have to be used as effectively and systematically as possible. A considerable amount of pressure form both the donors of aids and international organizations
made adoption of some form of planning unavoidable. UNESCO and the World Bank become early promoters of a functional educational planning mechanism as a condition or external assistance.

The advancement of theory of planning, has enriched its practice, After the Second World War the principles and methods of educational development and planning first development in the Soviet Union were adopted by the Socialist States of Central Europe before many of them were “rediscovered” later in the West.

Today, educational planning is an absolute requirement. The complexities of modern technology is society have given rise to the need for planning in education. Increasing populations, man-power needs, ecology, decreasing natural resources and haphazard applications of scientific developments require educational planning. To meet these problems, educational planning becomes a necessity and planning competence becomes mandatory. It is unavoidable for bringing about a desirable change in the educational organizations for promoting the organizational health- its effectiveness and functional efficiency.

Educational planning is a process utilized by a administrator while performing the role of a leader, decision-maker, change-agent and so on. It is a basic management task. It is a means of achieving higher levels of effectiveness. Its uniqueness lies in its future-orientation or anticipation mode.

7.2 Nature of Educational Planning

The following viewpoints have been utilized by the experts to understand and explain the meaning and nature of planning.

(1) **Forecasting** : Educational planning is describing or defining or determining events, conditions and needs of some future point in time. It implies forecasting or projections of important factors in education such as number and types of students and expansion of facilities needed for them.

(2) **Interpretation** : Educational planning should also call for interpretation of future’s data and its translation into competencies or operational capabilities demanded to maintain effectiveness under the conditions anticipated.

(3) **Goals and Objectives** : Educational planning is a means of generating relevant present and future goals and objectives for the organization.

(4) **Decision-Making** : Educational planning is the preparation or pre-courses in the decision-making process. It is to help determine the optimal decision or choice rendered. While educational administration is mostly decision-making, planning in education is only the other side of it.

(5) **Operations Optimization** : Educational planning is operations optimization or performance improvement. It is for the enhancement of existing conditions rather than for those that exist in the uncertain future. It is to guide the actions of the operations. It must result into standard operating procedures, operations manuals, administrative guidelines or system and policies.

(6) **Problem Prevention** : Educational planning is a kind of contingency anticipation or problem-prevention. It should minimize the magnitude of an educational problem likely to be encountered at some future point in time. It should spell out the procedures to be followed if some crises or contingencies arise.

(7) **Management Change** : Educational planning is a part of organization renewal. MBO, PERT and various other forecasting techniques are part of the process of educational planning. It provides a mechanism, a model or a tool for achieving specific objectives of an organization.

(8) **Complexity Resolution** : Educational planning is complexity resolution, a process for coordination and control. It is interpreted as a means of coping with complexity or co-ordination of facets of such projects. Planning has been defined by Dror as “the process of preparing a set of decisions for action in the future directed at achieving goals by optimal means.” It relates to decision-making. Knezevich defines it as a "set of formal and rational activities that seek to
anticipate conditions, directions, and challenges at some future points in the time for the purpose of enhancing the readiness of the personnel and organization to perform more effectively and to attain relevant objectives by optional means." This definition contains four important characteristics of planning (a) future orientation, (b) goal orientation, (c) related to performance enhancement and (d) goal achievement by optimal means. Most people prefer to describe or define planning ‘to make plans’. They emphasize the plans as the product of planning. If a plan has been prepared it means that they have done planning. However, planning means more than the development of plans. It is a process resulting into a product. But plan and the process of preparing the plan are future-oriented. Planning seeks to gain some control over future developments.

7.3 Principles of Educational Planning

The following principles of educational planning are formulated:

1. Educational planning must be one aspect of general national planning.
2. Research should be based on system analysis.
3. Planning must be a continuous process.
4. Planning should find a definite place in educational organization.
5. Planning should take into consideration resources and establish conditions of work.
6. Planning must be realistic and practical.
7. Planning must involve active and continuing participation of all interested individuals and groups.
8. The content and scope of planning should be determined by the needs of the individuals and groups to be served.
9. Planning should utilize the services of specialists without allowing them to dominate.
10. Planning should provide opportunity for all persons and groups to understand and appreciate the plans.
11. Planning should provide for continuous evaluation.
12. Planning should have opportunity for modification for further action.

Did you know? Wood Despatch (1854) : The first effort on planning in the field of education was made as long back as 1854, when a memorable Despatch of Sir Charles Wood, president of the board of control to the governor-general council was issued. This despatch constituted a beginning of planned education in India.

7.4 Process of Educational Planning

Planning can be defined as "a process of taking decisions for future actions in order to achieve predetermined objectives by optimum utilization of available resources in a limited time frame". Thus a pre-condition for planning is the existence of certain objectives which need to be achieved and constraints in this respect are time and resources. Here resources include all the three types of resources namely physical (or material), financial and human resources. It is said that we plan because we have limited resources and we have to achieve our objectives within the constraint of these limited resources.

The term “planning” is very frequently used in daily life and every person without exception does some planning at individual level when one has to accomplish some task. Households plan for
Notes

meeting the requirements of the family within the income available and thus plan for monthly expenditure. When planning is undertaken at the individual or household level decision for future actions are taken by individuals. However, this concept of availability of various hierarchical units for planning is called the multi-level planning framework. It means the existence of hierarchy of levels of planning with clearly defined territorial jurisdiction. Under this framework planning is possible at national, state (provincial), district, sub-district and village level. However in India planning particularly in the field of education is carried out at the national, state and in a limited way at the district level only.

In the field of education in any country there can be a possibility of developing plans at various levels. Specifically in the big countries and even in medium sized countries the planning is undertaken at more than one level, that is, at various hierarchical administrative units. In many countries the hierarchical units available for planning are national, provincial, district, sub-district and village levels. It may therefore be noted that planning for education can possibly be undertaken at these levels. Undertaking the planning at lower levels along with the higher units is refereed to as decentralized planning.

However, if we consider the methodology of planning for education it may be made clear that the methodology or the steps involved in planning remain the same whether plans are formulated at higher level or at the lower level. In order plan for education there are certain steps that are involved.

These are as follows.

- Diagnosis of the Educational Situation
- Target Setting
- Intervention Strategies and Activities
- Costing and Budget Preparation
- Implementation and Monitoring Mechanism
- Negotiations, Appraisal and Approval

If planning is to be undertaken for a system e.g. planning for education, the important issues to be addressed are: who (and at what level) will decide about the goals, objectives, allocation of resources and time frame which are important and essential components of planning. At the systems level these decision are taken at various hierarchical units.

Diagnosis of Educational Situation

The first step in developing a plan for education is to diagnose the educational situation. A diagnosis of the education system is an important and initial step towards developing plan. Diagnosis forms an important step in understanding the system itself. Diagnosis in planning is a process of making a realistic assessment regarding what and how much has already been achieved till now.

Diagnosis in the context of educational planning is an effort to make a fair assessment of achievements and constraints. It is very likely that what is achieved may be less than what was expected as per the targets set in the earlier plan. There may be various reasons for this under achievement. The diagnosis exercise attempts to identify these constraints so that they are removed while implementing the next plan. It may also be found that sometimes the under achievement of the targets may be due to various constraints imposed on the educational system from within or outside. It may often by difficult to analyse what happens to education system without reference to what happens at the household level or at the immediate environment in which the schools are functioning. For example,
for knowing the reasons of non-enrolment of children one may have to analyze not only school related factors but also education related factors that operate in the social and economic realm of the society.

The diagnosis of educational situation can be done at various levels e.g. at the national, provincial, district sub-district, village and school level. However, the nature and content of analysis and the indicators used for analyzing the situation may vary between levels. At the higher levels like national and provincial level the analysis of present situation in education may mostly be quantitative and focusing more on input variables whereas at the lower levels e.g. at the village or school levels focus may be more on the qualitative dimension and process variables.

The level of disaggregation of information required for analysis also varies between various levels. For example, an analysis of educational situation at national level may focus more on inter-state disparities in educational progress; a diagnosis at the state level may focus on inter-district differences. At the lowest level i.e. village level the focus may be on the disparities between households and families.

The diagnosis can be purely quantitative or can also be qualitative. However, it involves a systematic and empirical analysis of the educational situation. For this there is a need of developing a reliable data base for initiating the planning exercise. The quantitative analysis is more important while diagnosing the educational situation at the national or provincial level. Even at the local level quantitative information provides more objectivity to analyze the educational situation.

To understand the educational situation one may have to analyze education related factors which may have direct bearing on education. Hence an analysis of immediate external environment may be quite helpful in order to understand the educational process that is taking shape in schools and their immediate surroundings. Focus on such education related dimensions is more important to identify constraints.

In planning for education the diagnosis exercise may focus on various factors. These may be related to factors pertaining to inputs to the education system; factors pertaining to the functioning of the system and factors pertaining to the efficiency and outcomes of the educational process. While considering the inputs important elements to be considered include provisions of facilities and infra-structure, enrollment, teachers etc. As far as functioning of the system is concerned the elements to be taken into account include administration of education at the system level, managing the educational process at the institutional and classroom level.

**Target Setting**

Targets are translation of objectives in clearly defined quantitative terms. What the plan intends to achieve during the plan period when specified in quantitative terms is known as target. Targets are statements which state clearly and unambiguously what is to be achieved and are in measurable terms and have definite time frame. In order to develop education plan the targets may be set for access, enrolment, retention and achievement level of children. However it is desirable to undertake the target setting exercise in a disaggregated manner. Secondly in a medium and long term plan the targets should be set in a phased manner which means that targets should not only be set for the total plan period but should also be set for all intervening years. This may not only help to see the progress of implementation of the plan on year to year basis but may also facilitate in reviewing the implementation strategies and perhaps revising the targets for the coming years.

The gender and social disparities in the field of education are common features in developing countries. These disparities may be in enrolment, retention or even in achievement also. One of the important objectives in the education plan will be to reduce these disparities. It is therefore important to set the targets on enrolment and retention separately for boys and girls as well as for different ethnic groups that are educationally backward. Over, a period of time the gap between boys and girls and between various ethnic groups and others may be reduced. The target of reducing this gap
may depend upon the gaps between these categories in the base year of the plan, reducing this gap may depend upon the gaps between these categories in the base year of the plan.

It is important to note that plan targets for all major interventions need to be set at the lower level administrative unit. For example, in the national plan state (i.e. province) wise targets may be set or while planning at the state level district wise targets need to be set. Further the plan targets should be expressed both in terms of absolute figures as well as in terms of performance indicators, where ever applicable.

For analyzing the quality and outcomes of the education system the efficiency of education and the pass percentage and graduation rate etc. are important.

**Notes**

Intervention Strategies and Activities

After setting the targets the next step in planning is to evolve strategies to achieve the targets and therefore evolving intervention strategies to achieve the targets is another important aspect of plan formulation. The effort may be to highlight the interventions that will help to overcome the problems and constraints identified in the plan so as to ensure that the targets set are achieved. However, it is to be noted that the strategies evolved will have to address the identified problems and issues.

While evolving the strategies important points to keep in view are: (i) in a decentralized planning any single strategy may not be uniformly operational or applicable in different areas and that is why probably for addressing a single problem one may have to envisage a set of strategies for a given context. (ii) Many a times a single strategy may not be enough to address an issue or a problem and there will be a need to work out multiple strategies for addressing a single problem. (iii) All the problems and issues identified during the planning exercise must be tackled and intervention strategies should be worked out accordingly and there should thus be a linkage between the problems/issues identified and the intervention strategies developed for addressing them.

Translating the strategies into programmes and activities is the next step in the plan formulation. It is to be kept in view that a specific intervention strategy may require a number of programmes to make it operational and effective.

However a programme may be an aggregation of various activities. It is therefore necessary to translate each and every strategy into activities and tasks. For example for improving access the strategy can be ‘opening of new schools’. However one of the activities under the strategy of opening new school may be ‘construction of school building’. But the activity of construction of school building has many tasks that are to be undertaken. These tasks may be (i) identification of school-less habitations; (ii) identification of habitations qualifying for opening schools; (iii) listing and prioritization of habitations; (iv) deciding about the number of schools to be opened; (v) identification of habitations where schools are to be opened; (vi) deciding the location/site of the school; (vii) acquiring site/transfer of land; (viii) identification of agency for construction and supervision; (ix) actual construction work; (x) monitoring and supervision of construction work and (xi) finishing and furnishing of school building.

Next step in plan formulation is the sequencing and phasing of these activities and the tasks. It may be noted that some activities/tasks can be undertaken only in a sequential manner whereas some activities/tasks can be started simultaneously. For example, construction of school building and recruitment of teachers are the activities which can be undertaken simultaneously while actual construction of school building can not be done before deciding the site of the school, acquiring site, transfer of land and identification of agency for construction and supervision.
Costing and Budget Preparation
An important step in the plan formulation exercise is the costing and estimation of financial requirements to implement the plan. Translating the physical inputs into financial requirements is essential for funding purpose. All the activities and tasks identified, which have financial implication, are to be costed properly and budgeted adequately. Various steps that are involved in estimation of financial requirements are: (i) listing of all the activities to be undertaken (ii) classifying all these activities into two categories i.e. activities having cost implications and activities which do not have cost implications; (iii) classifying the activities which have cost implications into recurring and non-recurring heads; (iv) working our the average cost of recurring activities and unit cost for non-recurring activities (v) estimation of costs separately under the recurring and non-recurring heads.

While estimating the financial requirements for the Education Plan the recurring costs estimation may be on items such as salaries, training maintenance of building, equipment, furniture, infrastructure, travel costs; stationary and consumables, contingencies, rents etc. Similarly the non-recurring cost estimation may be on items such as: construction of school building, additional classrooms, toilets, compound wall, equipments, furniture; infrastructure; vehicle etc. The aggregation of costs of all the activities and tasks under various strategies will give the total financial requirements of the plan.

Allocation of resources to education is based on the budgets. Budgets are prepared annually to facilitate the resource allocation process. This implies that these activities are to be classified according to the year of beginning and completion of the activities. This may help in preparing the annual budgets. The budget should correspond to the activities indicated to be completed in that particular year.

While estimating the cost requirements for the plan it is of utmost importance to keep in view the financial parameters fixed by the higher level decision making bodies with regard to Education Plans to be formulated at the lower levels. The costing of the plan must adhere to the ceilings on various items and other financial parameters prescribed by the approving body which may be the national (i.e. central) government and/or the provincial government.

Implementation Schedule and Monitoring Mechanism
One of the important stages in planning exercise is detailing out the implementation plan. When planning at the lower levels, e.g. district level planning, implementation is part and parcel of planning activities. A plan document is incomplete if it does not contain detailed plan for implementation of the programmes and projects that the plan contains. It thereby means that planning for implementation should be inbuilt in the plan document. A failure in the achievement of plan targets in the education sector is generally attributed to the lack of detailed planning for implementation. Planning for implementation facilitates the process of implementation of programmes and projects by providing a sound mechanism of monitoring in the form of implementation schedule and it also increases the efficiency of the system by minimizing the costs of implementation of a given programme or project.

Planning for implementation makes it possible to critically analyze the activities of a given educational programme and to develop an implementation schedule which can be used for monitoring the progress of implementation. There are certain steps that are necessary in planning for implementation of educational programmes or projects. These are; listing of activities that make up the programme; thinking through each of these activities; establishing inter-relationships between these activities; establishing a network; setting activity duration; determining material, equipment and human resource needs; deciding about time duration for the programme implementation of each activity; identifying identical activities of the programme which can not be overlooked without affecting the duration of the programme implementation and resources invested in it; and thinking about organizational arrangements for carrying out programme activities.
Scheduling forms an important exercise in planning for implementation. Scheduling refers to the process of converting an educational plan into an operating time table which establishes start and completion time of all the activities of the programme/plan. There are several ways of constructing implementation schedules. However, an effective implementation plan makes use of the network based techniques such as Programme Evaluation and Review Technique (PERT) and Critical Path Method (CPM).

PERT is a network based procedure that facilitates planning, scheduling and controlling of education programmes and projects. It provides methods for measuring actual progress of the programme against expected progress, for comparing consequences of proposed alternative strategies, for predicting future programme status and for optimizing utilization of resources.

Listing all possible activities of the programme is a key step in planning for implementation of the educational programme. The next step is to gather information about predecessors of each activity. The third step, on the basis of these information, PERT network for the programme can be developed. Fourth, once the PERT network of the programme is developed then there is a need to obtain information on the time required to complete each activity. Fifth, this is followed by three alternative time estimates (i.e. the optimistic activity time, most probable activity time, and pessimistic activity time). These three activity time estimates help the programme team to make the best guess of expected activity time. In this connection uncertainty can be expressed by providing estimates ranging from the best to the worst possible time for completing individual activities. Finally, the PERT network for the given educational programme is drawn on the basis of the above information.

Once the PERT network is drawn, the next step is to estimate critical path in the network. This is done by using both forward pass and backward pass methods. This helps to establish early start and latest finish time of each activity.

Also activity slack is estimated by using early start and latest finish times. The activities having no slack are termed as critical activities and the longest path on the PERT network is identified as critical path. The time required to traverse the critical path becomes the programme implementation period. All these information, when put in a tabular form, makes the Implementation Schedule of the educational programme.

**Negotiations, Appraisal and Approval**

The plans developed are draft plan till they are discussed and finally approved by the approving authorities. Since resources are to be allocated for implementation of plan, the negotiation process is very important. Many proposals in the plan may require financial allocation from the higher authorities. Hence the plan may become final only when they are discussed and finally approved by the authorities by approving budget and allocating funds as per requirements.

The approving authorities look into the desirability of proposals and the feasibility of implementation of the plan. This is the process of negotiation between those who formulate the plan and those who have to finally approve the plan and budget. It is generally found that some cut in the proposed resource requirement is done by the authorities and in such case the plan need to be revised in the light of discussion. Based on the resources assured by the approving authorities, plan proposals are to be prioritized. After such re-prioritization so as to establish a link between what is proposed and the extent of resources available, the plan is finalized.

In order to approve the plan the authorities, who have to approve the plan and budget, do generally like to do comprehensive review of the various aspects and components of programme proposals. It is therefore seen whether the plan is technically sound, financially viable and justified and administratively feasible. This is done with the help of a team of experts who discuss the plan proposals at length with the planning team. This process is known as the appraisal of plan. Thus an important aspect of plan negotiation is appraisal through which the opinion of the experts is sought about the soundness and feasibility of plan proposals before it is finally approved for implementation.
Negotiation is a process by which one can bargain for more resources. If the proposals made in the plan document are justified and the planning team is able to convince the authorities it is very likely that they may get more resources. However, if the plan proposals are weak and unconvincing the chances are that they may get less amount of resources. The soundness of the proposals which constitute a plan is an important consideration influencing the amount of resources.

**Characteristics of Educational Planning**

The following are the main characteristics of educational planning:

1. **Choice of Best Alternative**: Modern educational planning is a logical, systematic, and scientific process different from the elementary kinds of procedure utilized in the past of bringing about changes in the systems of education. Earlier adhoc decisions were taken by the administrators to solve immediate problems faced by them.

2. **Team Work**: Modern educational planning emphasizes that only the top administrator or the government should be involved in planning. Planning should be a responsibility of all people concerned with the desired change. A team of experts, responsible people and those who are to implement the plan should determine the goals and appropriate ways of attaining them.

3. **Social and Economic Goals**: Modern educational planning emphasizes that the goals of a democratic society should be social and economic concerned with the welfare and progress of all citizens rather than the selfish goals of some special interest groups. The expected goals of the society and needs of children and young pupils in the schools and colleges should be the broad frame of reference.

4. **Co-operation**: Modern educational planning emphasizes involvement of representatives of most of the concerned sectors of the society in the process of planning. Co-operative planning is considered an important principle of planning in all fields.

5. **Anticipation**: Modern educational planning anticipates probable developments and needed change in future, much ahead of time so that proper facilities, supporting media and required resources for implementing the planned change may be secured. Thus, relevant changes and efforts are avoided and the changes are effectively implemented.

6. **Remedial Measures**: Another characteristic of modern-education planning is that it is remedial and guidance-oriented. With appropriate planning procedures it is possible to identify maladjustments or deficiencies in the system that cause educational problems. Identifying cause of the educational problems and suggesting relevant solution is the main objective of educational planning.

7. **Scientific Changes**: Changes made on adhoc piecemeal basis to solve immediate problems may create some kinds of problems in course of time. Hence, modern educational planning carefully and objectively collects data, interprets and analyses inter-relationships between present and future needs. It also interprets analysis inter-relatedness of the various components of the social and educational system.

### 7.5 Educational Planning in India

In India the concept of planning dates back to 1938 when Indian National Congress appointed a National Planning Committee. It consisted of the representatives of the organization concerned, state ministers, selected “economists, public men government nominees. Sporadic efforts were made by M.N. Roy, M Visvesvaraya and other people on planning in the field of economic development.

1. **Planning and Development Department (1939-40)**: During the second world War, a planning and development department was set up in the Government of India, for suggesting relevant development and to boost the war effort.
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(2) **Sargent Report**: A post-war-educational development plan was prepared in 1944 by the Central Advisory Board of Education. It was known as the Sargent Report.

(3) **Planning Advisory Board (1946)**: In 1946, the interim government at the centre set up a planning advisory board to suggest the administrative arrangements for implementing the plans prepared by various provincial governments.

(4) **Planning Commission (1980)**: In 1980, the Government of India passed a resolution and created a planning commission. The Commission has been busy in preparing a number of Five-year Plans, Annual Plans and the Rolling Plan (1978-83). The Prime Minister is the Chairman of the Planning Commission.

(5) **State Department for Planning**: Every State Government has a separate department for planning development headed by a secretary, an I.A.S. Officer. It is responsible for coordinating the departmental plans.

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**Task**

What is monitoring mechanism?

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**Self Assessment**

1. *Fill in the blanks:*
   - (i) Educational Planning is a kind of _____ anticipation.
   - (ii) Educational Planning must be _____ and _____.
   - (iii) _____ in the context of Educational Planning is an effort to make a fair assessment of achievements and constraints.
   - (iv) _____ are statements which state clearly what is to be achieved and have definite time frame.
   - (v) A _____ is incomplete, if it does not contain detailed plan for implementation of the programmes and projects that the plan contains.
   - (vi) _____ refers to the process of converting on Educational Plan into an operating time table.
   - (vii) _____ is a network based procedures that facilitates planning, scheduling and controlling of Educational Programmes.
   - (viii) A post war Educational development plan was prepared in _____ by the _____.
   - (ix) Modern Educational Planning in a _____ _____ and scientific process different from the elementary kinds of procedures.

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**7.6 Summary**

- Planning selects among alternatives, explores routes before travel begins and identifies possible or probable outcomes of action before the executive and his organization is committed to any.
- The following viewpoints have been utilized by the experts to understand and explain the meaning and nature of planning.
  - (i) Forecasting: Educational planning is describing or defining or determining events, conditions and needs of some future point in time. It implies forecasting or projections of important factors in education such as number and types of students and expansion of facilities needed for them.

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(i) Interpretation: Educational planning should also call for interpretation of future’s data and its translation into competencies or operational capabilities demanded to maintain effectiveness under the conditions anticipated.

(ii) Goals and Objectives

(iii) Decision-Making

(iv) Operations Optimization

(v) Problem Prevention

(vi) Management Change

(vii) Complexity Resolution

- The following principles of educational planning are formulated:
  1. Educational planning must be one aspect of general national planning.
  2. Research is based planning based on system analysis.
  3. Planning must be a continuous process.
  4. Planning should find a definite place in educational organization.
  5. Planning should take into consideration resources and establish conditions of work.

- Planning can be defined as “a process of taking decisions for future actions in order to achieve pre-determined objectives by optimum utilization of available resources in a limited time frame.

- The term “planning” is very frequently used in daily life and every person without exception does some planning at individual level when one has to accomplish some task. Households plan for meeting the requirements of the family within the income available and thus plan for monthly expenditure.

- In order plan for education there are certain steps that are involved.

- These are as follows:
  1. Diagnosis of the Educational Situation
  2. Target Setting
  3. Intervention Strategies and Activities
  4. Costing and Budget Preparation
  5. Implementation and Monitoring Mechanism
  6. Negotiations, Appraisal and Approval
  7. Diagnosis of Educational Situation

- The first step in developing a plan for education is to diagnose the educational situation. A diagnosis of the education system is an important and initial step towards developing plan. Diagnosis forms an important step in understanding the system itself. Diagnosis in planning is a process of making a realistic assessment regarding what and how much has already been achieved till now.

- The diagnosis of educational situation can be done at various levels e.g. at the national, provincial, district sub-district, village and school level.

- Targets are translation of objectives in clearly defined quantitative terms. Targets are statements which state clearly and unambiguously what is to be achieved and are in measurable terms and have definite time frame.

- The gender and social disparities in the field of education are common features in developing countries. These disparities may be in enrolment, retention or even in achievement also.
After setting the targets the next step in planning is to evolve strategies to achieve the targets and therefore evolving intervention strategies to achieve the targets is another important aspect of plan formulation. The effort may be to highlight the interventions that will help to overcome the problems and constraints identified in the plan so as to ensure that the targets set are achieved. However, it is to be noted that the strategies evolved will have to address the identified problems and issues.

Translating the strategies into programmes and activities is the next step in the plan formulation. It is to be kept in view that a specific intervention strategy may require a number of programmes to make it operational and effective.

An important step in the plan formulation exercise is the costing and estimation of financial requirements to implement the plan. Translating the physical inputs into financial requirements is essential for funding purpose.

While estimating the financial requirements for the Education Plan the recurring costs estimation may be on items such as salaries, training maintenance of building, equipment, furniture, infrastructure, travel costs; stationary and consumables, contingencies, rents etc.

One of the important stages in planning exercise is detailing out the implementation plan. When planning at the lower levels, e.g. district level planning, implementation is part and parcel of planning activities. A plan document is incomplete if it does not contain detailed plan for implementation of the programmes and projects that the plan contains.

Planning for implementation makes it possible to critically analyze the activities of a given educational programme and to develop an implementation schedule which can be used for monitoring the progress of implementation.

Scheduling forms an important exercise in planning for implementation. Scheduling refers to the process of converting an educational plan into an operating time table which establishes start and completion time of all the activities of the programme/plan.

PERT is a network based procedure that facilitates planning, scheduling and controlling of education programmes and projects. It provides methods for measuring actual progress of the programme against expected progress.

Listing all possible activities of the programme is a key step in planning for implementation of the educational programme. The next step is to gather information about predecessors of each activity.

Once the PERT network is drawn, the next step is to estimate critical path in the network. This is done by using both forward pass and backward pass methods. This helps to establish early start and latest finish time of each activity.

The plans developed are draft plan till they are discussed and finally approved by the approving authorities.

The approving authorities look into the desirability of proposals and the feasibility of implementation of the plan. This is the process of negotiation between those who formulate the plan and those who have to finally approve the plan and budget.

Negotiation is a process by which one can bargain for more resources. If the proposals made in the plan document are justified and the planning team is able to convince the authorities it is very likely that they may get more resources.

The following are the main characteristics of educational planning:

(i) Choice of Best Alternative: Modern educational planning is a logical systematic and scientific process difference from the elementary kinds of procedure utilized in the past of bringing about changes in the systems of education.
(ii) Team Work: Modern educational planning emphasizes that only the top administrator or the government should be involved in planning.

(iii) Social and Economic Goals: Modern educational planning emphasizes that the goals of a democratic society should be social and economic concerned with the welfare and progress of all citizens rather than the selfish goals of some special interest groups.

(iv) Co-operation: Modern educational planning emphasizes involvement of representatives of most of the concerned sectors of the society in the process of planning.

(v) In India the concept of planning dates back to 1938 when Indian National Congress appointed a National Planning Committee. It consisted of the representatives of the organization concerned, state ministers, selected “economists, public men government nominees. Sporadic efforts were made by M.N. Roy, M Visvesvaraya and other people on planning in the field of economic development.

• Planning and Development Department (1939-40)

7.7 Keywords

• Policy: A plan of action agreed or chosen by a political party, business.
• Plan: Something that you intend to do or achieve.
• Essential: Completely necessary, extremely important.

7.8 Review Questions

1. Explain the Concept of Educational Planning.
2. What is the Nature of Educational Planning?
3. Give the principles and characteristics of Educational Planning.
4. Discuss the various steps in the Process of Educational Planning.
5. Explain about Planning advisory board (1946).

Answers: Self Assessment


7.9 Further Readings

Unit 8 : Organizing: Process and Means

Objectives

The objectives of this unit can be summarised as below:

- To explain about the meaning of Educational Organizing
- To describe about the process of Educational Organizing
- To discuss about the Nature of Organization

Introduction

Schools, colleges, universities and training institutions, may well be considered social organizations, Students knowledge and skill development takes place in a system of complexity which involves the interplay of several variables, it has its roots in the institutional variables described as organizational styles. Institutions visualize their targets in their success variables such as performance and growth levels of students and other employees. They focus on change in the human variables to approach their targets. The principal or the head of the institution operates in an organizational environment, from the authority base, in a specific way, in order to change staff attitudes or behaviours and with the goal of increasing some dimensions of teaching effectiveness.

They too need to identify and pursue goals, react to stress, seek homeostasis, adapt maintain themselves, internally, ensure survival, eliminate uncertainly and grow in size, power and experience if they are to function effectively. Much human activity in these institutions is motivated by administrative reaction to organization needs. Seemingly unaffected by conscious efforts to their members they evolve, and readjust. An alternative to this reaction behaviour is proactive behaviour (planned change) in which change takes place as a result of conscious efforts by individuals to control the institution rather than to be controlled by the institution. Organizational needs of these institutions are potent motivations of their upward movement and also of resistance to change. Preective and superisory behaviour must operate within the limits set up by the institution.

Organizing in a general sense means systematic arrangement of activities. In this sense, organizing is done by each individual. However, Organizing as a process of management essentially relates to sub-dividing and grouping of activities.

Organizing becomes necessary when two or more persons work together to achieve some common objectives. When a teacher is teaching alone, there is perhaps no need of organizing. But organizing becomes important when teacher are teaching in a team. In that case, it is important to determine
the role of each teacher and for the team as a whole to attain victory over the rival team. Similarly, in a one-man business, all the activities are performed by the owner himself. But when the owner employs someone to assist him, he has to determine the work to be done by the employee and give him the right to use materials, machinery, equipment, etc. This is the point when Organizing becomes necessary.

8.1 Meaning of Educational Organizing

Organizing refers to the way in which the work of a group of people is arranged and distributed among group members. The function of organizing includes the determination of the activities to be performed; creation of departments, sections and positions to perform those activities; and establishing relationships among the various parts of an organization. The purpose is to create a framework for the performance of the activities of an organization in a systematic manner. It is important to note that the term organization should not be used in the same sense as organizing. Organizing is a function of management, while organization refers to a group of persons who have come together to achieve some common objectives.

The process of organizing refers to identifying and grouping of activities to be performed, defining and delegating authority, casting responsibility and establishing relationships to enable people to work together effectively in accomplishing objectives.

Notes: Educational institutions may be viewed as living organisms having a composite of characteristics and people with a variety of personality traits.

8.2 Process of Educational Organizing

Steps in the process of Organizing

The process of organizing consists of the following steps:

1. Determining the activities to be performed to achieve the objectives of the organization.
2. Identification of major functions to which these activities relate.
3. Grouping and sub-dividing the activities within each function on the basis of similarity or relatedness.
4. Establishing relationship among individuals and groups.

1. Determining the activities to be performed to achieve the objectives of the organization:
   Educational organizations undertake teaching activities with a view to give educational. They may perform teaching, discipline on service activity. In a educational organization, teaching and learning major activities. In carrying out these major activities have to perform a number of other activities such as staffing, financing, accounting, recruiting employees, etc. Since the objectives of different organizations are different, it is therefore, necessary to determine the activities of each organization separately.

2. Identification of major functions to which these activities relate: The next step is to identify the major functions to which these activities relate. In a educational organization, teaching learning, finance and personnel are the major functions. If the amount of work to be done in connection with each of these functions is large, separate departments may be created for each of these functions. Head positions will have to be created to supervise the activities of these departments. At this stage, a list of activities relating to each function must be prepared.
3. **Grouping and sub-dividing the work within each function**: In this step, it is decided how best the activities can be grouped on the basis of similarity or relatedness. The activities of a production department, for example, can be divided into a number of workshops where production will actually take place. Besides, separate sections may be created for such production related activities as quality control and repairs. The activities of other departments can similarly be sub-divided. This division and sub-division of activities goes on till individual positions have been created for performing all types of work in an organization. The reasons of dividing and sub-dividing functions and activities are as follows:

(i) The total work may be so large that it cannot be done by a single individual or by a few persons.

(ii) If the work is divided into smaller units, it becomes easy to assign work to individuals who have the necessary skill and knowledge to perform the work efficiently.

4. **Establishing relationship among individuals and groups**: Heads divide activities to increase efficiency and to ensure that work is properly done. The activities which are performed by persons holding different positions must be related. The responsibility, authority and accountability of each person must be well defined. This is necessary to avoid conflict and confusion and to ensure that work is performed as planned. Establishing relationships among individuals and groups is, therefore, an important aspect of the organizing process. It would be useful at this stage to explain the meaning of responsibility, authority, and accountability.

(i) **Responsibility**: Responsibility is the obligation of a subordinate to perform the assigned duties. When subordinate accepts duties, he has to perform those duties in the manner desired by the superior. Duties are assigned to subordinates when a manager has to share the work with them.

(ii) **Authority**: When a person is given certain duties to perform, he must be given necessary authority also. Otherwise, he will not be able to do the work. A typist, for example, cannot do the typing job if he is not given the right to use facilities such as a place to sit in, a table, a chair, a typewriter, typing and carbon papers, etc. Authority includes the right to take decision, right to issue orders and the right to take action if orders are not carried out. An engineer responsible for the construction of a bridge has the authority to command his subordinates, procure the needed material, seek assistance of architects and other experts in the completion of the project. No person should be given any authority unless certain duties have been assigned to him. Authority should always follow responsibility.
(iii) **Accountability**: After assigning duties and granting authority, one more relationship becomes necessary. This is the relationship of accountability. Accountability means answerability. That is, each person has to report to his superior how the work has been done and how authority has been used. Accountability is always upward. Each subordinate is accountable to his superior who in turn is accountable to his own superior. In this way, every person becomes accountable to top management. Accountability ensures that the work is done as planned and authority is properly used. An important principle of accountability is the principle of single accountability. A person should be accountable to one superior only. If a person is accountable to two or more persons, he may avoid the work or he may be in difficulty to decide whom to obey first.

**Did you know?**: Planning and structuring the growth patterns and directions of these institutions, developing strategies to overcome or to live and grow with uncertainty, establishing the nature of change are the examples or pre-active behaviours.

### 8.3 Nature of Organization

Organizations are social systems whose activities are governed by social law. In the words of Keith Davis, "Just as people have psychological needs, they also have social roles and status." As social systems, their environment is one of dynamic changes, rather than a static set of relations. They are "complex socio-technical system interaction with environment" having both "adaptive and maintenance mechanisms." The urge to modify structure and functioning in order to conform the changing environmental conditions and also the urge to resist change. Creates tensions, stresses and conflict within it and affects its worker participants as well; as the climate. Netzer and Eye call these inherent interacting forces of the organization *resisters and exciters*. They also hypothesize linker force operating in-between these two and restoring balance within the organization. This operation of forces interacting with each other generates a unique climate within each organization. In the modern society, each organization faces the challenge of the turbulent environment and innovative functioning of the organization, it is necessary to study their inherent behaviour climate and its dynamics with a vies to construction more relevant strategies and modes of administration.


### Task

What is the role of authority in organizing process?

**Self Assessment**

1. **Fill in the blanks**:

   (i) ______ refers to the way in which the work of a group of people is arranged and distributed among group members.

   (ii) The purpose of organizing is to create a ______ for the performance of the activities of an Organization in a systematic manner.
Notes

(iii) In educational organizations _______ and learning are two most important activities.

(iv) Heads of Schools and Colleges divide _______ to increase _______ and to ensure that work is properly done.

(v) When a person is given certain duties to perform he must be given necessary _______ also.

(vi) An important principle of accountability is the principle of _______.

8.4 Summary

• Organizing in a general sense means systematic arrangement of activities. In this sense, organizing is done by each individual. However, organizing as a process of management essentially relates to sub-dividing and grouping of activities.

• Organizing becomes necessary when two or more persons work together to achieve some common objectives. But Organizing becomes important when teacher are teaching in a team.

• Steps in the process of Organizing
  • The process of organizing consists of the following steps:
    (i) Determining the activities to be performed to achieve the objectives of the organization.
    (ii) Identification of major functions to which these activities relate.
    (iii) Grouping and sub-dividing the activities within each function on the basis of similarity or relatedness.
    (iv) Establishing relationship among individuals and groups.

• Educational organizations undertake teaching activities with a view to give educational. They may perform teaching, discipline on service activity. In a educational organization, teaching and learning are the two major activities.

• Identification of major functions to which these activities relate: The next step is to identify the major functions to which these activities relate. In a educational organization, teaching learning, finance and personnel are the major functions.

• Grouping and sub-dividing the work within each function: In this step, it is decided how best the activities can be grouped on the basis of similarity or relatedness. The activities of a production department, for example, can be divided into a number of workshops where production will actually take place.

  The activities of other departments can similarly be sub-divided. This division and sub-division of activities goes on till individual positions have been created for performing all types of work in an organization. The reasons of dividing and sub-dividing functions and activities are as follows:

  (i) The total work may be so large that it cannot be done by a single individual or by a few persons.
  (ii) If the work is divided into smaller units, it becomes easy to assign work to individuals who have the necessary skill and knowledge to perform the work efficiently.

• Establishing relationship among individuals and groups: Heads divide activities to increase efficiency and to ensure that work is properly done. The activities which are performed by persons holding different positions must be related. The responsibility, authority and accountability of each person must be well defined.

• It would be useful at this stage to explain the meaning of responsibility, authority, and accountability.
Notes

(i) Responsibility: Responsibility is the obligation of a subordinate to perform the assigned duties. When subordinate accepts duties, he has to perform those duties in the manner desired by the superior.

(ii) Authority: When a person is given certain duties to perform, he must be given necessary authority also. Otherwise, he will not be able to do the work. A typist, for example, cannot do the typing job if he is not given the right to use facilities such as a place to sit in, a table, a chair, a typewriter, typing and carbon papers, etc.

(iii) Accountability: After assigning duties and granting authority, one more relationship becomes necessary. This is the relationship of accountability. Accountability means answerability. That is, each person has to report to his superior how the work has been done and how authority has been used.

- An important principle of accountability is the principle of single accountability. A person should be accountable to one superior only.
- Organizations are social systems whole activities are governed by social law. In the words of Keith Davis, “Just as people have psychological needs, they also have social roles and status.” As social systems, their environment is one of dynamic changes, rather than a static set of relations. They are “complex socio-technical system interaction with environment” having both “adaptive and maintenance mechanisms.” The urge to modify structure and functioning in order to conform the changing environmental conditions and also the urge to resist change.

8.5 Keywords

- **Authority**: The power to give orders to people.
- **Organization**: A group of people, who form a business.
- **Benefit**: An advantage that something gives, a helpful and useful effect.

8.6 Review Questions

1. What do you understand by Educational Organizing?
2. What are steps using in Educational Organizing?
3. What is the accountability?
4. Explain the nature of Educational Organization.

**Answers : Self Assessment**

1. (i) organizing (ii) framework (iii) teaching (iv) activities, efficiency (v) authority (vi) Single accountability

8.7 Further Readings

Unit 9: Controlling and Staffing: Process, Means and New Practices, Group Dynamics and Motivation

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Objectives
The objectives of this unit can be summarised as below:

• To explain about the Meaning and Characteristics of Controlling
• To describe about the Process of Controlling
• To discuss about the Meaning and Nature of Staffing
• To explain about the Process of Staffing
• To discuss about the Importance of Staffing
• To explain about the Current Trends in Controlling and Staffing
• To describe about the Group Dynamics in Controlling and Staffing
• To discuss about the Motivation of Controlling and Staffing

Introduction
Controlling and staffing are common words you hear everyday in relation to various operations or activities. Generally the use of the term Control creates an impression of imposition to many people. But this impression comes when we approach it in a negative way. If we look at control in a positive way it gives a different meaning. Control is one of the major management functions. It is the process of monitoring activities in such a way so that the organisational objectives can be accomplished.
Whether a manager or an owner-manager, effective control and staffing are necessary components for achieving success. Many a times the problems faced in achieving the organisational goals emerge because of some deviations from the set standards, or in other words because of the failure to control the process from moving in the stated direction. Attempts to make you understand the relevance of control, its meaning, different types and processes along with the procedures to be adopted for effective control.

9.1 Meaning of Controlling

If we use the term control only in relation to controlling the employees and putting them under regulations, we are applying the term in a very limited sense and this is bound to create negative impressions. Let us address ourselves to the question as to why control is needed.

Objectives, plans and programmes are essential components of effective management. After a task has been assigned to a manager, the next step is to decide the objectives of the task. Then, through planning, a strategy is evolved to accomplish the desired objectives. In the process of accomplishing the pre-determined objectives comes the role of monitoring and controlling. Hence, management control can be defined as a process which ensures that the progress of the assigned work is according to the plan. If there is any deviation the concerned manager has to take corrective actions. So control mechanism adjusts operations to pre-determined standards on the basis of the information or feedback it gets. Control is associated with planning and has been accepted as a basic managerial function to ensure the pace of an activity and its quality. Its basic concern is to monitor the outcome of activities, review feedback information about this outcome and if necessary, to take corrective action.

Besides, control helps the managers in certain other aspects. For example it helps managers in:

- monitoring environmental changes and their impact on the organisation,
- developing mechanisms for speedy delivery of products and services to customers,
- anticipating or managing threats, problems or opportunities,
- adding value to their products,
- maintaining quality,
- facilitating team work and delegation, and
- checking wastage or leakage, etc.

Here it must be kept in mind that controlling is existent at all managerial levels and a good plan is one which incorporates the needed controls. Further controls and monitoring are applied in every area of operations like production, sales, finances, quality, human resources, etc. In tourism management their role is very crucial in every segment and in the activities related to that segment.

9.2 Characteristics of Controlling

Following are the characteristics of controlling function of management:

1. Controlling is an end function: A function which comes once the performances are made in conformity with plans.
2. Controlling is a pervasive function: which means it is performed by managers at all levels and in all type of concerns.
3. Controlling is forward looking: because effective control is not possible without past being controlled. Controlling always look to future so that follow-up can be made whenever required.
4. Controlling is a dynamic process: since controlling requires taking reviewal methods, changes have to be made wherever possible.
Notes 5. **Controlling is related with planning**: Planning and Controlling are two inseparable functions of management. Without planning, controlling is a meaningless exercise and without controlling, planning is useless.

Planning presupposes controlling and controlling succeeds planning.

9.3 Process of Controlling

Robert J Mockler’s definition of Control helps us in determining the necessary steps of the control process. According to him, “Management control is a systemic effort to set performance standards with planning objectives, to”:

- design information feedback systems.
- compare actual performance with these pre-determined standards,
- determine whether there are any deviations and to measure their significance, and take any corrective action required to assure that all corporate resources are being used in the most effective and efficient way possible for achieving corporate objectives.

This definition, thus mentions four steps to be followed in the controlling process:

- establishing performance standards,
- measuring performance,
- comparing performance with standards, i.e. interpreting results, and
- taking corrective action.

(1) The first step in any control process is establishing standards. Standard is a desired or expected event which should grow out of organisational objectives. **Standard may defined as a unit of measurement which can be used to evaluate performance.** Actually with the setting of standards the process of control begins. Standards may be both quantitative and qualitative. Three common types of standards are:

  - **physical standards** which include quantity of product, number of customers, clients, quality of the product, etc.
  - **monetary standards** which include selling costs, material costs, gross profit, net profit, etc.
  - **time standards** refer to the speed and deadline within which the job is to be performed or completed.

**Depending** on the nature of the task and considering other related issues the management sets the standard for a task.

For example, upgrading the skills of a guide would be a vague objective unless it is specified what upgradation means and by what time it has to be achieved. In a service industry like tourism, measurements may include the time of the service a customer has to wait for.

(2) After setting the standard the second step is the **measuring or monitoring of performance**. It is a continuous ongoing process done with the help of an appropriate mechanism. Systematic flow of information is necessary to keep effective control over performance and this necessitates timely availability of accurate reports. For this you must **design simple reporting systems** as per the requirement of the activity. This will help you in detecting problems and accordingly make amends to work as per the plan.

(3) Next step in the control process is to **compare the performance that the managers have been monitoring with the standards established at the first stage.** R.C. Davis identifies four phases in the comparison;
• receiving the raw data,
• accumulation, classification and recording of this information,
• periodic evaluation of completed action, and
• reporting the status of accomplishment to higher line of authority.

If it is found that the performance matches the standards you can conclude that everything is in control but if the results are otherwise, it is time to act.

After making a comparative assessment of established standards and performance the important step is to take appropriate action. Corrective action is essential to ensure that in future the desired objective is achieved. This may involve alterations, changes, rethinking or devising and employing better methods.

The important point is that as a manager you must consider various alternatives and depending on the requirement take proper action. Only identifying failures is of no use.

Information seeking, information sharing and information analysis are vital in the control process. For seeking information you can:

• Depend on personal observations, i.e., going to the area of activities and having a first hand experience about the quality of services, service timings and attitudes of those providing services.
• Ask for oral reports from employees or interview customers regarding the quality of services, improvements, suggestions, complaints etc.
• Ask for written reports from employees or feedback forms from customers. For this appropriate formats have to be devised as per requirements.

You can adopt any one of these methods or all of them. Information collected should be shared among other managers/partners if any in order to collectively analyse it, facilitate the decision making process and implementation.

Did you know? In setting standards we should keep in mind that they are valid, acceptable and clearly understandable to all concerned. The standards should be stated clearly in measurable terms with a time bound approach.

9.4 Meaning of Staffing

The managerial function of staffing involves manning the organization structure through proper and effective selection, appraisal and development of the personnel to fill the roles assigned to the employers/workforce.

According to Theo Haimann, “Staffing pertains to recruitment, selection, development and compensation of subordinates.”

9.5 Nature of Staffing

1. Staffing is an important managerial function: Staffing function is the most important managerial act along with planning, organizing, directing and controlling. The operations of these four functions depend upon the manpower which is available through staffing function.

2. Staffing is a pervasive activity: As staffing function is carried out by all managers and in all types of concerns where business activities are carried out.
3. **Staffing is a continuous activity**: This is because staffing function continues throughout the life of an organization due to the transfers and promotions that take place.

4. **The basis of staffing function is efficient management of personnels**: Human resources can be efficiently managed by a system or proper procedure, that is, recruitment, selection, placement training and development, providing remuneration, etc.

5. **Staffing helps in placing right men at the right job**: It can be done effectively through proper recruitment procedures and then finally selecting the most suitable candidate as per the job requirements.

6. **Staffing is performed by an managers**: depending upon the nature of business, size of the company, qualifications and skills of managers, etc. In small companies, the top management generally performs this function. In medium and small scale enterprise, it is performed especially by the personnel department of that concern.

### 9.6 Process of Staffing

1. **Manpower requirements**: The very first step in staffing is to plan the manpower inventory required by a concern in order to match them with the job requirements and demands. Therefore, it involves forecasting and determining the future manpower needs of the concern.

2. **Recruitment**: Once the requirements are notified, the concern invites and solicits applications according to the invitations made to the desirable candidates.

3. **Selection**: This is the screening step of staffing in which the solicited applications are screened out and suitable candidates are appointed as per the requirements.

4. **Orientation and Placement**: Once screening takes place, the appointed candidates are made familiar to the work units and work environment through the orientation programmes. placement takes place by putting right man on the right job.

5. **Training and Development**: Training is a part of incentives given to the workers in order to develop and grow then within the concern. Training is generally given according to the nature of activities and scope of expansion in it. Along with it, the workers are developed by providing them extra benefits of indepth knowledge of their functional areas. Development also includes giving them key and important jobs as a test or examination in order to analyse their performances.

6. **Remuneration**: It is a kind of compensation provided monetarily to the employees for their work performances. This is given according to the nature of job skilled or unskilled, physical or mental, etc. Remuneration forms an important monetary incentive for the employees.

7. **Performance Evaluation**: In order to keep a track or record of the behaviour, attitudes as well as opinions of the workers towards their jobs. For this regular assessment is done to evaluate and supervise different work units in a concern. It is basically concerning to know the development cycle and growth patterns of the employees in a concern.

8. **Promotion and transfer**: Promotion is said to be a non-monetary incentive in which the worker is shifted from a higher job demanding bigger responsibilities as well shifting the workers and transferring them to different work units and branches of the same organization.

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The managerial function of staffing involves manning the organization structure through proper and effective selection, appraisal and development of the personnels to fill the roles assigned to the employers/workforce.
9.7 Importance of Staffing

1. **Key to other managerial functions**: Staffing function is very closely related to other managerial areas of the business. It greatly influences the direction and control in the organization. The effectiveness of other managerial functions depends on the effectiveness of the staffing function.

2. **Building healthy human relationships**: Staffing function helps to build proper human relationships in the organization. Smooth human relations is the key to better communication and co-ordination of managerial efforts in an organization.

3. **Human resources development**: Skilled and experienced staff is the best asset of a business concern. The staffing function helps developing this asset for the business. It inculcates the corporate culture into the staff which in turn ensures smooth functioning of all the managerial aspects of the business.

4. **Long Term effect**: Staffing decisions have long term effect on the efficiency of an organization. Qualified, efficient and well motivated staff is an asset of the organization. Staffing function assumes special significance in the context of globalization which demands high degree of efficiency in maintaining competitiveness.

5. **Potential contribution**: Staff selection should be based on the ability of the prospective employees to meet the future challenges that the organization need to address. Therefore the potential contribution of the staff in their anticipated future roles should also be taken into account in staff selection.

9.8 Current Trends in Controlling and Staffing

(1) **Pre-action controls**: These are preventive measures aimed to check problems before their emergence. They are also known as pre-controls. Financial budgets and schedules are forms of pre-action control. This is because when you know your financial resources, working within them will be a control. The same applies for schedules.

(2) **Feedforward control (also called Preliminary control)**: In this system problems or deviations are anticipated before the operation of the task starts. Hence it has a close relationship with planning. In this control mechanism, managers identify the issues and the prospective action plans to meet the anticipated problems. For example, you are a tour operator. You ought to know in a year which particular season would have more tourist inflow and during which season the inflow would be less for the particular destination that you are packaging and selling. In anticipating the problems you may come across during the peak period, you would develop a proper mechanism to meet any anticipated problems. Feedforward control is essentially to alert managers about the probable hurdles that may affect the accomplishment of predetermined targets.

(3) **Concurrent control (also known as Steering control)**: This is an approach to control the work while it is being performed. Concurrent control system ensures the accomplishment of work according to a laid down plan and takes necessary corrective steps before any major damage is done or in case there are deviations. For example, each evening a floor supervisor in a restaurant, moves from the customer area, to the kitchen, to the cashier area. He monitors all activities in order to ensure customer satisfaction and takes necessary steps as and when required. For the effectiveness of steering control a manager must obtain the information on time and it should be accurate. Generally, steering control methods are most widely used because they provide tools for corrective action while the work is in progress.

(4) **Feedback control (also called Post action control)**: After the completion of a task, review is made to see whether the desired result has been achieved or not. Feedback control provides information about whether the goals of the organisation are met or not. This information can be used for deciding the future action plan of an organisation. It is often used as a basis for evaluating and rewarding employees also.
Notes

9.9 Group Dynamics in Controlling and Staffing

Group dynamics refers to a system of behaviors and psychological processes occurring within a social group (intragroup dynamics), or between social groups (intergroup dynamics). The study of group dynamics can be useful in understanding decision-making behavior, tracking the spread of diseases in society, creating effective therapy techniques, and following the emergence and popularity of new ideas and technologies. Group dynamics are at the core of understanding racism, sexism, and other forms of social prejudice and discrimination. These applications of the field are studied in psychology, sociology, anthropology, political science, epidemiology, education, social work, business, and communication studies.

The social process by which people interact and behave in a group environment is called group dynamics. Group dynamics involves the influence of personality, power, and behavior on the group process. Is the relationship between individuals conducive to achieving the group's goals? Is the structure and size of the group an asset in pursuing both the task and maintenance functions of the group? How is formal and informal power used to build consensus or reach decisions? Does the combination of individuals produce the right culture? How these individuals, cultures, and internal forces interact allows us to analyze and better understand group effectiveness. There are two types of groups: 1) formal groups who are structured to pursue a specific task, and 2) informal groups who emerge naturally in response to organizational or member interests.

These interests may include anything from a research group charged with the responsibility to develop a new product to a group of workers who spontaneously come together to improve social or member activities. While we can learn a lot from informal groups in terms of leadership and motivation, we will concentrate mostly on formal groups, characterized by member appointment and delegated authority and responsibility. Group Structure and Size Effective group performance depends to a large extent, on the size and composition of the group. A group may consist of as few as two people (giving credibility to the statement that “two heads are better than one”), or as many as three or four hundred. In order to be effective, group size should be kept to a minimum without jeopardizing workload and goal achievement. Larger groups increase the possibility of conflict due to the variety of viewpoints, few opportunities for the development of social relationships, a decrease in participation levels, and lack of opportunity for individual recognition. Individual skills and performance must be a consideration in forming a group. How many people will be required to ensure that all the skill sets necessary for the performance of the task are included? Will the task be slowed by a poor performer as may happen with assembly line production? Does the group contain the combination of leaders and followers that will lessen the potential for member rivalries and conflicts? Diversification is a factor in both group development and skill requirement. A group of predominately white males may develop more quickly than an ethnically and racially diverse group of men and women. But while the former group may be better able to communicate, set standards and grow as a cohesive unit, it may not be diverse enough to meet all the community or organizational needs. A more diverse group may take longer to reach peak performance due to the number of cultures, language differences, and interpretation of the task to be completed, but once they do develop, diverse groups are equally productive and may even be more creative in problem-solving because members have access to a broader base of ideas for solutions. Group Development The appointment of individuals to a group based on their compatibility, diversity, or expertise does not assure effectiveness in achieving group goals. A group is initially a collection of personalities with different characteristics, needs, and influences. To be effective, these individuals must spend time acclimatizing themselves to their environment, the task, and to each other. Organizational experts and practitioners have observed that new groups go through a number of stages before they achieve maximum performance. Each stage presents the members with different challenges that must be overcome before they can move on to the next stage. These stages have been identified as forming, storming, norming, performing, and adjourning.
1. **Forming**: At this first stage of development, members are preoccupied with familiarizing themselves with the task and to other members of the group. This is sometimes referred to as the dependent stage, as members tend to depend on outside expertise for guidance, job definition, and task analysis.

2. **Storming**: At this stage, the group encounters conflict as members confront and criticize each other and the approach the group is taking to their task. Issues that arise include identification of roles and responsibilities, operational rules and procedures, and the individual need for recognition of his or her skills and abilities. This stage is also referred to as the **counterdependent stage** where members tend to “flex their muscles” in search of identity. In some cases, the group may have problems getting through this stage. This may occur if the group encounters difficulty clarifying their task, agreeing on their mission or mandate, or deciding how they will proceed. Lack of skills, ability or aptitude can also contribute to their inability to get beyond this stage.

3. **Norming**: At this point, members start to resolve the issues that are creating the conflict and begin to develop their social agreements. The members begin to recognize their interdependance, develop cohesion, and agree on the group norms that will help them function effectively in the future.

4. **Performing**: When the group has sorted out its social structure and understands its goals and individual roles, it will move toward accomplishing its task. Mutual assistance and creativity become prominent themes at this stage. The group, sensing its growth and maturity, becomes independent, relying on its own resources.

5. **Adjourning**: During this phase, the group will resort to some form of closure that includes rites and rituals suitable to the event. These may include socials and parties, or ceremonies that exhibit emotional support or celebration of their success.

9.10 **Motivation in Controlling and Staffing**

The control of motivation is only understood to a limited extent. There are many different approaches of **motivation training**, but many of these are considered pseudoscientific by critics. To understand how to control motivation it is first necessary to understand why many people lack motivation.

**Employee motivation** See also: Work motivation

Workers in any organization need something to keep them working. Most of the time, the salary of the employee is enough to keep him or her working for an organization. An employee must be motivated to work for a company or organization. If no motivation is present in an employee, then that employee’s quality of work or all work in general will deteriorate.

When motivating an audience, you can use general motivational strategies or specific motivational appeals. General motivational strategies include soft sell versus hard sell and personality type. Soft sell strategies have logical appeals, emotional appeals, advice and praise. Hard sell strategies have barter, outnumbering, pressure and rank. Also, you can consider basing your strategy on your audience personality. Specific motivational appeals focus on provable facts, feelings, right and wrong, audience rewards and audience threats. **Job Characteristics Model** See also: Work motivation and Job satisfaction

The Job Characteristics Model (JCM), as designed by Hackman and Oldham attempts to use job design to improve employee motivation. They have identified that any job can be described in terms of five key job characteristics;

1. **Skill Variety** - the degree to which a job requires different skills and talents to complete a number of different activities

2. **Task Identity** - this dimension refers to the completion of a whole and identifiable piece of work versus a partial task as part of a larger piece of work
3. **Task Significance** - is the impact of the task upon the lives or work of others

4. **Autonomy** - is the degree of independence or freedom allowed to complete a job

5. **Task Feedback** - individually obtaining direct and clear feedback about the effectiveness of the individual carrying out the work activities

The JCM links these core job dimensions listed above to critical psychological states which results in desired personal and work outcomes. This forms the basis of this ‘employee growth-need strength.” The core dimensions listed above can be combined into a single predictive index, called the **Motivating Potential Score**. Motivating Potential Score See also: Work motivation and Job satisfaction

Jobs that are high in motivating potential must be high on at least one of the three factors that lead to experienced meaningfulness, and also must be high on both Autonomy and Feedback. If a job has a high MPS, the job characteristics model predicts that motivation, performance and job satisfaction will be positively affected and the likelihood of negative outcomes, such as absenteeism and turnover, will be reduced.

Motivation is of particular interest to educational psychologists because of the crucial role it plays in student learning. However, the specific kind of motivation that is studied in the specialized setting of education differs qualitatively from the more general forms of motivation studied by psychologists in other fields.

Motivation in education can have several effects on how students learn and how they behave towards subject matter.[13] It can:

1. Direct behavior toward particular goals
2. Lead to increased effort and energy
3. Increase initiation of, and persistence in, activities
4. Enhance cognitive processing
5. Determine what consequences are reinforcing

Because students are not always internally motivated, they sometimes need **situated motivation**, which is found in environmental conditions that the teacher creates.

If teachers decided to extrinsically reward productive student behaviors, they may find it difficult to extricate themselves from that path. Consequently student dependency on extrinsic rewards represents one of the greatest detractors from their use in the classroom.

The majority of new student orientation leaders at colleges and universities recognize that distinctive needs of students should be considered in regard to orientation information provided at the beginning of the higher education experience. Research done by Whyte in 1986 raised the awareness of counselors and educators in this regard. In 2007, the National Orientation Directors Association reprinted Cassandra B. Whyte’s research report allowing readers to ascertain improvements made in addressing specific needs of students over a quarter of a century later to help with academic success.

Generally, motivation is conceptualized as either **intrinsic** or **extrinsic**. Classically, these categories are regarded as distinct.[16] Today, these concepts are less likely to be used as distinct categories, but instead as two ideal types that define a continuum:

**staffing**

Employees are the building blocks of an organization. Organizational success depends on the collective efforts of the employees. The employees will collectively contribute to organizational growth when they are motivated.

Below mentioned are some **tips for motivating the staff / employees in an organization:**
Evaluate yourself- In order to motivate, encourage and control your staff’s behaviour, it is essential to understand, encourage and control your own behaviour as a manager. Work upon utilizing your strengths and opportunities to neutralize and lower the negative impact of your weaknesses and organizational threats. The manager should adopt the approach “You’re OK - I’m OK”.

Be familiar with your staff- The manager should be well acquainted with his staff. The more and the better he knows his staff, the simpler it is to get them involved in the job as well as in achieving the team and organizational goals. This will also invite staff’s commitment and loyalty. A cordial superior-subordinate relationship is a key factor in job-satisfaction.

Provide the employees certain benefits- Give your staff some financial and other benefits. Give them bonuses, pay them for overtime, and give them health and family insurance benefits. Make sure they get breaks from work. Let them enjoy vacations and holidays.

Participate in new employees induction programme- Induction proceeds with recruitment advertising. At this point of time, the potential entrants start creating their own impressions and desires about the job and the organization. The manner in which the selection is conducted and the consequent recruitment process will either build or damage the impression about the job and organization. Thus, the manager must have a say in framing the advertisement and also in the selection and recruitment process. After the decision about the candidate is made, the manager must take personal interest in the selected joinee’s joining date, the family relocation issues, cost of removal, etc. Being observed by the new recruit and your entire team / staff to be involved completely, will ensure a persuasive entry in the organization.

Provide feedback to the staff constantly- The staff members are keen to know how they are performing. Try giving a regular and constructive feedback to your staff. This will be more acceptable by the staff. Do not base the feedback on assumptions, but on facts and personal observations. Do not indulge in favouritism or comparing the employee with some one else. Sit with your staff on daily or weekly basis and make sure that feedback happens. This will help in boosting employee’s morale and will thus motivate the staff.

Acknowledge your staff on their achievements- A pat on the back, some words of praise, and giving a note of credit to the employee / staff member at personal level with some form of broad publicity can motivate the staff a lot. Make it a point to mention the staff’s outstanding achievements in official newsletters or organization’s journal. Not only acknowledge the employee with highest contribution, but also acknowledge the employee who meets and over exceeds the targets.

Self Assessment

1. Fill in the blanks:
   (i) _____ is a systematic effort to set performance standards with planning objectives.
   (ii) _____ are the units of measurement which can be used to evaluate performance.
   (iii) _____ is a continuous ongoing process done with the help of an appropriate mechanism.
   (iv) _____ involves recruitment, selection development and compensation of subordinate.
   (v) The very first step in staffing is to plan the _____.
   (vi) _____ is a kind of compensation provided monetarily to the employees for their work performance.
   (vii) _____ is a non monetary incentive in which worker is shifted from a higher job demanding bigger responsibilities.
9.11 Summary

• Management control can be defined as a process which ensures that the progress of the assigned work is according to the plan.

• Controlling is an end function: A function which comes once the performances are made in conformity with plans.

• Controlling is a pervasive function: which means it is performed by managers at all levels and in all type of concerns.

• Controlling is forward looking: because effective control is not possible without past being controlled. Controlling always look to future so that follow-up can be made whenever required.

• “Management control is a systemic effort to set performance standards with planning objectives, to”:
  - design information feedback systems.
  - compare actual performance with these pre-determined standards,
  - determine whether there are any deviations and to measure their significance, and take any corrective action required to assure that all corporate resources are being used in the most effective and efficient way possible for achieving corporate objectives.

• The first step in any control process is establishing standards. Standard is a desired or expected event which should grow out of organisational objectives. Standard may be defined as a unit of measurement which can be used to evaluate performance. Actually with the setting of standards the process of control begins.

• After setting the standard the second step is the measuring or monitoring of performance. It is a continuous ongoing process done with the help of an appropriate mechanism. Systematic flow of information is necessary to keep effective control over performance and this necessitates timely availability of accurate reports.

• Next step in the control process to compare the performance that the managers have been monitoring with the standards established at the first stage. R.C. Davis identifies four phases in the comparison;
  - If it is found that the performance matches the standards you can conclude that everything is in control but if the results are otherwise, it is time to act.
  - After making a comparative assessment of established standards and performance the important step is to take appropriate action. Corrective action is essential to ensure that in future the desired objective is achieved. This may involve alterations, changes, rethinking or devising and employing better methods.
  - The important point is that as a manager you must consider various alternatives and depending on the requirement take proper action. Only identifying failures is of no use.

• Information seeking, information sharing and information analysis are vital in the control process. For seeking information you can:
  - Depend on personal observations, i.e., going to the area of activities and having a first hand experience about the quality of services, service timing and attitudes of those providing services.

• According to Theo Haimann, “Staffing pertains to recruitment, selection, development and compensation of subordinates.”

• Staffing is an important managerial function: Staffing function is the most important managerial act along with planning, organizing, directing and controlling. The operations of these four functions depend upon the manpower which is available through staffing function.
Staffing is a pervasive activity: As staffing function is carried out by all managers and in all types of concerns where business activities are carried out.

Staffing is a continuous activity: This is because staffing function continues throughout the life of an organization due to the transfers and promotions that take place.

The basis of staffing function is efficient management of personnel: Human resources can be efficiently managed by a system or proper procedure, that is, recruitment, selection, placement training and development, providing remuneration, etc.

Staffing helps in placing right men at the right job: It can be done effectively through proper recruitment procedures and then finally selecting the most suitable candidate as per the job requirements.

Manpower requirements: The very first step in staffing is to plan the manpower inventory required by a concern in order to match them with the job requirements and demands. Therefore, it involves forecasting and determining the future manpower needs of the concern.

Recruitment: Once the requirements are notified, the concern invites and solicits applications according to the invitations made to the desirable candidates.

Selection: This is the screening step of staffing in which the solicited applications are screened out and suitable candidates are appointed as per the requirements.

Orientation and Placement: Once screening takes place, the appointed candidates are made familiar to the work units and work environment through the orientation programmes. Placement takes place by putting right man on the right job.

Training and Development: Training is a part of incentives given to the workers in order to develop and grow then within the concern. Training is generally given according to the nature of activities and scope of expansion in it.

Remuneration: It is a kind of compensation provided monetarily to the employees for their work performances. This is given according to the nature of job skilled or unskilled, physical or mental, etc. Remuneration forms an important monetary incentive for the employees.

Performance Evaluation: In order to keep a track or record of the behaviour, attitudes as well as opinions of the workers towards their jobs. For this regular assessment is done to evaluate and supervise different work units in a concern.

Promotion and transfer: Promotion is said to be a non-monetary incentive in which the worker is shifted from a higher job demanding bigger responsibilities as well shifting the workers and transferring them to different work units and branches of the same organization.

Key to other managerial functions: Staffing function is very closely related to other managerial areas of the business. It greatly influences the direction and control in the organization. The effectiveness of other managerial functions depends on the effectiveness of the staffing function.

Building healthy human relationships: Staffing function helps to build proper human relationships in the organization. Smooth human relations is the key to better communication and co-ordination of managerial efforts in an organization.

Human resources development: Skilled and experienced staff is the best asset of a business concern. The staffing function helps developing this asset for the business.

Long Term effect: Staffing decisions have long term effect on the efficiency of an organization. Qualified, efficient and well motivated staff is an asset of the organization.

Potential contribution: Staff selection should be based on the ability of the prospective employees to meet the future challenges that the organization need to address.
9.12 Keywords

- **Controlling**: the ability to make something do what you want.
- **Staff**: all the workers employed in an organization considered as a group.
- **Comptroller**: a person who is in charge of the financial accounts of a business company.
- **Deviation**: the act of moving away from what is normal or acceptable.

9.13 Review Questions

1. What do you understand by meaning of controlling?
2. Explain the process of Controlling.
3. What is the importance of staffing?
4. Describe the process of staffing.
5. What is the nature of staffing?

Answers: Self Assessment

1. (i) Management Controlling (ii) standards
   (iii) Measuring the performance (iv) Staffing
   (v) Manpower Inventory (vi) Remuneration
   (vii) Promotion

9.14 Further Readings

Unit 10: Implementing and Decision Making: Process and Means

CONTENTS
Objectives
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10.1 Meaning of Implementing
10.2 Process of Implementing
10.3 Meaning of Decision-making
10.4 Types of Decisions
10.5 Characteristics of Decision-making Process
10.6 Elements of Decision-making Process
10.7 Steps of Decision-making
10.8 Problems in Decision-making
10.9 Summary
10.10 Keywords
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10.12 Further Readings

Objectives
The objectives of this unit can be summarised as below:

- To discuss about the meaning of Implementing
- To explain about the process of Implementing
- To discuss about the meaning of decision making
- To describe about types of decisions
- To explain about characteristics of decision making process
- To discuss about the elements of decision making process
- To describe about the steps of decision making
- To discuss about the problems in decision making

Introduction
All educational managers are required to take decisions in many situations. Implementing and decision making is the most crucial aspect of educational administration. Sometimes the way a decision is taken may have far-reaching consequences. In the context of organizational functioning implementing and decision making are largely inseparable. Implementing and decision making is considered to be the heart of the management. We will discuss implementing and decision making in this unit.
10.1 Meaning of Implementing

Implementing means to workout a plan practically by some means. **Strategy implementation is the translation of chosen strategy into organizational action so as to achieve strategic goals and objectives.** Strategy implementation is also defined as the manner in which an organization should develop, utilize, and amalgamate organizational structure, control systems, and culture to follow strategies that lead to competitive advantage and a better performance. Organizational structure allocates special value developing tasks and roles to the employees and states how these tasks and roles can be correlated so as maximize efficiency, quality, and customer satisfaction—the pillars of competitive advantage. But, organizational structure is not sufficient in itself to motivate the employees.

10.2 Process of Implementing

An organizational control system is also required. This control system equips managers with motivational incentives for employees as well as feedback on employees and organizational performance. Organizational culture refers to the specialized collection of values, attitudes, norms and beliefs shared by organizational members and groups.

Following are the main steps in implementing a strategy:

- Developing an organization having potential of carrying out strategy successfully.
- Disbursement of abundant resources to strategy-essential activities.
- Creating strategy-encouraging policies.
- Employing best policies and programs for constant improvement.
- Linking reward structure to accomplishment of results.
- Making use of strategic leadership.

Excellently formulated strategies will fail if they are not properly implemented. Also, it is essential to note that strategy implementation is not possible unless there is stability between strategy and each organizational dimension such as organizational structure, reward structure, resource-allocation process, etc.

Strategy implementation poses a threat to many managers and employees in an organization. New power relationships are predicted and achieved. New groups (formal as well as informal) are formed whose values, attitudes, beliefs and concerns may not be known. With the change in power and status roles, the managers and employees may employ confrontation behaviour.

Decision-making is a process of selection from a set of alternative courses of action, which is thought to fulfill the objectives of the decision problem more satisfactorily than others. It is a course of action, which is consciously chosen for achieving a desired result. A decision is a process that takes place prior to the actual performance of a course of action that has been chosen. In terms of managerial decision-making, it is an act of choice, wherein a manager selects a particular course of action from the available alternatives in a given situation. Managerial decision making process involves establishing of goals, defining tasks, searching for alternatives and developing plans in order to find the best answer of the decision problem. The essential elements in a decision making process include the following:

1. The decision maker,
2. The decision problem,
3. The environment in which the decision is to be made,
4. The objectives of the decision maker,
5. The alternative courses of action,
6. The outcomes expected from various alternatives, and
7. The final choice of the alternative.

Decision making is a human process involving to a great extent the application of intellectual abilities.

10.3 Meaning of Decision-making

All educational managers are required to take decision in many situations. Implementing Decision-making is the most critical aspect of educational administration. Sometimes, the way a decision is taken may have far-reaching consequences. In the context of organizational functioning administration and decision-making are, largely inseparable. Implementing Decision-making is considered to be the "heart of the administration". It is the process through which administrators work to accomplish their tasks. In other words, it means making a choice of one form among two or more alternatives to achieve an objective. The power of an executive in the organization is defined in terms of the decisions that he is allowed to make. In others words, it means that power of an administrator in any educational or of the formal organization is also seen by Griffiths to be determined by the decision making prevailing in the organization. For example, if decisions are made on decentralized basis, the formal organization that emerges will be “flat.” It has also been observed by Griffiths that informal organizations, many a time, alter the decision-making process of the formal organization.

10.4 Types of Decisions

Depending upon the focus or concern of the decision they have been classified as (a) institutional decisions, (b) strategy decisions, (c) administrators’ behaviour decisions.

(1) Institutional Decisions: These are mostly decisions related to scheduling or policy-making concerning programmes and activities and curricula. They include allocation decisions, expenditures decisions, planning decisions, facilities decisions, and so on. They are, in fact, what educational administration is all about. Quality of the institution depends largely upon these decisions.

(2) Strategy-Decisions: Once an institutional decision has been take, it remains to see how it should be implemented. This calls for identifying appropriate strategies or tactics to move the institution form one existing to another expected situation. Strategy decisions are decisions about who should be involved in what, when and how. They require an understanding of personal abilities and styles of those who are to be involved in the implementation of the decision. In the same way, priorities and training considerations may also be necessary to be made.

(3) Administrators’ Behaviours Decisions: No administrator can behave in a random manner. His own behaviour is important in all situations. Hence, all new administrative situations require specific, relevant and meaningful behaviours for success. To take decisions about one’s own response and behaviours administrators should know themselves well and also others. Such decisions require to think how much communication with a group will be necessary and what attitudes and tone will be most relevant with various groups. Depending upon what will happen to the goal or objectives as a consequence of the decision taken, decisions may be classified as follows: (a) Status quo decisions (b) deferred decisions, (c) new course decisions, (d) response decisions.
Notes

(a) **Status Quo Decisions**: These emerge when the administrator decides in a situation not to change the existing situation, not to do anything or not to disturb the existing status of a phenomenon. It is a no intervention policy. But, it should be considered so only when it is a deliberate and genuine decision not to take action. If it is the result of the inability or helplessness of the administrator, it cannot be considered a decision at all.

(b) **Deferred Decision**: this is the decision which means no to decide it at this time. Let this be postponed to sometime in future. It should be used sparingly and only in unavoidable situations.

(c) **New Course Decisions**: This is a decision which implies starting in a wholly new direction, not just modifying the existing situation. These may be considered radical decisions.

(d) **Response Decisions**: These mean decisions implying actual responses to the situation. There may be situations in which the administrator, perhaps, can not use status quo, or defer or new course decisions and he id forced by the situation to take some action to alleviate problems of facilitate schools and people in them to meet their objectives. Decisions taken in such situations are known as response decisions.

Some of these are the same as have already been discussed under earlier classifications.

10.5 Characteristics of Decision-making Process

Decision making process has the following important characteristics:

(1) **Cyclical Nature**: Decisions breed decisions. No decision is such as it settles the issue for ever. Rather, the situation is that a decision once finalized, gives rise to the need for a series of follow-up decisions. Having implemented the decision, there is the need to evaluate the outcome of the decision-implementation.

(2) **Decision Making is a four Stage Process**: These four stage are: (a) becoming aware of the need for a decision, (b) designing the situation, (c) Selecting an alternative, (d) taking-action or implementing the decision.

(3) **Decision Making has four Different Settings**: The setting refers to the total set of environmental conditions influencing analysis and choice. Depending upon the degree of change resulting form a choice and the amount of information grasp the exists to support the change there are four important decision settings. These are (a) metamorphic decision setting, when the situation, is such that a complete change through the decision is needed, (b) haemostatic setting is one that involved a low degree of change and high degree of information grasp. This is the setting which is most prevalent in the field of education, (c) incremental setting, i.e., a situation that result in a shift to a new balance by the process of series of small changes. In the setting reliance

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**Did u know?** The four types of decisions have been Conceptualized by Stuffle-Beam. These are (a) planning decisions to determine goals, (b) implementing decision (b) structuring decisions which specify means to achieve goals, (c) implementing decisions referring to carrying on plans i.e. actual means, (d) recycling decisions which focus on actual attainments in relation to intended ends.
is placed on expert judgement, special studies, committees and discussions rather than on routinely collected information, (d) neomobilistic decision settings, i.e., the situations in which new solutions are needed for solving significant problems and when considerable change is expected after implementing the decision. But, this is a situation in which little information is available as opposed to understanding of all relevant information in case of metamorphic setting.

(4) **Decision Models** : Excluding metamorphic decisions settings, a decision model has been identified that corresponds to each of the settings. These are: (a) Synoptic model, appropriate for homeostatic settings in which collection and analysis of all informations are needed. It does not deal with value conflicts. (ii) The disjointed model is suitable for incremental settings. The focus in this is present time needs; and a problem-solving approach is used in this case. Improving what actually exists is a major criterion for considering alternatives (c) the planned change model is appropriate for neomobilistic decision settings. This is complex and time-consuming. It involves steps like research, development, diffusion and adoption.

**10.6 Elements of Decision-making Process**

The process of decision-making involves several elements. The most important of these are sense of purpose, need of decision, reviewing alternatives selecting a course of action. This also includes sense of priority, sense of time, sense of cost and understanding of alternatives. Griffiths has described six steps or elements in the process of decision-making. These are: (1) recognizing, defining and limiting the problem, analysing and evaluating the problem, (3) establishing criteria of judgement so that the decision can be evaluated in terms of its success, (4) collecting relevant data, (5) selecting a solution (6) putting the solution into effect.

**10.7 Steps of Decision-making**

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These 7 steps in decision making will give you the essential elements of a structured process model. From issue identification to action, evaluation and learning. Improve your decision making ... in just a minute!

This is one of our **Manage in a Minute** pages. These contain practical tips on essential management topics. No fuss or side-tracks, they get straight to the point. Here, in a series of bullet points which can be read in a minute (ish!), are some essential tips on decision making.

**10.8 Problems in Decision-making**

There are several factors that complicate the process of decision-making. These may be considered as problems that the decision-makers sometimes face and find it difficult to take a relevant decision. These are:

(1) **Conflicts and Stress** : The foregoing discussion on decision making is relevant in a situation where there is agreement on both means and ends. There may be a situation, on the other hand, where some people agree to a decision but others do not. This is situation of conflict in which there are disagreements about ends, means or both. Decision-making in this situation is difficult and stressful. It is a problematic situation for decision-maker.

(2) **Ensuring Participation** : This is another problem that an administrator faces while taking a decision. How to ensure effective participation of those who are to be involved in the process of resolution of conflict. If others know that they are being involved for window dressing purposes only, they will not feel involvement and the purpose will be defeated. Many people may feel that their involvement is not useful. Various decisions require various kinds of participation. This also complicates the process of decision making.
(3) **Problem of Deadlines**: Sometimes, the situation is so structured that the conflict must be resolved by specified time, otherwise definite harm may be caused. Such deadlines present sometimes serious problems. There are deadlines that are harmful. They grow out of crisis. An early action is most warranted in them. For example, a malicious propaganda against the Vice-Chancellor requires instant response and decision to this effect has to be taken. The Vice-Chancellor has, perhaps, to act in the absence of consultation, complete information in or adequate time to design and review alternatives. This is a situation in which deadline for taking a decision is set. If it is not done quickly more harm may be done.

(4) **Problem of Adequate Information**: Complete and adequate information about all related variables is necessary for taking a right decision. But, it is not always possible. How to ensure adequate, complete, certain and objective information about all related variables is always a problem, particularly in the field of education administrator where the administrators deal, most of the time, with people of a variety of ages in complex institutions where individual roles are regularly shifting. Prediction of behaviour in these situations is not so valid as it can be in other fields.

(5) **Problem of Commitments**: Another problem is that it is not always possible to see that those with whom decision is taken and who are to implement the decision are committed also to what they have decided. This may be due to several reasons. But, unless they are themselves, genuinely interested in implementing the decision, it cannot be made a fact.

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**Self Assessment**

1. **Fill in the blanks**:

   (i) Excellently formulated _____ will fail if they are not properly implemented.

   (ii) _____ is a process of selection from a set of alternative courses of action, which is thought to fulfill the objectives of decision problem.

   (iii) _____ are related to scheduling or policy making concerning programmes and activities and curricular.

   (iv) Decision making is a _____ stage process.

   (v) _____ has described six steps or elements in the process of decision making.

   (vi) _____ and _____ information about all related variables in necessary for taking a right decisions.

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**10.9 Summary**

- Strategy implementation is also defined as the manner in which an organization should develop, utilize, and amalgamate organizational structure, control systems, and culture to follow strategies that lead to competitive advantage and a better performance.

- An organizational control system is also required. This control system equips managers with motivational incentives for employees as well as feedback on employees and organizational performance.

- Following are the main steps in implementing a strategy:

  - Developing an organization having potential of carrying out strategy successfully.
  - Disbursement of abundant resources to strategy-essential activities.
• Creating strategy-encouraging policies.
• Employing best policies and programs for constant improvement.
• Linking reward structure to accomplishment of results.
• Making use of strategic leadership.
• Decision-making is a process of selection from a set of alternative courses of action, which is thought to fulfill the objectives of the decision problem more satisfactorily than others. It is a course of action, which is consciously chosen for achieving a desired result. A decision is a process that takes place prior to the actual performance of a course of action that has been chosen. The essential elements in a decision making process include the following:
  (i) The decision maker,
  (ii) The decision problem,
  (iii) The environment in which the decision is to be made,
  (iv) The objectives of the decision maker,
  (v) The alternative courses of action,
  (vi) The outcomes expected from various alternatives, and
  (vii) The final choice of the alternative.
• Depending upon the focus or concern of the decision they have been classified as (a) institutional decisions, (b) strategy decisions, (c) administrators’ behaviour decisions.
  (i) Institutional Decisions: These are mostly decisions related to scheduling or policy-making concerning programmes and activities and curricula.
  (ii) Strategy-Decisions: Once an institutional decision has been taken, it remains to see how it should be implemented.
  (iii) Administrators’ Behaviours Decisions: No administrator can behave in a random manner. His own behaviour is important in all situations.
• Status Quo Decisions: These emerge when the administrator decides in a situation not to change the existing situation, not to do anything or not to disturb the existing status of a phenomenon.
• Deferred Decision: this is the decision which means no to decide it at this time.
• New Course Decisions: This is a decision which implies starting in a wholly new direction, not just modifying the existing situation.
• Response Decisions: These mean decisions implying actual responses to the situation.
• Characteristics of Decision Making Process
• Decision making process has the following important characteristics:
  (i) Cyclical Nature.
  (ii) Decision making is a four stage process,
  (iii) Decision making has four Different Settings, and
  (iv) Decision Models.
• Cyclical Nature: Decisions breed decisions. No decision is such as it settles the issue for ever.
• Decision Making is a four Stage Process: These four stage are: (a) becoming aware of the need for a decision, (b) designing the situation, (c) Selecting an alternative, (d) taking-action or implementing the decision.
• Decision Making has four Different Settings: The setting refers to the total set of environmental conditions influencing analysis and choice. Depending upon the degree of change resulting form a choice and the amount of information grasp the exists to support the change there are four important decision settings. These are (a) metamorphic decision setting, when the situation, is such that a complete change through the decision is needed, (b) haemostatic setting is one that involved a low degree of change and high degree of information grasp.
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• Decision Models: Excluding metamorphic decisions settings, a decision model has been identified that corresponds to each of the settings. These are: (a) Synoptic model, appropriate for homeostatic settings in which collection and analysis of all informations are needed. It does not deal with value conflicts. (ii) The disjointed model is suitable for incrementnal settings.

• Elements of Decision Making Process

• The process of decision-making involves several elements. The most important of these are sense of purpose, need of decision, reviewing alternatives selecting a course of action. This also includes sense of priority, sense of time, sense of cost and understanding of alternatives.

• There are several factors that complicate the process of decision-making. These may be considered as problems that the decision-makers sometimes face and find it difficult to take a relevant decision. These are:
  (i) Conflicts and Stress
  (ii) Ensuring Participation
  (iii) Problem of Deadlines
  (iv) Problem of Adequate Information
  (v) Problem of Commitments

10.10 Keywords

• Implementation: The process of making something that has been officially decided start to happen.

• Decision-making: The process of deciding about something important especially in a group of people or in organization.

• Consensus: An opinion that all members of a group agree with.

10.11 Review Questions

1. What is the meaning of Implementing
2. Explain the strategies of Implementing
3. What is the meaning of decision making process?
4. What are the characteristics of decision making process?
5. Give the steps in decision making process.
6. What are the problems of decision making process?

Answers: Self Assessment

1. (i) Strategies (ii) decision making
   (iii) Institutional decisions (iv) four
   (v) Griffths (vi) Complete, adequate

10.12 Further Readings

Unit 11: Leadership Style and Theories of Leadership

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11.1 Meaning of Leadership
11.2 Social Notion of Leadership
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Objectives

The objectives of this unit can be summarised as below:

• To explain the Meaning of Leadership
• To discuss about Social Nation of Leadership
• To describe about Theories of Leadership
• To discuss about the Measurement of Educational Leadership

Introduction

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 departments set-up by the governments. These organizations are established for the purpose of achieving certain specific goals. In general, all of them bear a responsibility to impart knowledge to the pupils, develop in them skills and certain human qualities. Some of them are established to train people for certain jobs.

The importance of leadership in management of any educational organization can never be minimized. Achievement of organizational goals very much depends on how effectively leadership is exercised in the organization. Organizational leaders are the key figures who can so change the work climate that all the employees are motivated to work hard with the result that the goals are achieved. On the other hand, there may be leaders who are there in positions but they achieve nothing. Their philosophy of life, their styles of management, their ways of decision-making etc., perhaps, are not conducive to the effective functioning of the institution. And that has been the case with the system of education in our country. We have failed to provide knowledgeable, technically trained and goal-oriented leadership to man our system of education. Form top to bottom our
Notes

Educational managers are recruited from amongst the professionals, teachers and other generalists. They are not persons who have been trained in administration or management science. They have acquired a few required skills (that too poorly) just working on the job through trial and error behaviour without knowing why it works and how it works. They utterly lack managerial insight. Many of the Vice-Chancellors, Principals of Colleges, Heads of the Departments, Headmasters of the Schools and Directors, etc., have poor understanding of the goals of their organizations, the organizational process through which these goals can be achieved and the kind of leadership style that may be most suited to the kind of situation prevailing in the organization.

11.1 Meaning of Leadership

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. Thus, leadership is inseparably bound up with the achievement of organizational goals. Leadership in education organizations as a corollary must also be seen in this perspective. Thus, management of education institutions implies. Leadership in education; and leadership in education, in turn, implies efficient and effective ways of achieving the institutional goals. Effective leader-managers are the basic and scarcest resources of any enterprise. There is shortage of effective leader-managers in all fields. But this is more so in the field of education.

The term ‘manager’ points out to a person who is holding a managerial position such as the Vice-Chancellor of a University, Principal of a College, Head of the Department, Director of institution, Headmaster of a School, Supervisors, Inspectors, etc., since these persons are held responsible for achieving the organizational goals, they are to be legitimately designated as leaders. Whether they are effective or ineffective that is entirely a different matter. However, some experts in the field have defined leadership in more specific and technical ways. George R. Terry has defined leadership as an “activity of influencing people to strive willingly for group objectives.” In the light of this definition an educational leader is one who makes willingly all efforts on achieving institutional goals be influencing and making other strive for the same.

Tannenbaum, Weschler, Massarik define leadership as “interpersonal influence exercised in a situation and directed. Towards the attainment of a specialized goal or goals.” Koonz and O’Donnell state that “Leadership is influencing people to follow in the achievement of a common goal.” It emerges form all these definitions that leadership orientation has two dimensions inherent in its connotation—the achievement of organizational goals and working with people. These may be considered two attitudes towards people. His effectiveness as a leader is said to be determined by these two sets of his attitudes.

11.2 Social Notion of Leadership

The concept of leadership is a social notion. It was formally developed during the 1960s to emphasize the ability of the leader to influence the people in his organization in order to achieve the organizational goals. It emphasizes the interactional processes involved in the achievement of goals. Each manager in the field of education is called upon, every day to display leadership in a variety of forms. Practice of leadership is, in all forms essentially, an interpersonal activity.

11.3 Theories of Leadership

What constitutes leadership? What kind of leadership style is more effective? What are the characteristics of an effective leader? How can leadership be measured? These were some of the puzzling questions that were heavily weighing in the minds of researchers and administrators in
the 1950s. Even earlier than that, experts in the field of administration had been pondering over these issues. As a result of this kind of thinking, these questions were answered by people in different ways. Several theoretical positions were held by them. Which tried to explain and clarify various aspects of leadership.

11.3.1 Philosophical Approach (Theory-X and Theory-Y Assumptions)

The kind of philosophy about other people that a leader has determines his leadership behaviour. This was the approach developed by Douglas McGregor. According to him the leadership style is determined by the way a leader perceives his subordinates by the assumptions that he makes about the human nature and human motivation. These assumptions are very similar to the views presented by Elton Mayo. McGregor called these two sets of assumptions as theory-X and theory-Y. The assumptions underlying theory-X are that people, in general, prefer to be directed; they try to shirk responsibility and keep their own interest and safety above all other things. Also, theory-X assumes that people, generally, do not like to work; they are not enthusiastic about work and prefer to be directed. The theory also assumes that people have little capacity for creativity in solving organizational problems. They care most and only for their physiological and safety needs. The theory also assumes that most people need to be controlled and often forced to achieve organizational goals. This is the nature of human beings as perceived by theory-X.

Hence managers who believe in this theory tend to exercise greater control and discipline over their subordinates. They try to supervise them closely and direct them as to what should be done in what manner. Thus, these managers happen to be authoritarian, autocratic, task-oriented, rigid and strict. External control over the subordinates is considered essential by them. Whether these assumptions about people are correct or incorrect is entirely a different matter. But some people do have this kind of thinking about others. McGregor himself held that these assumptions are often inaccurate with the result that management approaches based on these assumptions fall in many situations.

Another set of assumptions about human nature that McGregor could sort out was termed by him theory-Y. He said that many people perceive others differently from what is expressed in the assumptions underlying theory-X. This theory assumes that people are not, by nature, lazy and unreliable, and that they can be self-directed and creative in situations of work, if they are appropriately motivated. Other assumptions underlying this theory are: people can be made to work to satisfy their social, esteem and self-actualization needs; they can also be creative in solving organizational problems; self-control is essential for solving organizational problems and achieving its goals; people can be made to develop self-control, and that work is as natural as play in situations of favourable conditions. Thus, McGregor held that many people think that the subordinates can achieve their goals best by directing their own efforts toward accomplishing organizational goals.

The managers who believe in this theory-Y are generally supportive and facilitating. They care for the people, give them a chance to work independently, they are permissive and help their subordinates. They have faith in the subordinates and depend on them. Thus, theory-Y managers are people-oriented largely.

Theory-X and theory-Y are just the attitudes towards people. These do not mean that one is good and the other is bad. It depends on the situation as to which will work. Similarly, this is also not true that theory-X manager will always believe as prescribed under the theory. Since his assumptions are only his attitudes, they may change in course of time. But, by and large, it appears to be true that these two theories, theory-X and theory-Y do influence the management styles of the leaders.

11.3.2 The Trait Theory of Leadership

Prior to 1960 it was assumed that effective leaders have certain unique personality qualities. Everyone can not 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
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.

**11.3.3 Behaviour theories of leadership**

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.

Andrew Halpin used these dimensions for describing the leader behaviour of school superintendents. He defined them as follows:

1. **Initiating Structure**: This means making efforts to establish well defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, methods and procedures of work, and to specify the relationship between himself and the members of his group.

2. **Consideration**: This refers to behaviours indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of his staff.

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 cathetic 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. This is the 
same as task orientation or initiating structure dimension. 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 
personoriented dimension of leader behaviour was thought to be consisting of six sub-sets of 
behaviour as follows :

(a) Systems-Oriented Behaviour Dimension : It 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.
The concept of leadership is a social notion. It was formally developed during the 1960s to emphasize the ability of the leader to influence the people in his organization in order to achieve the organizational goals. It emphasizes the interactional processes involved in the achievement of goals.

### 11.3.4 Contingency Theories of Leadership

The behavioural theory of leadership had assumed that there are certain types of behaviour that make for the success of the leaders, if they have them in the repertory of their behaviours. In other words, the approach asserted that if a leader shows and adopts certain behaviour patterns, he is likely to be more effective. For example, it asserted that if a leader shows regard for his coworkers, he will be more successful. In a way, the theory presented a viewpoint that the determinants of the effectiveness of leaders were locked in certain specific behaviours which they should adopt while exercising leadership. Since, this approach could not stand the test of research, it was supplanted by a more flexible and realistic point of view which emphasized that the effectiveness of leadership is a function of an interplay between leader-behaviour and the situation in which leadership is exercised. Consequently, it was found to be more logical to believe that the desire to have a single ideal type of leader-behaviour pattern was unrealistic. Several theorists in the field, then, started saying that effectiveness of leadership should be considered a resultant of the interaction between the leader and the situation which may be expressed as $E = f(l, f, s)$ in which

- $E =$ Effectiveness
- $f =$ Function
- $l =$ Leader
- $f =$ Followers
- $s =$ Other situational variables.

This means that an effective leader is one who has the ability to adapt to the demands of the situation and the needs of the followers. The leader or the manager must be like a painter artist who changes his style and technique in order to produce a particular effect in his painting. It was, then, realized that the more the leaders adapt their style of leadership to meet the situational needs including the needs of followers the more effective they will be in realizing the goals of organization.

These were the views of the situational or contingency theories of leadership. These theories were termed as contingency theories since the effectiveness of the leaders were, in them, seen to be contingent upon the situational variables. These theories are based on four assumptions:

(a) that leadership can be described in terms of behaviour-patterns or styles of leaders.

(b) that a key issue is the extent to which leader behaviour is task-oriented and person-oriented.

(c) that there is no one universal best way to exercise leadership under all conditions. Hence, one has to assess which way or style is more appropriate in a particular situation.

(d) that in choosing a style of leadership, the appropriate criterion is effectiveness or outcome.

There are four popular contingency or situational theories of leadership. These have had powerful impact on training of managers and practice of management in all fields. They seem to have wide applicability to management in the field of education also. They have been described as follows:
11.3.5 Fiedler’s Contingency Theory of Leadership

Fred Fiedler (1967) developed this theory and said that neither situational characteristics nor leader characteristics alone accounted for group productivity. To him it was a combination of both that mattered. Leadership effectiveness, according to him, as measured by group performance is an outcome of the dynamic interplay between leader and situation both. In other words, he meant that the performance of the leader depended on appropriate matching of leader and situation. Fiedler pointed out that neither the considerate leader nor the structuring leader is consistently more effective. Similarly, participative management has been effective in some situations but not in others. On the other hand, critical factors inherent in the situation in which leadership is exercised determine the effectiveness of the leadership. He conceptualized these critical factors as the favourableness of the situation and said that the effectiveness of the leadership depends on the favourableness of the situation in terms of three characteristics:

(i) Relationship between the leader and the followers
(ii) The degree to which the task is well-structured
(iii) Power of the leader’s position.

**Fiedler’s Contingency Model Analysis of Situational Variables to Suggest which Leadership Style is likely to be Most Effective**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contingencies in the Situation</th>
<th>Favourableness</th>
<th>Effective Leader Style</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S.No. Power Position</td>
<td>Task Structure</td>
<td>Leader-Member Relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Strong</td>
<td>Structured</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Weak</td>
<td>Structured</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Strong</td>
<td>Unstructured</td>
<td>do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Weak</td>
<td>do</td>
<td>do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Strong</td>
<td>Structured</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Weak</td>
<td>do</td>
<td>do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Strong</td>
<td>Unstructured</td>
<td>do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Weak</td>
<td>do</td>
<td>do</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A situation was considered to be favourable if his relations between the leader and other workers in the organization were good, if the leader was accepted by the group, if the workers willingly followed the instructions of the leader. Similarly, a situation was considered favourable if the task to be completed was well-structured. A task was considered to be well-structured if the goals, methods and procedures were all clear to the workers. Leader’s power of position was defined in terms of his status, authority, his power to punish and reward the workers.
Fiedler has also summarized which leadership style is more effective in what kind of situation, favourable or unfavourable. In general, he has said that both the situations, favourable as well as unfavourable, call for a task-oriented leader. But, in case of moderately favourable situation he has recommended relationship-oriented style of leadership to be used. Thus, according to Fiedler, it is meaningless to speak of “effective” or “ineffective” leaders. The same leader may be effective in one situation, but ineffective in another one. He has prepared a matrix taking the variables of situation favourableness and unfavourableness from which one can easily read which kind of leadership will be more appropriate. This is reproduced on the proceeding page.

From this table one can find out which kind of situation is favourable or unfavourable and also which style of leadership can be effective in that situation. For example, if one finds that leader’s power-position is weak, task is also not well structured, but leader-member relationship is good, the situation is favourable and relationship-oriented style is likely to be more effective (see row in the table).

Major Characteristics of the Theory: Following are the most important characteristics of this theory:

1. 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 leadership which he defines in terms of the underlying need structure that motivates the leader to behave in a particular way. Basically, these are two need-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 leadership behaviours 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.

2. Maximizing Group Performance: The focus of the theory is to analyze and identify the style of leadership which may maximize the performance of the group so that organizational goals may be achieved.

3. Group-Task Situation: The theory emphasizes that the suitability of 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 favourableness 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 favourableness is, then, a composite of these three factors. This can be measured through a questionnaire.

11.3.6 Vroom’s and Yetton’s Nomative Contingency Theory

Victor Vroom’s and Philip Yetton’s contingency theory specifies how leaders ought to behave in order to be effective in view of specific situational contingencies. This is just opposite to Blake’s and Mouton s prescriptive formula that team leadership of participative leadership is most effective. Vroom’s and Yetton’s theory can be described as a normative theory as it tries to link leader behaviour to specific contingencies. It lays down norms as to how the leader should behave in a certain situation. The authors of this theory have developed a taxonomy of five leadership styles as follows:

A. Autocratic Process

Coming under this type there are two leadership styles as follows:

A-I Leader or Manager makes the decision using whatever information is available.

A-II Leader secures necessary information from members of the group and, then, makes the decision. In obtaining information the leader ‘may’ or may not tell followers what the problem is.
B. Consultative Process

In this category also there are two leadership styles as follows:

C-I This style refers to the leader who shares the decision making process with relevant members on a one-to-one basis getting their ideas and suggestions individually without bringing them together as a group. Having collected the information he takes the decision on the basis of that.

C-II This style refers to the leader who shares the problem with members as a group at a meeting and takes the decision in consultation with them in the meeting itself.

C. Group Processes

This is the group of styles in which the leader makes decisions as follows. This is the style known as G—II.

G-II This is a style in which case the leader acting as the chair person at a meeting of the group shares the problem with the group and facilitates efforts of the group to reach consensus on a group decision. The leader may give information and express opinion but does not try to force a particular decision on them or manipulate the group through indirect method or backdoors to accept his decision. He accepts and implements any solution that the support of the entire group.

Vroom’s and Yetton’s contingency theory describes leadership styles in behavioural terms and not in general terms. Which of these styles will be more appropriate in a particular situation can be diagnosed by using the following two steps:

I. First diagnose the situation in which leadership has to be attempted.

II. Then, consult the flow chart given here. The chart indicates the style to be used in that situation.

Diagnosing the situation: In order to diagnose the situation in which leadership has to be exercised, one has to put to himself the following seven questions. The “yes” or “no” answers given to these questions will reveal what kind of a situation this is. These questions are:

1. Does the problem possess a quality requirement? This means considering whether, the decision has to be made right now with no time to consult others, whether it is desirable to stimulate team development, whether it is desirable to keep people informed through participation.
2. Does the leader have sufficient information to make a good decision?
3. Is the problem structured well enough?
4. Is it necessary for others to accept the decision in order to be implemented?
5. If the leader makes the decision alone, how certain is it that others will accept it?
6. Do others share the organizational goals that will be attained by solving this problem?
7. Are the preferred solution to the problem likely to create conflict among others in the group?

Having assessed the situational contingencies in this way, attempts are made to identify the style that may be most appropriate by consulting the flow chart as given on the following page.

The chart shows fourteen types of problems or leadership situations along with a preferred leadership style for each one of them. Out of the five styles (AI, All, CI, CII, GII) one may be identified as the most suited style.

11.3.7 Reddin’s 3-D Theory of Leadership

William J-Reddin’s 3-D theory is seen as an extension of earlier two dimensional (task-oriented and relationship-oriented) theories. In these earlier theories it was suggested that the effective leadership style was a combination of these two behavioural dimensions, task orientation and relationship orientation. Reddin added to these two dimensions one more dimension, “effectiveness” making it a 3-dimensional theory. Each of these three dimensions has been defined as follows:
Notes

1. **Task Orientation (TO)**: This means that extent to which a manager is able to direct his own and his subordinate’s efforts toward goal attainment.

2. **Relationship Orientation (RO)**: This means the extent to which a leader or a manager is likely to have personal job relationships characterized by mutual trust, respect for subordinate’s ideas and consideration of their feelings.

3. **Effectiveness**: This means the extent to which the leader achieves the goal for which his or her position is responsible. It is a continuous scale and not an “either-or” dimension.

**Situational Contingencies**: In order to diagnose the situation in which leadership has to be exercised Reddin suggested a five factor criterion. These five factors are:

1. Psychological climate
2. The technology used
3. Relationships with superiors
4. Relationship with co-workers
5. Relationship with subordinates.

Taking into consideration these five characteristics of the leadership situation one can understand it and evaluate it with a view to find out a more appropriate leadership style.

**Leadership Style**: This theory identifies basic four styles of leadership:

A. Low task-low relationship style
B. Low task-high relationship style
C. High task-low relationship style
D. High task-high relationship style

Reddin said that these leadership styles are effective in different situations. None of them is universally effective. Thus, effectiveness of a style depends on the situation in which it is used. In addition to four basic styles of leadership, Reddin has described four effective and four ineffective styles.

**Effective Styles**

1. **Executive Styles**: This means a great deal of concern for both the task (TO) and people (RO). A manager using this style is a good motivator of workers. He sets high standards, recognizes individual differences and utilizes team management with a view to achieve the well-defined goals of the organization.

2. **Developer**: This refers to the style in which there is maximum concern for the people (RO) and minimum concern for the task (TO). A manager using this style has trust in people and is mainly concerned with developing them as individuals.

3. **Benevolent Autocrat**: This style gives maximum concern to task (TO) and minimum to people (RO). A manager using this style knows well what he wants and how to get it without causing resentment.

4. **Bureaucrat**: This style gives minimum concern to both the task (TO) and the people (RO). A manager using this style is mainly interested in the rules. He tries to maintain and control the situation by using his power and authority as vested in statutes, rules and ordinances. But, at the same time, he is seen as conscientious.

**Ineffective Styles**

1. **Compromiser**: This style considers both the task (TO) and the people (RO) extremely important in a situation that requires emphasis only on one or neither. The leader using this style is a poor decision maker and is easily influenced by pressure.
2. **Missionary**: In case of this style there is maximum concern for people (RO), but minimum concern for the task (TO), when the situation is such that neither of these behaviour is appropriate. Such a leader who uses this style is always in a mood to make a compromise so that harmony is maintained in the organization.

3. **Autocrat**: This means maximum concern for the task (TO) and minimum concern for people (RO) when the situation is such that neither of these behaviours is appropriate. Such a leader has no confidence in others. He is interested only in getting the job completed and does not care for the people.

4. **Deserter**: This means minimum concern for the task (TO) as well as for the people (RO) in a situation in which these behaviours are not appropriate. Such leaders are, generally, indifferent to and alienated from the organization and work.

### 11.3.8 Hersey’s and Blanchard’s Situational Theory

A Situational theory or contingency theory both mean the same thing. Hersey-Blanchard theory is similar to Reddin’s 3-D theory. Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard of Ohio University also said that a variety of style may be effective and ineffective depending upon the situation. When the style is appropriate to a given situation it is termed as **effective**. When it is inappropriate it is termed as **ineffective**. A style ineffective in one situation may be effective in another situation. According to these authors, therefore it is not the style in itself that is effective or ineffective. Rather, it is the situation that makes it effective or ineffective. In this way, these authors also brought into picture a third dimension, the work environment or the situation.

This theory is also known as “Life Cycle Theory of Leadership” It relies on some of the major components contained in Reddin’s 3-D theory. Hersey-Blanchard theory says that the level of maturity of the group members is a critical factor in the situation that determines the effectiveness of a leadership style. Situational maturity of the group is seen in terms of a specific task to be performed. The point for consideration in this regard is to assess whether the group is mature to do what is required to be done. Maturity, according to these authors, is composed of two inter-related factors:

1. The skill and willingness to set high but realistic goals.
2. The skill and willingness to take responsibility for the achievement of their goals.

**Dimensions of leadership effectiveness**

1. Task Orientation (TO)
2. Relationship Orientation (RO)
3. Maturity of the group.

The theory asserts that (i) the maturity level of the group can be increased over time, and (ii) that as the maturity level increases the effective leadership style will be characterized by a reduction in TO behaviour and by an increase in RO behaviour.

**Situational Leadership Theory in Educational Setting**

Hersey and Blanchard have discussed in detail citing evidence from research how situational leadership theory can be gainfully used in teaching-learning. In one experiment cited by the authors it was demonstrated that the teacher’s style starting at S1 (high task-low relationship), then moving to S2 (high task-high relationship) then to S3 (high relationship-low task) and finally to S4 (low task-low relationship), made experimental classes show not only higher performance on content examinations but also to have a higher level of enthusiasm, morale and motivation as well as less tardiness and absenteeism. Moving from one style to another student maturity level was increased and the students are in a position to give structure to the task of learning by themselves.

Hersey and Blanchard further remarked that for the intellectually and emotionally mature students with clear goals and objectives, particularly when the students are in a position to Initiate structure
Notes

for themselves, low task-low relationship style is more effective. For the immature students who lack motivation and ability to direct their own work schedule low task-low relationship style (S4) may be detrimental. In their case, high task-low relationship style (S1) is recommended.

In case of administrator-faculty relationship where faculty members are experienced and responsible low relationship-low task (S4) style is said to be more appropriate. In this case, decentralized organization structure and delegation of authority may be desirable. But during the early stages, with inexperienced faculty or immature faculty high task-low relationship style (S1) may be more useful.

11.3.9 Path-Goal Theory of Leadership

This theory is just emerging. According to this theory, leaders are effective because of their impact on subordinates’ motivation, ability to perform effectively and satisfactions. The theory is called Path-Goal-Theory because its major concern is to explain how the leader influences the subordinates’ perceptions of their work-goals, personal goals and paths to goal attainment. The theory suggests that a leader’s behaviour is motivating or satisfying for the subordinates to the extent it increases the probability of their goal-attainment and clarifies the paths to these goals.

Historical Foundations

The theory has its roots in a more general motivational theory, called expectancy of theory motivation. The expectancy theory of motivation holds that an individual’s attitudes of satisfaction with the supervisor or job or leader behaviour can be predicted from (i) the degree to which the supervisor or job or leader behaviour is seen as leading to various outcomes called expectancies, and (ii) the way these expectancies are evaluated (i.e., valences) by them. Why the leaders behave the way they do can, thus, be explained on the basis of these expectancies and valences. The theory can also help in understanding how leader behaviour influences subordinates’ motivation. The theory suggests that the subordinates are motivated by the leader to the extent that his behaviour influences their expectancies (goals) and valences (evaluation of goals) and paths to these goals.

General Propositions

There are two propositions underlying this theory. The first one is that leader-behaviour is acceptable and satisfying to subordinates to the extent they see such behaviour as either an immediate source of satisfaction or as instrumental to future satisfaction. The second proposition of the theory is that the leader’s behaviour will be motivational to the extent that (i) it makes satisfaction of subordinate’s needs contingent on effective performance and (ii) that it complements the environment of subordinates by providing the coaching guidance, support and rewards necessary for effective performance. These prepositions suggest that the leader’s strategic functions are to enhance subordinates’ motivation to perform, satisfaction with the job and acceptance of the leader.

Contingency Factors

The relationship between leader behaviour and subordinates’ satisfaction and motivation to work is not a straight one. There are (i) personal characteristics of the subordinates such as their perception of leader’s behaviour and also their perception of their own ability to do the assigned task. Thus, the acceptability of the leader’s behaviour is determined in part, by the characteristics of the subordinates; (ii) second is the environment of the subordinates which consists of factors that are important to their need satisfaction and ability to perform effectively. These environmental factors are (a) the subordinates’ tasks, (b) the formal authority system of the organization, (c) the primary work group. Assessment of these environmental factors makes it possible to predict the kind and amount of influence that specific leader behaviours will have on the motivation of subordinates. Each of these environmental factors can be both rewarding as well as demotivating.

Leadership Styles

The theory identified the following four leadership styles and suggested the kinds of situations in which these will be effective or ineffective:
1. **Directive**: The theory said that leader directiveness has a positive correlation with satisfaction and expectancies of subordinates who are engaged in ambiguous tasks and a negative correlation with satisfaction and expectancies of subordinates engaged in clear tasks.

2. **Supportive**: The theory hypothesizes that supportive leadership will have its most positive effect on subordinates satisfaction in case of those subordinates who work on stressful, frustrating or dissatisfying tasks.

3. **Achievement Oriented**: The theory hypothesizes that achievement-oriented leadership will cause subordinates to strive for higher standards of performance and to have more confidence in the ability to meet challenging goals.

4. **Participative**: The theory also hypothesizes that participative leader style is more satisfying and instrumental in effective performance.

These styles are only hypotheses which need to be empirically tested. They have been derived on the basis of path-goal theorizing. The rationale underlying them is that both task characteristics and characteristics of subordinates interact with each other to determine the effect of a specific kind of leader behaviour on the satisfaction, expectancies and performance of the subordinates.

This theory, however, is considered more a tool of research and stimulating insight than a proved guide for managerial action. This theory is still in the form of hypothesis. Its assertions have, yet, to be tested and verified.

### 11.4 Measurement of Educational Leadership

All the theories of leadership behaviour have significant implications for training people in leadership or managerial skills. Training programmes have been developed by Fiedler, Vroom and Yetton, Reddin, Hersey and Blanchard. They all believe that the effective leader must possess rather a broad repertoire of behaviours and styles that may enable him to be effective in a variety of situations. Through systematic training, as they believe, it is possible.

But, one important aspect of leadership training is measurement or evaluation of leadership. Without this, one can never known what quality of leadership one had prior to training and whether after training there was any improvement in his leadership quality.

A number of tools have been developed in the past which can be used for measuring leader behaviour. These have been described as follows:

1. **The Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ)**: This tool was designed by the Personal Research Foundation at Ohio State University. It was constructed by Hemphill and was later on adapted by Halpin and Winer. The tool yields two scores on two dimensions of leadership behaviour-the 'initiating structure' and "consideration". These dimensions have already been explained and described. A combination of these two dimensions indicates the leadership behaviour pattern. The tool facilitates to define leadership behaviour dimensions operationally. The tool reveals to what extent the manager or any educational administrator such as a Principal or a Vice-Chancellor is structure-oriented and to what extent he is consideration-oriented.

   Each dimension of the tools consists of 15 items. All the 30 items of the tool are scored on a 5-pt scale ranging over "always", "often", "occasionally", "seldom", and "never". Hence, theoretical range of scores on each dimension varies from 0 to 60. The tool identifies four managerial styles: (i) high initiating structure high consideration (HS, HC), (ii) low initiating structure, high consideration (LS, HC), (iii) low structure, low consideration (LS, LC), (iv) high initiating structure, low consideration (HS, LC).

   The LBDQ was based on the perception of observed leader behaviour by the other staff members. But, the Ohio State leadership studies staff also developed another form known as Leader Opinion
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Questionnaire (LOQ) to gather data about the self-perceptions that leaders would have about their own leadership style.

2. The Leader Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ) : This tool measures leader’s orientation around two major factors-Structure and Consideration. This is a 40-items questionnaire divided into the foregoing two factors. The items are presented with a fivepoint continuum with scoring weights of lower case zero to four depending on items orientation to total dimension. It had been published in 1960 by Science Research Associates Inc. Chicago, Illinois. The scale is sold as Leadership Opinion-Questionnaire by Edwin A Fleishman. It was first presented in Ralph M. Stogdill and Alvin E. Coons, eds, Leader Behaviours; Its Description and Measurement, columbus, Ohio State University, Bureau of Business Research, 1957.

3. Supervisory Behaviour Description (SBD) : This measures perceptions of subordinates of the leadership behaviour demonstrated by their immediate superior. It yields scores on two factors-structure and consideration. All questions are worded in terms of “What does your own supervisor actually do?” This is a 48-item questionnaire divided into two independent areas of leadership called “initiating structure” and “consideration”. The first area includes 20 items and the second is made up of 28 items. The items are responded in terms of a five-point continuum having scores from 0 to 4. Highest possible score on consideration comes to be 112 and on “initiation”, it comes to be 80. It is published by E.A. Fleishman under the title. “A Leader Behaviour Description for Industry” in Stogdill (Ed) Leader Behaviour : Its Description and Management.

4. Leader Effectiveness And Adaptability Description (LEAD) : This tool was developed by Hersey and Blanchard. It was designed to measure three aspects of leader behaviour : (i) style of leadership, (ii) range of leadership style, and (iii) style adaptability. Formerly known as the Leader Adaptability and Style Inventory (LASI) the tools is based on situational leadership theory. It has two forms : LEAD (self) and LEAD (others). LEAD (self) is administered to the managers to assess their own styles of management as perceived by themselves. LEAD (others) is administered to subordinates to know how the leader-styles are perceived by the subordinates. Items are the same in both forms of the tool. Only the instructions for administrating the tool differ. The LEAD (self) and LEAD (others) can be ordered from the center for leadership, studies, Ohio University, Athens (Ohio) 45701.

The tool consists of 12 items or situations. For each situation four alternative response, i.e., style of management are also given out of which one has to be ticked by the manager. Having responded to all the items, they are scored as directed in the manual. This determines the styles of the manager, Style range and style adaptability are also found out.

Self Assessment

1. Fill in the blanks :
   (i) The concept of _____ is a social nation.
   (ii) The Philosophical approach was developed by _____.
   (iii) _____ developed a theory of leadership in which neither situational characteristics nor leader characteristics alone accounted for _____.
   (iv) The Fiedler’s Contingency theory of leadership emphasizes that the suitability of leadership style depends upon the _____.

What is LOQ
(v) ______ and Phillip Yetton’s contingency theory can be described as a ______

(vi) Hassely’s and Blanchord’s situational theory is also known as ______ of leadership.

11.5 Summary

• Management of any organization, education or otherwise, may be defined as working with the
  through individuals and groups of individuals to accomplish its goals.

• Leadership in education; and leadership in education, in turn, implies efficient and effective
  ways of achieving the institutional goals. Effective leader-managers are the basic and scarcest
  resources of any enterprise.

• The concept of leadership is a social notion. It was formally developed during the 1960s to
  emphasize the ability of the leader to influence the people in his organization in order to achieve
  the organization’s goals.

• Theories of Leadership

  • Philosophical Approach
    • The kind of philosophy about other people that a leader has determines his leadership
      behaviour. This was the approach developed by Douglas McGregor. According to him the
      leadership style is determined by the way a leader perceives his subordinates by the
      assumptions that he makes about the human nature and human motivation.

  • The Trait Theory of Leadership
    • 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.

    • 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.

  • Behaviour Theories of Leadership
    • These approaches focused 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.

    • Research based on behaviour approach to leadership was initiated in 1945 by the Bureau of
      Business Research at Ohio in the U.S.A. These studies attempted to identify those behaviours of
      leaders which contributed to their success and effectiveness.

    • Andrew Halpin used these dimensions for describing the leader behaviour of school
      superintendents. He defined them as follows:
      (i) Initiating Structure: This means making efforts to establish well-defined patterns of
          organization, channels of communication, methods and procedures of work, and to specify
          the relationship between himself and the members of his group.
      (ii) Consideration: This refers to behaviours indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect
          and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of his staff.

  • Systems-Oriented Behaviour Dimension: It consists of the following six types of behaviours:
    (i) Production emphasis
    (ii) Initiating structure
Notes

(iii) Representation
(iv) Role Assumption
(v) Persuasiveness
(vi) Superior-Orientation:

• Person-Oriented Behaviour Dimension: This also consists of the following six subsets of behaviours:
  (i) Tolerance of Uncertainty
  (ii) Consideration
  (iii) Tolerance of Freedom
  (iv) Demand Reconciliation
  (v) Integration
  (vi) Predictive Accuracy

• Contingency Theories of Leadership

• The behavioural theory of leadership had assumed that there are certain types of behaviour that make for the success of the leaders, if they have them in the repertory of their behaviours.

• Fiedler’s Contingency Theory of Leadership

• Fred Fiedler (1967) developed this theory and said that neither situational characteristics nor leader characteristics alone accounted for group productivity. To him it was a combination of both that mattered. Leadership effectiveness, according to him, as measured by group performance is an outcome of the dynamic interplay between leader and situation both.

• The leadership depends on the favourableness of the situation in terms of three characteristics:
  (i) Relationship between the leader and the followers
  (ii) The degree to which the task is well-structured
  (iii) Power of the leader’s position.

• 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.

  (i) Maximizing Group Performance: The focus of the theory is to analyze and identify the style of leadership which may maximize the performance of the group so that organizational goals may be achieved.

  (ii) Group-Task Situation: The theory emphasizes that the suitability of 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.

• Vroom’s and Yetton’s Normative Contingency Theory

• Victor Vroom’s and Philip Yetton’s contingency theory specifies how leaders ought to behave in order to be effective in view of specific situational contingencies. This is just opposite to Blake’s and Mouton’s prescriptive formula that team leadership of participative leadership is most effective.

• Autocratic Process

Coming under this type there are two leadership styles as follows:

A-I Leader or Manager makes the decision using whatever information is available.

A-II Leader secures necessary information from members of the group and, then, makes the decision.
• Consultative Process

In this category also there are two leadership styles as follows:

C-I This style refers to the leader who shares the decision making process with relevant members on a one-to-one basis getting their ideas and suggestions individually without bringing them together as a group.

C-II This style refers to the leader who shares the problem with members as a group at a meeting and takes the decision in consultation with them in the meeting itself.

• Group Processes

This is the group of styles in which the leader makes decisions as follows. This is the style known as G—II.

• William J-Reddin’s 3-D theory is seen as an extension of earlier two dimensional (task-oriented and relationship-oriented) theories.

• Task Orientation (TO) : This means that extent to which a manager is able to direct his own and his subordinate’s efforts toward goal attainment.

• Relationship Orientation (RO) : This means the extent to which a leader or a manager is likely to have personal job relationships characterized by mutual trust, respect for subordinate’s ideas and consideration of their feelings.

• Effectiveness : This means the extent to which the leader achieves the goal for which his or her position is responsible.

Leadership Style : This theory identifies basic four styles of leadership :

A. Low task-low relationship style
B. Low task-high relationship style
C. High task-low relationship style
D. High task-high relationship style

• Effective Styles

(i) Executive Styles : This means a great deal of concern for both the task (TO) and people (RO). A manager using this style is a good motivator of workers.

(ii) Developer : This refers to the style in which there is maximum concern for the people (RO) and minimum concern for the task (TO).

(iii) Benevolent Autocrat : This style gives maximum concern to task (TO) and minimum concern to people (RO).

(iv) Bureaucrat : This style gives minimum concern to both the task (TO) and the people (RO).

• Ineffective Styles

(i) Compromiser : This style considers both the task (TO) and the people (RO) extremely important in a situation that requires emphasis only on one or neither.

(ii) Missionary : In case of this style there is maximum concern for people (RO), but minimum concern for the task (TO), when the situation is such that neither of these behaviours is appropriate.

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• Hersey’s and Blanchard’s Situational Theory

• A Situational theory or contingency theory both mean the same thing. Hersey-Blanchard theory is similar to Reddin’s 3-D theory.
A style ineffective in one situation may be effective in another situation.

This theory is also known as “Life Cycle Theory of Leadership.” It relies on some of the major components contained in Reddin’s 3-D theory. Hersey-Blanchard theory says that the level of maturity of the group members is a critical factor in the situation that determines the effectiveness of a leadership style. Situational maturity of the group is seen in terms of a specific task to be performed.

Dimensions of Leadership Effectiveness

(i) Task Orientation (TO)
(ii) Relationship Orientation (RO)
(iii) Maturity of the group.

Hersey and Blanchard have discussed in detail citing evidence from research how situational leadership theory can be gainfully used in teaching-learning.

Path-Goal Theory of Leadership

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Historical Foundations

The theory has its roots in a more general motivational theory, called expectancy of theory motivation. The expectancy theory of motivation holds that an individual’s attitudes of satisfaction with the supervisor or job or leader behaviour can be predicted from (i) the degree to which the supervisor or job or leader behaviour is seen as leading to various outcomes called expectancies, and (ii) the way these expectancies are evaluated (i.e., valences) by them.

Measurement of Educational Leadership

All the theories of leadership behaviour have significant implications for training people in leadership or managerial skills. Training programmes have been developed by Fiedler, Vroom and Yetton, Reddin, Hersey and Blanchard.

A number of tools have been developed in the past which can be used for measuring leader behaviour. These have been described as follows:

(i) The Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ): This tool was designed by the Personal Research Foundation at Ohio State University. It was constructed by Hemphill and was later on adapted by Halpin and Winer. The tool yields two scores on two dimensions of leadership behaviour—the ‘initiating structure’ and “consideration”.

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11.6 Keywords

- **Leadership**: The state or position of being a leader.
- **Follower**: A person who supports and admires a particular person.
- **Paternalism**: The system in which a government protects the people who are governed by providing them with what they need.

11.7 Review Questions

1. What do you understand by Educational Leadership?
2. Explain the importance of Educational Leadership.
3. Describe Vroom Contingency theory.
4. Explain important tools of measurement of Educational Leadership.
5. What are leadership styles under path goal theory of leadership.
6. Explain the Supervisory behaviour Description.

**Answers : Self Assessment**

1. (i) Leadership (ii) Douglas Mc.Gregor
   (iii) Fred Fiedler, group activity (iv) Group task situation
   (v) Victor Vroom’s Nominative theory (vi) Life cycle theory

11.8 Further Readings

- The Principles and Practice of Educational Management: *Tony Bush, Les Bell, SAGE Publisher, 2002.*
- Educational Management: *Strategy, Quality, and Resources, Margaret Preedy, Ron Glatter, Publisher Open University Press, 1997.*
Unit 12: Job Accountability, Management Training: Needs and Means

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12.1 Meaning of Job Accountability
12.2 Need of Accountability
12.3 Forms of Accountability
12.4 Meaning of Management Training
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Objectives
The objectives of this unit can be summarised as below:
• To explain about the Meaning of Job Accountability
• To discuss about the Need of Accountability
• To describe about Forms of Accountability
• To explain about the Meaning of Management Training
• To discuss about the Need of Management Training
• To describe about the Importance of Management Training

Introduction
In recent years there have been fundamental changes to and renewal of the education system. The changes have culminated in reform legislation and policy initiatives. In the context of the India education system, the object of the reform has fundamentally been the redress of imbalances created in the previous dispensation and the re-storation of the culture of teaching and learning — thereby improving standards. In the process of change, traditional practices are replaced by unfamiliar yet critical and essential elements necessary for proper management of institutions. The new path set on course by reform legislation and policy ushered in a new era in the management of schools whereby conventional notions of school management are, transcended. Consequently, the levers of power at school level are affected significantly. There is a shift from emphasis on management to governance. A new framework of governance is built on accountability. It means that school managers must reposition themselves in such a way that they overcome
• rule driven bureaucracy;
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• focusing too much on administration and too little on management;
• sideling the education clients in the activities of the school;
• bureaucratic accountability; and
• denying others access to information.
Therefore, accountability should be regarded as one of the essential elements of school governance to help strengthen the position of school managers, and share the much-contested power without losing it.

12.1 Meaning of Job Accountability
In school education teachers and principal have to play some roles and have several responsibilities. It is the accountability and commitment of a principal to accomplish the roles and responsibility in school education. The review and observe that the fulfillment of responsibilities of teacher and principal is called the accountability and commitment.

According to I. K. Davies, accountability and commitment is the quality of work or performance assigned of a task by an authority. It the person works according to direction or instruction and bound to perform the task.

“Accountability is an obligation and responsibility of an individual to perform assigned duties to best of his ability, capacity and efforts according the direction of his executive.”

“Accountability is reviewed of his subordinate or assistant to perform the his duty as assigned and required by his boss or superior.

12.2 Need of Accountability
Accountability is an essential element of school governance. It is an obligation of the school to report to its community about the quality of the services it offers. Accountability provides the school with an opportunity to collect information about its performance and enter into a debate with its community about the results of its exercise. The information from accountability can be used for school development. Therefore, there must be a balance of powers of the school governing body and the principal to accomplish quality education service delivery. It is not enough to simply state that parents are responsible for school governance and principals deal with professional management without clearly demarcating roles and indicating their meeting point. Every stakeholder or member of the SGB must be prepared to play his/her part activity, and there must be openness to frankly acknowledge the experience, knowledge and skills of each member. Each member has a valuable expertise to offer for the betterment of the school. Schools must use the knowledge, skills and experience of parents to improve or maintain standards. The standards of quality will be determined by the quality of the accountability system.

12.3 Forms of Accountability
Generally we talk or discuss about the lack in our society. Now a days we are observing in every profession even in teaching that we are lacking in professional commitment. Seminars and conferences are being organized on value education because we are lacking organized on value education because
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we are being in cultural and moral values. Similarly we are teaching in our professional commitment and accountability.

The various definitions of accountability indicate the following main characteristics.

1. Performing and completing the responsibilities by the teachers and principal is called accountability and commitment.

2. Involvement of teachers and principal in their duties are reviewed is termed accountability.

3. The review of an executive or superior of his subordinates is the accountability.

4. A principal has assigned some responsibilities to his teacher, if he performs with commitment and devotion in an excellent way is called accountability.

5. A principal delegates the authorities to his senior teachers to exercise in school programmes. If the teacher exercises the authority delegated by the principal properly as reviewed by him is known as his commitment and accountability.

6. If an individual carries out the policies and direction or instruction according to his boss or superior is called his accountability and commitment.

7. If a teacher or principal performance his responsibilities and duties with commitment and devotion effectively is also known as accountability or job commitment.

Components of Accountability

The above characteristics employ some components to indicate the nature of accountability. The following are the main components of accountability.

(1) Commitment to his profession or his job.

(2) Performing his duties sincerely and honesty.

(3) Completing his responsibilities with devotion.

(4) Review the performance of teachers or principal.

(5) Quality of work or quality of his profession.

(6) Involvement in his work or duties.

(7) Positive attitude towards his profession.

Self Assessment

1. Fill in the blanks:

   (i) __________ is an essential element of school governance.

   (ii) Involvement of teachers and principal in their __________ are reviewed, is termed accountability.

   (iii) __________ are professionally accountable for the education of the children.

   (iv) At district level school accountability is evaluated and assessed on the basis of _____ , administrations and commitment of school teachers.

12.4 Meaning of Management Training

Courses teaching management methods planned activities for developing management skills. Management training methods include public or in-company training courses and on-the-job training designed to improve managerial competences. Management training tends to be practical and to focus on specific management techniques. It does not result in a formal degree.
12.5 Need of Management Training

Before we say that technology is responsible for increased need of training inputs to employees, it is important to understand that there are other factors too that contribute to the latter. Training is also necessary for the individual development and progress of the employee, which motivates him to work for a certain organisation apart from just money. We also require training update employees of the market trends, the change in the employment policies and other things.

The following are the two biggest factors that contribute to the increased need to training and development in organisations:

1. **Change**: The word change encapsulates almost everything. It is one of the biggest factors that contribute to the need of training and development. There is in fact a direct relationship between the two. Change leads to the need for training and development and training and development leads to individual and organisational change, and the cycle goes on and on. More specifically it is the technology that is driving the need; changing the way how businesses function, compete and deliver.

2. **Development**: It is again one the strong reasons for training management becoming all the more important. Money is not the sole motivator at work and this is especially very true for the 21st century. People who work with organisations seek more than just employment out of their work; they look at holistic development of self. Spirituality and self awareness for example are gaining momentum world over. People seek happiness at jobs which may not be possible unless an individual is aware of the self. At ford, for example, an individual can enrol himself/herself in a course on ‘self awareness’, which apparently seems inconsequential to ones performance at work but contributes to the spiritual well being of an individual which is all the more important.

The way Managers work together and exchange expertise is critical to their personal success as well as the success of their projects and their organization. Many of the management skills that are needed also are consistent with successful project implementation, for example.

Managers of the future will no longer be able to rely solely on their technical expertise to show their value. They must be able to provide more than knowledge: they must be both willing and able to play a variety of roles within an organization, regularly and effectively.

This is also true of the relationships that school managers, consultants and others Government Departments, and others where that they can only influence, not control. These management/leadership skills need to be reinforced from time to time. It is an investment in personal development that provides both immediate and long-term benefits for the consultant and the business.

These, then, are the critical management roles needed for the effective Consultant, Manager, and Leader:

1. **Specialised Professional**: Relates technical or complex information to the job, but within the strategic scope of the project.

2. **Facilitator**: School Manages discussions effectively; ensures that all parties are in agreement and have a clear understanding of the agreed-upon next steps before going on; keeps the focus on moving the work/project forward.

3. **Problem Solver**: Effectively analyzes the overall situation/project; proactively identifies problems and proposes solutions.

4. **Coach**: Motivates and works effectively with others while helping them develop skills and knowledge; creates an environment where coaching & feedback is important.

5. **Administrator**: Manages time, deadlines, and budgets simultaneously; provides, a variety of written summaries for projects; has a clear understanding of the policies and procedures involved in utilizing resources.
Notes


7. Strategist: Gets the “big picture”; has a clear understanding of business strategies and needs as well as objectives and concerns.

8. Partner: Brings a high level of trust and commitment to working relationships; has a keen, objective sense of whether expectations are being met; values open communication as a fundamental building block for all constituent relationships.

Resources

Today, one of the best resources for information is the Internet. Review sites that offer tools, articles and insights into effective management. Many business magazines and newspapers now provide extensive, researchable (a great Manager/Leader skill!) databases. Also, visit the Info Works site www.infoworks.com for some free online tools to manage more effectively and improve productivity.

12.6 Importance of Management Training

Given the globalization of the Indian workforce, organizations are constantly facing new competitive challenges. School Managers are hard-pressed to learn the skills necessary to navigate their business teams around this changing landscape. Training managers on topics such as leadership, communication and morale-boosting skills is paramount to a company’s financial success.

Leadership

Educational Managers are expected to set the example for their workers by way of their leadership skills. Training on topics like problem solving, decision making and understanding group needs, can help achieve this goal.

Communication

• The diversity of today’s workforce makes communication skills training even more important for managers. Learning how to adapt to the different communication styles of colleagues, underlings and clients allows managers to effectively provide one-on-one feedback and deliver public presentations.

Morale

• Delivering time-management training to managers often leads to increased employee morale because it helps define organizational goals and spotlights individual contributions.

Task

What is the work of manager as a facilitator?

Self Assessment

2. State whether the following statements are ‘true’ or ‘false’.
   (i) Management training designed to improve managerial competence.
   (ii) Change leads to the need for training and develop.
   (iii) Technology is not responsible for increased need of training inputs of employees.
12.7 Summary

- In school education, teachers and principal have to play some roles and have several responsibilities. It is the accountability and commitment of a principal to accomplish the roles and responsibility in school education.

- According to I. K. Davies, accountability and commitment is the quality of work or performance assigned to a task by an authority. It is the person working according to direction or instruction and bound to perform the task.

- Accountability is an essential element of school governance. It is an obligation of the school to report to its community about the quality of the services it offers. Accountability provides the school with an opportunity to collect information about its performance and enter into a debate with its community about the results of its exercise. The information from accountability can be used for school development. Therefore, there must be a balance of powers of the school governing body and the principal to accomplish quality education service delivery.

- Generally, we talk or discuss about the lack in our society. Nowadays, we are observing in every profession, even in teaching, that we are lacking in professional commitment.

- The various definitions of accountability indicate the following main characteristics.
  
  (i) Performing and completing the responsibilities by the teachers and principal is called accountability and commitment.
  
  (ii) Involvement of teachers and principal in their duties are reviewed is termed accountability.
  
  (iii) The review of an executive or superior of his subordinates is the accountability.
  
  (iv) A principal has assigned some responsibilities to his teacher, if he performs with commitment and devotion in an excellent way is called accountability.
  
  (v) If an individual carries out the policies and direction or instruction according to his boss or superior is called his accountability and commitment.

- The following are the main components of accountability.
  
  (i) Commitment to his profession or his job.
  
  (ii) Performing his duties sincerely and honestly.
  
  (iii) Completing his responsibilities with devotion.
  
  (iv) Review the performance of teachers or principal.
  
  (v) Quality of work or quality of his profession.
  
  (vi) Involvement in his work or duties.
  
  (vii) Positive attitude towards his profession.

- Management training methods include public or in-company training courses and on-the-job training designed to improve managerial competences. Management training tends to be practical and to focus on specific management techniques. It does not result in a formal degree.

- The following are the two biggest factors that contribute to the increased need to training and development in organisations:
  
  (i) Change: The word change encapsulates almost everything. It is one of the biggest factors that contribute to the need of training and development. There is in fact a direct relationship between the two. Change leads to the need for training and development and training and development leads to individual and organisational change, and the cycle goes on and on.
  
  (ii) Development: People who work with organisations seek more than just employment out of their work; they look at holistic development of self. Spirituality and self-awareness for example are gaining momentum world over. People seek happiness at jobs which may not be possible unless an individual is aware of the self.
The way Managers work together and exchange expertise is critical to their personal success as well as the success of their projects and their organization. Many of the management skills that are needed also are consistent with successful project implementation, for example.

Managers of the future will no longer be able to rely solely on their technical expertise to show their value. They must be able to provide more than knowledge; they must be both willing and able to play a variety of roles within an organization, regularly and effectively.

These, then, are the critical management roles needed for the effective Consultant, Manager, and Leader:

(i) Specialised Professional: Relates technical or complex information to the job, but within the strategic scope of the project.

(ii) Facilitator: School Manages discussions effectively; ensures that all parties are in agreement and have a clear understanding of the agreed-upon next steps before going on; keeps the focus on moving the work/project forward.

(iii) Problem Solver

(iv) Coach

(v) Administrator: Manages time, deadlines, and budgets simultaneously; provides, a variety of written summaries for projects; has a clear understanding of the policies and procedures involved in utilizing resources.

(vi) Influencer: Receives recommendations favorably.

(vii) Strategist: Gets the “big picture”; has a clear understanding of business strategies and needs as well as objectives and concerns.

(viii) Partner: Brings a high level of trust and commitment to working relationships; has a keen, objective sense of whether expectations are being met; values open communication as a fundamental building block for all constituent relationships.

Educational Managers are expected to set the example for their workers by way of their leadership skills. Training on topics like problem solving, decision making and understanding group needs, can help achieve this goal.

The diversity of today’s workforce makes communication skills training even more important for managers. Learning how to adapt to the different communication styles of colleagues, underlings and clients allows managers to effectively provide one-on-one feedback and deliver public presentations.

Delivering time-management training to managers often leads to increased employee morale because it helps define organizational goals and spotlights individual contributions.

12.8 Keywords

- Accountability: responsibility for your decisions or action and expected to explain them when you are asked.
- Ensure: to make sure that something happens.
- Goal: something that you hope to achieve.

12.9 Review Questions

1. What do you understand by Job Accountability?
2. Why is the need for accountability.
3. Give the characteristics of accountability.
4. What is the meaning of management training?

5. Explain the need for management training.

Answers: Self Assessment

1. (i) Accountability (ii) duties (iii) Teachers (iv) final results
2. (i) T (ii) T (iii) F

12.10 Further Readings


Unit 13: Concept of PERT and CPM

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Objectives
The objectives of this unit can be summarised as below :
• To explain about the Concept of PERT
• To discuss about historical background of PERT
• To describe the features of PERT
• To discuss about the advantages and disadvantages of PERT
• To explain about the Concept of critical path method (CPM)
• To discuss about the history of critical path method (CPM)
• To describe about the features of CPM
• To discuss about the steps in CPM project planning
• To describe advantages and disadvantages of CPM

Introduction
Basically, CPM (Critical Path Method) and PERT (Programme Evaluation Review Technique) are project management techniques, which have been created out of the need of Western industrial and military establishments to plan, schedule and control complex projects.
13.1 Concept of PERT

Program Evaluation and Review Technique (PERT) is a scheduling method originally designed to plan a manufacturing project by employing a network of interrelated activities, coordinating optimum cost and time criteria. PERT emphasizes the relationship between the time each activity takes, the costs associated with each phase, and the resulting time and cost for the anticipated completion of the entire project.

PERT is an integrated project management system. These systems were designed to manage the complexities of major manufacturing projects, the extensive data necessary for such industrial efforts, and the time deadlines created by defense industry projects. Most of these management systems developed following World War II, and each has its advantages.

13.2 Historical Background of PERT

PERT was first developed in 1958 by the U.S. Navy Special Projects Office on the Polaris missile system. Existing integrated planning on such a large scale was deemed inadequate, so the Navy pulled in the Lockheed Aircraft Corporation and the management consulting firm of Booz, Allen, and Hamilton. Traditional techniques such as line of balance, Gantt charts, and other systems were eliminated, and PERT evolved as a means to deal with the varied time periods it takes to finish the critical activities of an overall project.

The critical path method (CPM) evolved parallel to PERT.

13.3 Features of PERT

PERT centers on the concept of time and allows flexible scheduling due to variations in the amount of time it takes to complete one specific part of the project. A typical PERT network consists of activities and events. An event is the completion of one program component at a particular time. An activity is defined as the time and resources required to move from one event to another. Therefore, when events and activities are clearly defined, progress of a program is easily monitored, and the path of the project proceeds toward termination. PERT mandates that each preceding event be completed before succeeding events, and thus the final project, can be considered complete.

One key element to PERT’s application is that three estimates are required because of the element of uncertainty and to provide time frames for the PERT network. These three estimates are classed as optimistic, most likely, and pessimistic, and are made for each activity of the overall project. Generally, the optimistic time estimate is the minimum time the activity will take—considering that all goes right the first time and luck holds for the project. The reverse is the pessimistic estimate, or maximum time estimate for completing the activity. This estimate takes into account Murphy’s law—whatever can go wrong will—and all possible negative factors are considered when computing the estimate. The third is the most likely estimate, or the normal or realistic time an activity requires. Two other elements comprise the PERT network: the path, or critical path, and slack time. The critical path is a combination of events and activities that will necessitate the greatest expected completion time. Slack time is defined as the difference between the total expected activity time for the project and the actual time for the entire project. Slack time is the spare time experienced in the PERT network.

A vital aspect of PERT is the formula used for the calculation of expected project time. The project reads:

\[
T = \frac{A + 4M + B}{6}
\]

where \(T\) = expected completion time,
\(A\) = optimistic estimate,
\(M\) = most likely estimate,
\(B\) = pessimistic estimate.
Applying real numbers to the PERT formula, the result is as follows, where A (optimistic time) = 7 weeks; M (most likely time) = 11 weeks; B (pessimistic time) = 15 weeks:

(or T, expected completion time)

Once the expected time is computed, the critical path is established. The PERT network considers all potential variables, thus quantifying the scheduling and planning of the project. In a comprehensive view of PERT, it becomes clear that despite the fact that some steps of the process are independent, the next step will depend on the successful completion of prior steps.

Another key to PERT is to analyze and revise the data owing to a constant state of flux. Factors influencing project management take many forms, including personnel, materials, equipment and facilities, utilities, and environmental conditions. For example, absenteeism, sickness, vacations, and even strikes can affect personnel supply, or sudden changes in climatic conditions (snow, flooding from rains, etc.) may have an environmental impact. Various methods have been established to adjust the PERT network in order to allow for unpredictable situations. In recent years, computers have provided one major means of network analysis and revision, especially on larger projects. Computers are significantly useful for computations of the critical path and slack time. Smaller networks can generally be managed with manual computations and are usually developed, evaluated, and revised without great difficulty.

The circles are then connected with lines to indicate the relationship between the tasks. CPM use has become more widespread than the use of PERT applications.

13.4 Advantages of PERT

PERT has advantages as well as disadvantages, but time has seemingly not diminished its applicability. Planning a major network reveals potential problem areas and interdependent events that are not so obvious in conventional project development methods. One advantage is the three time estimate process, again useful in identifying difficulties as well as more effective interrelated processes. When utilizing the latest computer applications to PERT networks, managers have additional benefits with which to plan. A final advantage is the use of what is termed the management-by-exception principle, whereby data accumulated and analyzed by various means can be applied to the planning and execution of a major project. When managers have used PERT in integrated project management, experience gained is reapplied to future projects, especially in developing bids for project estimates. When appropriate costing techniques are implemented with PERT networking, the project sponsors realize significant financial benefits.

13.5 Disadvantages of PERT

The PERT/cost system was developed to gain tighter control over actual costs of any project. PERT\cost relates actual costs to project costs. Job cost estimates are established from an activity, or a group of activities on the basis of a time network. Labor and nonlabor estimates are developed for the network targeting the control of time and costs and identifying potential areas where time and cost can be traded off—all aimed at more effective, efficient project management.

As with all aspects of business, the Internet has become a powerful tool with respect to PERT. Managers can now locate PERT applications on the World Wide Web and apply them directly to the appropriate manufacturing project. In most instances, PERT diagrams are available that eliminate the estimating process and make PERT a more useful and convenient tool.

Clearly PERT is a manufacturing-based project planning and scheduling network. In many instances, managers have attempted to apply PERT principles to other types of projects, including hospital planning for such issues as costs and social security, educational planning and development.
13.6 Concept of Critical Path Method (CPM)

CPM is a mathematically ordered network of planning and scheduling project management; it was first used in 1957 by E.I. du Pont de Nemours & Co. PERT borrows some CPM applications. PERT proved to be an ideal technique for one-of-a-kind projects, using a time network analysis to manage personnel, material resources, and financial requirements. The growth of PERT paralleled the rapid expansion in the defense industry and meteoric developments in the space race. After 1960, all defense contractors adopted PERT to manage the massive one-time projects associated with the industry. Smaller businesses, awarded defense related government contracts, found it necessary to use PERT. At the same time, du Pont developed CPM, which was particularly applied in the construction industry. In the last 30 years, PERT has spread, as has CPM, as a major technique of integrated project management.

- Critical path method uses a mathematically-based algorithm in effective project management. The system helps an individual or organization establish a set of activities and find the best schedule to finish each task. The critical path method helps a project manager plan which events need to occur first to complete the whole project when the project has interdependent activities. For example, the construction of a house calls for plumbing and sheet rocking. The installation of the plumbing needs to be completed before the sheet rocking can be done. The algorithm in critical path method helps determine the time it will take to do the plumbing and when to schedule sheet rocking.

In 1957, DuPont developed a project management method designed to address the challenge of shutting down chemical plants for maintenance and then restarting the plants once the maintenance had been completed. Given the complexity of the process, they developed the Critical Path Method (CPM) for managing such projects.

CPM provides the following benefits:

- Provides a graphical view of the project.
- Predicts the time required to complete the project.
- Shows which activities are critical to maintaining the schedule and which are not.

CPM models the activities and events of a project as a network. Activities are depicted as nodes on the network and events that signify the beginning or ending of activities are depicted as arcs or lines between the nodes. The following is an example of a CPM network diagram:

![CPM Diagram](image)

13.7 History

First developed by the U.S. Navy during the 1950s, the critical path method helped project managers build the submarine fleet. It used a series of time lines that allowed for a timely and decisive program. The Navy determined when it wanted the project finished and analyzed each step that would need
to be taken. It then factored in inevitable delays and planned the exact time that each part of the project would need to start. By the time the first wave of the fleet was completed, the system was so well developed that it was adopted by many different business models.

### 13.8 Features of CPM

- In order to achieve the full advantages of the critical path method, a model of the project must be created. First, a list of all activities to be performed must be completed. This is known as the “work breakdown structure.” Every individual activity is identified. The next step is to figure out which steps are interdependent of each other. This will help determine the exact time and date the different parts of the project should be started. The order of the project takes shape and the project managers are able to better monitor the start and completion of the project.

- Critical path method is paramount when attempting to manage the progress of a project. If a portion of the project needs to be shortened, also known as “fast tracking,” the project manager can order more of the activities to take place at the same time. Using the critical path method, a manager can also increase the productivity of an individual activity by “crashing the critical path.” This means that additional resources are added to shorten the duration of the activity. Overall, the best advantage of the critical path method is the ability to speed up or slow down the processes of a project.

**Did you know?** The basic difference in PERT and CPM is in how the diagrams are drawn. In PERT, events are placed in circles (or rectangles) to emphasize a point in time. Tasks are indicated by the lines connecting the network of events.

- When using the critical path method to its full potential, a project manager must also include the actual materials that go into the process. If an individual or organization includes the time that materials will be shipped and received, the critical path method further helps them determine when to start a project, how fast portions need to be completed and when the project should be completed. This prevents what is known as a “resource bottleneck,” in which all the work that can be done is completed and the project is only waiting on materials and resources.

### Self Assessment

1. **Multiple Choice Questions**

   **Choose the Correct Option**:

   (i) PERT was first developed in ______ by the U.S. Navy projects office on polaris missile system.

   (a) 1958  (b) 1959  (c) 1960  (d) 1961

   (ii) PERT is an integrated project ______ system.

   (a) Administration  (b) Management  (c) Evaluation  (d) Measurement

   (iii) ______ are significantly useful for Computations of the critical path and slack time.

   (a) Monitor  (b) Evaluator  (c) Computer  (d) Calculator

   (iv) ______ has become a powerful tool with respect to PERT.

   (a) Intranet  (b) Internet  (c) World wide web  (d) Local network
13.9 Steps in CPM Project Planning

1. Specify the individual activities.
2. Determine the sequence of those activities.
3. Draw a network diagram.
4. Estimate the completion time for each activity.
5. Identify the critical path (longest path through the network).
6. Update the CPM diagram as the project progresses.

1. Specify the Individual Activities
   From the work breakdown structure, a listing can be made of all the activities in the project. This listing can be used as the basis for adding sequence and duration information in later steps.

2. Determine the Sequence of the Activities
   Some activities are dependent on the completion of others. A listing of the immediate predecessors of each activity is useful for constructing the CPM network diagram.

3. Draw the Network Diagram
   Once the activities and their sequencing have been defined, the CPM diagram can be drawn. CPM originally was developed as an activity on node (AON) network, but some project planners prefer to specify the activities on the arcs.

4. Estimate Activity Completion Time
   The time required to complete each activity can be estimated using past experience or the estimates of knowledgeable persons. CPM is a deterministic model that does not take into account variation in the completion time, so only one number is used for an activity’s time estimate.

5. Identify the Critical Path
   The critical path is the longest-duration path through the network. The significance of the critical path is that the activities that lie on it cannot be delayed without delaying the project. Because of its impact on the entire project, critical path analysis is an important aspect of project planning.

   The critical path can be identified by determining the following four parameters for each activity:
   • ES – earliest start time: the earliest time at which the activity can start given that its precedent activities must be completed first.
   • EF – earliest finish time, equal to the earliest start time for the activity plus the time required to complete the activity.
   • LF – latest finish time: the latest time at which the activity can be completed without delaying the project.
   • LS – latest start time, equal to the latest finish time minus the time required to complete the activity.

   The slack time for an activity is the time between its earliest and latest start time, or between its earliest and latest finish time. Slack is the amount of time that an activity can be delayed past its earliest start or earliest finish without delaying the project.

   The critical path is the path through the project network in which none of the activities have slack, that is, the path for which ES = LS and EF = LF for all activities in the path. A delay in the
critical path delays the project. Similarly, to accelerate the project it is necessary to reduce the total time required for the activities in the critical path.

Project progresses, the actual task completion times will be known and the network diagram can be updated to include this information. A new critical path may emerge, and structural changes may be made in the network if project requirements change.

13.10 Advantages of CPM
By Jason Chavis, eHow Contributor

Advantages of the Critical Path Method
There are many advantages to using the critical path method. Over the years, the critical path method has been developed to provide efficiency and effective management procedures. It uses a mathematical process to help determine a time line for a project, what resources will be needed and what order the activities need to occur first. This system has streamlined all aspects of a projects process and how management is undertaken.

13.11 Disadvantages of CPM
CPM was developed for complex but fairly routine projects with minimal uncertainty in the project completion times. For less routine projects there is more uncertainty in the completion times, and this uncertainty limits the usefulness of the deterministic CPM model. An alternative to CPM is the PERT project planning model, which allows a range of durations to be specified for each activity.

Task What is slack time?

Self Assessment
2. Fill in the blanks:
   (i) Critical path method uses a ______ based algorithm in effective project management.
   (ii) CPM was first developed by the U.S. Navy during the ______.
   (iii) A list of all activities to be performed is knows as ______.
   (iv) CPM is a ______ model that does not take into account variation in the Completion time.
13.12 Summary

- Program Evaluation and Review Technique (PERT) is a scheduling method originally designed to plan a manufacturing project by employing a network of interrelated activities, coordinating optimum cost and time criteria.

- PERT is an integrated project management system. These systems were designed to manage the complexities of major manufacturing projects, the extensive data necessary for such industrial efforts, and the time deadlines created by defense industry projects.

- PERT was first developed in 1958 by the U.S. Navy Special Projects Office on the Polaris missile system. Existing integrated planning on such a large scale was deemed inadequate, so the Navy pulled in the Lockheed Aircraft Corporation and the management consulting firm of Booz, Allen, and Hamilton.

- PERT centers on the concept of time and allows flexible scheduling due to variations in the amount of time it takes to complete one specific part of the project. A typical PERT network consists of activities and events. An activity is defined as the time and resources required to move from one event to another.

- One key element to PERT’s application is that three estimates are required because of the element of uncertainty and to provide time frames for the PERT network.

- A vital aspect of PERT is the formula used for the calculation of expected project time. The project reads:

  \[
  T = \frac{A + 4M + B}{6}
  \]

  where

  - \( T \) = expected completion time,
  - \( A \) = optimistic estimate,
  - \( M \) = most likely estimate,
  - \( B \) = pessimistic estimate.

- Once the expected time is computed, the critical path is established. The PERT network considers all potential variables, thus quantifying the scheduling and planning of the project. In a comprehensive view of PERT, it becomes clear that despite the fact that some steps of the process are independent, the next step will depend on the successful completion of prior steps.

- Another key to PERT is to analyze and revise the data owing to a constant state of flux. Factors influencing project management take many forms, including personnel, materials, equipment and facilities, utilities, and environmental conditions.

- PERT has advantages as well as disadvantages, but time has seemingly not diminished its applicability. Planning a major network reveals potential problem areas and interdependent events that are not so obvious in conventional project development methods. One advantage is the three time estimate process, again useful in identifying difficulties as well as more effective interrelated processes.

- The PERT/cost system was developed to gain tighter control over actual costs of any project. PERT/cost relates actual costs to project costs. Job cost estimates are established from an activity, or a group of activities on the basis of a time network.

- Critical path method uses a mathematically-based algorithm in effective project management. The system helps an individual or organization establish a set of activities and find the best schedule to finish each task.

- In 1957, DuPont developed a project management method designed to address the challenge of shutting down chemical plants for maintenance and then restarting the plants once the maintenance had been completed.
• First developed by the U.S. Navy during the 1950s, the critical path method helped project managers build the submarine fleet. It used a series of time lines that allowed for a timely and decisive program.

• In order to achieve the full advantages of the critical path method, a model of the project must be created. First, a list of all activities to be performed must be completed. This is known as the “work breakdown structure.”

• Critical path method is paramount when attempting to manage the progress of a project. If a portion of the project needs to be shortened, also known as “fast tracking,” the project manager can order more of the activities to take place at the same time.

• When using the critical path method to its full potential, a project manager must also include the actual materials that go into the process.

13.13 Keywords

• **Stream**: a small narrow river

• **Variation**: a change, especially in the amount of level of something.

• **Tabulation**: to arrange facts or figures in columns.

13.14 Review Questions

1. Explain the Concept of PERT and CPM
2. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of PERT
3. What are the features of CPM
4. Give the advantages and disadvantages of CPM.

**Answers : Self Assessment**

1. (i) a (ii) b (iii) c (iv) b
2. (i) mathematically (ii) 1950s (iii) work breakdown structure (iv) deterministic

13.15 Further Readings

Unit 14: Cost–Benefit and Cost–Efficiency Analysis in Education

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Objectives
The objectives of this unit can be summarized as below :

• To explain the Meaning of Cost Benefit Analysis
• To discuss about the Aims of Cost Benefit Analysis
• To describe about the Cost Efficiency Analysis
• To discuss about Measuring Cost Efficiency
• To describe about the Educational Applications of Cost Efficiency

Introduction
Cost-benefit analysis of education, as currently practiced throughout the world, has been frequently criticized. For example, the common neglect of indirect economic benefits as well as of non-economic benefits and the use of cross-section data that reflect present and past supply and demand conditions raise doubts about the usefulness of cost-benefits analysis as a guide to future policy decisions. Such objections will be examined in the booklet to determine whether they are fatal to the approach as a whole or can be overcome. At the same time, the booklet seeks to emphasize the strength of cost-benefit analysis of education : namely that it combines, in a convenient form, information about the costs of different kinds of education together with information about the balance between supply and demand for different categories of educated manpower. Cost-benefit analysis also serves to focus attention on certain key variables in a country’s educational or economic system; namely relative costs of different manpower. Thus, although cost-benefit analysis may not always provide planners with unambiguous policy directives, it does provide them with information useful for making rational policy decisions.

The term cost-efficiency is now commonly used in justifying specific educational interventions. It has also become standard parlance among educational policymakers and decision makers.
Ostensible concerns for cost-efficiency in education are not surprising. United States is second in size only to the health care sector in terms of its drain on national resources. It is considerably larger than the military sector. When one includes formal education and the various forms of training, it has been estimated that about 10 percent of the gross domestic product—about three-quarters of a trillion dollars in 1998—is allocated to education, encompassing formal education and various forms of training.

There is considerable criticism of the effectiveness of elementary and secondary schools, particular for minorities, immigrants, and the poor.

In higher education, there are serious challenges with regard to both costs and productivity. Cost-efficiency analysis provides a method of comparing alternatives for their relative costs and results and providing guidelines on which of the alternatives provides the most impact relative to cost. It differs from its close relation, cost-benefit analysis, which requires monetary measures of impact relative to costs. But it is possible to measure academic achievement and other measures of school quality and efficiency. Accordingly, cost-efficiency analysis enables measures of learning, as well as other appropriate indicators to be used to assess educational outcomes relative to costs.

Cost-efficiency analysis emerged in the 1960s as an important method for choosing among costly weapons systems.

A cost benefit analysis is done to determine how well, or how poorly, a planned action will turn out. Although a cost benefit analysis can be used for almost anything. Since the cost benefit analysis relies on the addition of positive factors and the subtraction of negative ones to determine a net result, it is also known as running the numbers.

### 14.1 Meaning of Cost Benefit Analysis

A cost benefit analysis finds quantifies, and adds all the positive factors. These are the benefits. Then it identifies, quantifies, and subtracts all the negatives, the costs. The difference between the two indicates whether the planned action is advisable. The real trick to doing a cost benefit analysis well is making sure you include all the costs and all the benefits and properly quantify them.

The term 'cost-benefit analysis' implies a systematic comparison of the magnitude of the costs and benefits of a form of investment in order to assess its economic profitability. All forms of investment involve a sacrifice of present consumption in order secure future benefits in the form of higher levels of output or income. Cost-benefit analysis (or rate-of-return analysis, which is the type of cost-benefit analysis most frequently applied to education) provides a means of appraising these future benefits in the light of the costs that must be incurred in the present. The purpose of the analysis is to provide a measure of the expected yield of the investment as a guide to rational allocation of resources.

### 14.2 Aims of Cost Benefit Analysis

**Investment in Human Capital**

Education is now universally recognized as a form of investment in human capital that yields economic benefits and contributes to a country’s future wealth by increasing the productive capacity of its people. Thus expenditure on education can be partially justified in terms of the potential contribution of education to economic growth. However this immediately raises many questions. How does education compare with other forms of national investment? Which makes the greater contribution to future economic growth: investment in human capital or investment in physical capital? Are all forms of education equally productive? Is education a profitable form of investment for the individual as well as for society? And if so, do pupils and students, or their families, take this into account when making educational and occupational choices? All of these questions revolve
round one basic issue: the relationship between the costs and the benefits of education, viewed as a form of social or private investment. This booklet is concerned with the theory and techniques of cost-benefit analysis as applied to education and with the relevance of cost-benefit analysis for educational planning.

It is written from the point of view of educational planners and administrators in developing countries and its emphasis is fundamentally practical. It is, of course, necessary to give a brief summary of the economic theory underlying the concepts and techniques of cost-benefit analysis and to examine some of the theoretical objections that have been made to applications of cost-benefit analysis to education. But theoretical reviews of cost-benefit analysis are available elsewhere. The purpose of this booklet is to examine the practical significance of cost-benefit analysis for educational planning and to provide a simple explanation of the technique for non-economists who are faced with economic problems of resource allocation. A major part of the booklet will be devoted to the practical problems of collecting and analyzing the data necessary for a cost-benefit calculation. Real examples will be given of cost-benefit exercises in developing countries. The booklet concludes with a discussion of the policy implications of cost-benefit analysis of education.

Since the 1960s, following influential work by economists such as Schultz (1961) and Becker (1964) described by another American economist as “The human investment revolution in economic thought” (Bowman, 1966), an extensive body of research has developed which applies cost-benefit analysis to the whole field of investment in human capital: education, on-the-job training and health expenditures, to give the most obvious examples. An immediate problem arises here. The future benefits from such investment include non-economic benefits and even the economic benefits are difficult to quantify.

14.3 Meaning of Cost Efficiency Analysis

The words ‘cost of education’ are often loosely equated with ‘expenditure on education’. For the purposes of cost-benefit analysis of an investment, however, it is necessary to define costs in terms of the total opportunity cost of a project; that is, all real resources that are used by the project. These are called the ‘opportunity cost’ as each investment represents the sacrifice of alternative opportunities to use the resources, either for present consumption or for some other form of investment. Thus money expenditures are significant only because they represent the purchase of teachers’ labour, school buildings and equipment or other goods and services that have alternative uses. At the same time the education system uses up other resources with alternative uses, even though these are not reflected in normal expenditure on education. The most obvious example is the time of pupils and students themselves, who deprive the labour market of their services by choosing to continue their education. This represents a loss of productive capacity and thus a loss of current output for the economy as a whole as well as a loss of earnings for the individual. This opportunity of current output or income is foregone in the expectation that education will increase the productive capacity of students in the future and hence future output. However, this loss of present income must be counted as one of the opportunity costs of education as it does represent a sacrifice of real resources, even though the time of students is not reflected in actual expenditure and thus appears at first sight to be a ‘free’ good. Similarly, other apparently ‘free’ goods or services used in the educational process do, in fact, represent a sacrifice of alternative opportunities. In developing countries, for example, the land and even the buildings for a school may be donated by the local community.
However, these buildings or land may have alternative uses and the decision to build a school may mean the sacrifice of an opportunity to build a hospital or community development centre. For budgetary purposes, donated land may be ignored, but for purposes of a cost-benefit calculation, which attempts to evaluate the profitability of one particular form of investment in comparison with alternative investments, it is essential that the sacrifice of alternative opportunities to use land or buildings be counted as part of the real cost of the investment.

Thus, the measurement of the costs of education, for the purposes of cost-benefit analysis, involves more than a simple calculation of money expenditures. It also involves an attempt to estimate the total cost of investment in education in terms of alternative opportunities foregone either by society as a whole or by the private individual.

**Social and Private Costs**

If the purpose of the cost-benefit analysis is to evaluate education as a form of social investment, the relevant cost concept is the total resource cost of education to the economy (social costs). This includes the value of teachers’ time, books, materials and other goods or services, the value of the use of buildings and capital equipment, and finally the value of students’ time, measured in terms of alternative uses.

The simplest measure of the value of teachers’ time is expenditure on salaries. If, however, for some reason teachers are paid less than the current market rate for their services, some attempt must be made to estimate the true opportunity cost of their time. For example, in some developing countries teachers give some of their free time to conducting adult literacy classes (without payment). If this time would otherwise be unoccupied, there is no opportunity cost to be measured; but if the time could otherwise be devoted to some form of community development work, then the time does have an alternative use and is not strictly a ‘free’ good. Similarly, if teachers are required by law to serve for a year at reduced rates of pay as a form of ‘national service’, the value of their time should be measured by market rates rather than by their actual salaries.

The value of books, stationery and writing materials can also be measured in terms of money expenditure.

**Self Assessment**

1. **Fill in the blanks**:

   (i) Cost benefit analysis is ______ of the magnitude of costs and benefits of a form of investment in order to assess its economic profitability.

   (ii) The purpose of the cost benefit analysis is to provide ______ of the expected yield of the investment as a guide to rational allocation of resources.

   (iii) If the purpose of the ______ is to evaluate education as a form of social investment, the relevant cost concept is the total resource cost of education.

   (iv) The simplest measure of the value of teacher’s time is expenditure on ______.

**Cost-effectiveness Analysis**

Cost-effectiveness analysis refers to the consideration of decision alternatives in which both their costs and consequences are taken into account in a systematic way. It is a decision oriented tool, in that it is designed to ascertain which means of attaining particular educational goals are most efficient. For example, there are many alternative approaches for pursuing such goals as raising reading or mathematics achievement. These include the adoption of new materials or curriculum, teacher training, educational television, computer-assisted instruction, smaller class sizes, and so on. The cost-effective solution to this challenge is to ascertain the costs and effects on reading or mathematics achievement of each alternative and to choose that alternative which has the greatest impact on raising achievement scores for any given resource outlay.
Cost-effectiveness analysis is closely related to cost-benefit analysis in that both represent economic evaluations of alternative resource use and measure costs in the same way (see Cost-Benefit Analysis). However, cost-benefit analysis is used to address only those types of alternatives where the outcomes can be measured in terms of their monetary values. For example, educational alternatives that are designed to raise productivity and income, such as vocational education, have outcomes that can be assessed in monetary terms and can be evaluated according to cost-benefit analysis. However, most educational alternatives are dedicated to improving achievement or some other educational outcome that cannot be easily converted into monetary terms. In these cases, one must limit the comparison of alternatives to those that have similar goals by comparing them through cost-effectiveness analysis.

The purpose of cost-effectiveness analysis in education is to ascertain which program or combination of programs can achieve particular objectives at the lowest cost. The underlying assumption is that different alternatives are associated with different costs and different educational results. By choosing those with the least cost for a given outcome, society can use its resources more effectively. Those resources that are saved through using more cost-effective approaches can be devoted to expanding programs or to other important educational and social endeavors.

Cost-effectiveness analysis was developed in the 1950s by the United States Department of Defense as a device for adjudicating among the demands of the various branches of the armed services for increasingly costly weapons systems with different levels of performance and overlapping mission. By the 1960s it had become widely used as a tool for analyzing the efficiency of alternative government programs outside of the military, although its applications to educational decisions have been much slower to develop. Indeed, in the early 1990s the use of the tool in considering educational resource allocation is restricted largely to the United States and has not emerged as a decision approach to resource allocation in other countries.

Did you know? In some countries books are financed with public funds and provided to pupils free or at a subsidized price. In this case the appropriate way to measure their cost is by public expenditure on books or materials.

### 14.4 Measuring Cost Efficiency

The basic technique has been to derive results for educational effectiveness of each alternative by using standard evaluation procedures or studies and to combine such information with cost data that are derived from the ingredients approach. The ingredients approach was developed to provide a systematic way for evaluators to estimate the costs of social interventions. It has been applied not only to cost-effectiveness problems, but also to determining the costs of different educational programs for state and local planning.

#### 14.4.1 Assessing Effectiveness

Before starting the cost analysis, it is necessary to know what the decision problem is, how to measure effectiveness, which alternatives are being considered and what their effects are. If a problem has risen on the policy agenda that requires a response, a careful understanding of the problem is crucial to addressing its solution.

Once the problem has been formulated, it will be necessary to consider how to assess the effectiveness of alternatives. For this purpose, clear dimensions and measures of effectiveness will be needed. (Examples of effectiveness measures that respond to particular program objectives.

Given the problem and criteria for assessing the effectiveness of proposed solutions, it is necessary to formulate alternative programs or interventions. The search for such interventions should be as
Notes

wide-ranging and creative as possible. This procedure sets the stage for the evaluation of effectiveness of the alternatives, a process which is akin to the standard use of evaluation methods (e.g., Rossi and Freeman 1985). Estimates of effectiveness can be derived from previous evaluations or from tailored evaluations for the present purpose.

It is important to emphasize that the evaluation of effectiveness is separable from the evaluation of costs. Most standard evaluation designs for assessing the effectiveness of an intervention are also suitable for incorporation into cost-effectiveness studies. These can be found in the standard evaluation literature (see e.g., Cook and Campbell 1979, Rossi and Freeman 1985). The cost analysis is not typically found in the general evaluation literature and has been developed independently as a subspecialization (Levin 1983).

14.4.2 Cost Estimation

The costs of an intervention are defined as the value of the resources that are given up by society to effect the intervention. These are referred to as the ingredients of the intervention, and it is the social value of those ingredients that constitute its overall cost. At a later stage the distribution of these costs among the decision-making agency and other entities can be assessed. Accordingly, the method sets out systematically to identify and ascertain the value of the ingredients that are required for each alternative that is under consideration.

The ingredients approach to cost estimation entails three distinct phases: (a) identification of ingredients; (b) determination of the value or cost of the ingredients and the overall costs of an intervention; and (c) an analysis of the costs in an appropriate decision-oriented framework.

The first step is to ascertain which ingredients are required for an intervention. Most educational interventions are labor-intensive, so an initial concern is to account for the number and characteristics of personnel. It is important to stipulate whether personnel are part-time or full-time and the types of skills or qualifications that they need. Beyond this it is necessary to identify the facilities, equipment, materials, and other ingredients or resources which are required for the intervention.

Identification of ingredients requires a level of detail that is adequate to ensure that all resources are included and are described adequately to place cost values on them. For this reason, the search for ingredients must be systematic rather than casual.

The primary sources for such data are written reports, observations, and interviews. Written reports, usually contain at least a brief history and description of the intervention. Other sources of information must be used to corroborate and supplement data on ingredients from evaluations and descriptive reports. If the intervention is present at a nearby site, it may be possible to visit and gather additional data on ingredients through observation. A third valuable source is that of interviews, where present or former personnel are asked to identify resources from among a number of different classifications.

The three principal types of information—reports, observations, and interviews—can be used to assure the accuracy of the data by comparing the findings from each source and reconciling differences, the process of triangulation.

Once the ingredients have been identified and stipulated, it is necessary to ascertain their costs. In doing this, all ingredients are assumed to have a cost, including donated or volunteer’ resources. That is, they have a cost to someone, even if the sponsoring agency did not pay for them in a particular situation. At a later stage the costs will be distributed among the constituencies who paid them, but at this stage the need is to ascertain the total costs of the intervention.

Ingredients can be divided into those that are purchased in reasonably competitive markets, and those that are obtained through other types of transactions. In general, the value of an ingredient for costing purposes is its market value. In the case of personnel, market value may be ascertained by determining what the costs would be for hiring a particular type of person. Such costs must include not only salary, but also fringe benefits and other employment costs that are paid by the employer. Many of the other inputs can also be costed by using their market prices. These include the costs of
equipment, materials, utilities, and so on. Clearly the cost of leased facilities can also be ascertained in this way.

Although the market prices of some ingredients such as personnel can often be obtained from accounting data for educational enterprises, such data are not reliable sources for ascertaining overall program costs. The accounting systems that are used by schools were designed for ensuring consistent reporting to state agencies rather than for providing accurate and consistent cost data on educational interventions. For example, they omit completely or underestimate the cost of volunteers and other donated resources. Capital improvements are charged to such budgets and accounts during the year of their purchase, even when the improvements have a life of 20-30 years. Normal cost accounting practices would ascertain the annual costs of such improvements by spreading them over their useful lives through an appropriate method (Levin 1983 pp. 67-71). Thus, data from accounting and budgetary reports must be used selectively and appropriately and cannot be relied upon for all ingredients.

Simple approach that takes account of depreciation and interest foregone by the remaining capital investment. Details for these techniques are found in Levin (1983 Chap. 4).

### 4.4.3 Combining into Cost-effectiveness

Once each of the ingredients is costed, these can be added to obtain a total cost for the intervention. The next stage entails the use of these costs in an analytic framework. The two most important concerns for cost summary and analysis are

(a) the appropriate unit for expressing costs and (b) who pays the costs.

Clearly, the question of the appropriate unit for expressing costs depends upon how effectiveness is measured and the nature of the decision. Usually, educational effectiveness is measured in terms of achievement gains per student or some other per student measure. In that case, it is necessary to convert total costs to a per-student cost figure for comparing cost-effectiveness of alternative interventions. Cost-effectiveness ratios are usually based upon the average effects and costs per student. However, it is possible to do an analysis on total project or program costs and effects. In other cases it may be the additional or marginal costs versus additional or marginal effectiveness that is the subject of scrutiny. For example, one may want to ascertain the number of additional students who will graduate from high school relative to the additional costs of alternative approaches for reducing dropouts.

A very different issue is who pays the costs. The overall cost-effectiveness ratio may be irrelevant to a decision-maker who pays only part of the costs for one intervention, but all of the costs for an alternative. For this reason, it is important to ascertain total costs of an intervention and to separate out those that are home by the decision-maker in considering different alternatives. However, it should be remembered that since different decision-making units have different opportunities to obtain volunteers and contributed resources, it is inappropriate to assume any particular cost subsidy to the decision-maker. The basic estimate of costs that is used for all subsequent cost-analyses is the overall cost of the intervention. Subsequent analyses can distribute the costs among those who will bear them to ascertain the implication of that distribution for decisions.

The most common measure of cost-effectiveness is the cost-effectiveness ratio, namely, the effectiveness of an alternative divided by its cost. When this is done for each alternative, it is possible to see which of the alternatives yields the best outcomes per unit of cost. For example, one might wish to examine different alternatives for raising student achievement comparing the cost per additional achievement gains. In principle, the alternative with the lowest cost per achievement gain would be the most desirable. However, it is important to know if differences in cost-effectiveness ratios are large or small. If the differences are small, it is probably wise to weigh more fully other criteria in making the decision such as the ease of implementation or previous experience of staff. If the differences in cost-effectiveness are large, it is important to place greater weight on the cost-effectiveness criteria while still considering other factors that were not considered in the analysis.
Finally, it is important to mention the issue of scale. In general, those alternatives with high fixed costs such as those with large investments in facilities and equipment will require a high enrollment or utilization to reach their best cost-effectiveness ratios. The reason for this is that fixed costs represented by a building or an educational television network of transmitters and receiving stations cannot be readily adjusted to demand and must be fully utilized to obtain the lowest level of cost per unit of output. In contrast, alternatives that are constituted largely of variable costs such as personnel will have costs that are less sensitive to the scale of output.

Variable costs are derived from inputs or ingredients that can be readily increased or decreased. Thus, a comparison of cost-effectiveness of alternatives that differ in terms of their intensities of fixed versus variable costs may produce very different results depending upon the scale of enrollment or output. Accordingly, estimates should be made among the alternatives for the specific levels of output that are pertinent rather than assuming a general pattern from cost estimation at only one level of scale.

14.5 Educational Applications

Cost-effectiveness studies have been carried out on teacher training, teacher selection, educational television and radio, choice of a mathematics curriculum, computer-assisted instruction and also increasing the school day, reducing class size, an cross-age tutoring. Among studies and interventions should be viewed cautiously given that the studies were done.

14.5.1 Curriculum

Curriculum is an area that is very appropriate for cost-effectiveness analysis. In the quest for educational improvement, schools face numerous ways in which they can organize the pace, content, and method of instruction. Some are likely to be more effective than others, and there may also be substantial differences in resource requirements with respect to such ingredients as teacher time, materials, equipment, and so on. As with many other areas of education, the potential for using cost-effectiveness analysis has barely been tapped in the curriculum field.

An excellent cost-effectiveness study of fifth grade mathematics curriculum was carried out by. Their evaluation compared two approaches to teaching mathematics, a traditional curriculum and an alternative one. Using the ingredients method, the researchers found that the alternative mathematics program cost about 50 percent more than the traditional mathematics program, but the effectiveness of the alternative program was also higher. Depending upon how student achievement was measured, the alternative mathematics program was found to be from 60 percent to 300 percent more cost-effective -- cost per point of achievement score -- than the traditional program.

14.5.2 Teacher Training

A study of teacher training in Sri Lanka compared the cost-effectiveness of training in colleges of education and in teacher colleges as well as through distance education. Teacher performance and pupil achievement were used as measures of effectiveness. Teachers who had received distance education were almost as effective as those trained in colleges of education and teachers’ college.

Cost-effectiveness analysis consists of three steps: (a) The costs of the alternatives must be carefully measured, for example expenditure on teacher salaries, books and learning materials in each type of school; (b) the outcomes or educational effectiveness of the alternatives must be measured, for example by standardized test scores of pupils in each school; finally, (c) costs and effectiveness measures are combined to calculate a cost-effectiveness ratio, for example by dividing the effectiveness of each alternative by its cost to show the unit cost of achieving a particular objective, such as a 1 percent improvement in pupil achievement. Such a ratio is described in one cost-effectiveness study as “the achievement gain per dollar spent” The most cost-effective alternative can then be identified - for example the school that produces the greatest improvement in pupil achievement for a given cost or alternatively the school where pupils achieve the required examination results at least cost.
Self Assessment

2. State whether the following statements are ‘true’ or ‘false’.
   
   (i) The ingredient approach was developed to provide a systematic way for evaluators to estimate the costs of social interventions.
   
   (ii) Most educational interventions are labour intensive.
   
   (iii) Cost approach is the most common measure of cost effectiveness.

14.6 Summary

• A cost benefit analysis finds quantifies, and adds all the positive factors. These are the benefits. Then it identifies, quantifies, and subtracts all the negatives, the costs.

• The term ‘cost-benefit analysis’ implies a systematic comparison of the magnitude of the costs and benefits of a form of investment in order to assess its economic profitability.

• Cost-benefit analysis (or rate-of-return analysis, which is the type of cost-benefit analysis most frequently applied to education) provides a means of appraising these future benefits in the light of the costs that must be incurred in the present.

• Education is now universally recognized as a form of investment in human capital that yields economic benefits and contributes to a country’s future wealth by increasing the productive capacity of its people.

• The words ‘cost of education’ are often loosely equated with ‘expenditure on education’. For the purposes of cost-benefit analysis of an investment, however, it is necessary to define costs in terms of the total opportunity cost of a project; that is, all real resources that are used by the project. These are called the ‘opportunity cost’ as each investment represents the sacrifice of alternative opportunities to use the resources.

• The measurement of the costs of education, for the purposes of cost-benefit analysis, involves more than a simple calculation of money expenditures. It also involves an attempt to estimate the total cost of investment in education in terms of alternative opportunities foregone either by society as a whole or by the private individual.

• If the purpose of the cost-benefit analysis is to evaluate education as a form of social investment, the relevant cost concept is the total resource cost of education to the economy (social costs). This includes the value of teachers’ time, books, materials and other goods or services, the value of the use of buildings and capital equipment, and finally the value of students’ time, measured in terms of alternative uses.

• The simplest measure of the value of teachers’ time is expenditure on salaries. If, however, for some reason teachers are paid less than the current market rate for their services, some attempt must be made to estimate the true opportunity cost of their time.

• The value of books, stationery and writing materials can also be measured in terms of money expenditure. In some countries books are financed with public funds and provided to pupils free or at a subsidized price.

• Cost-effectiveness analysis refers to the consideration of decision alternatives in which both their costs and consequences are taken into account in a systematic way. It is a decision oriented
tool, in that it is designed to ascertain which means of attaining particular educational goals are most efficient.

- Cost-effectiveness analysis is closely related to cost-benefit analysis in that both represent economic evaluations of alternative resource use and measure costs in the same way (see Cost-Benefit Analysis). However, cost-benefit analysis is used to address only those types of alternatives where the outcomes can be measured in terms of their monetary values. For example, educational alternatives that are designed to raise productivity and income, such as vocational education, have outcomes that can be assessed in monetary terms and can be evaluated according to cost-benefit analysis.

- The purpose of cost-effectiveness analysis in education is to ascertain which program or combination of programs can achieve particular objectives at the lowest cost. The underlying assumption is that different alternatives are associated with different costs and different educational results.

- Cost-effectiveness analysis was developed in the 1950s by the United States Department of Defense as a device for adjudicating among the demands of the various branches of the armed services for increasingly costly weapons systems with different levels of performance and overlapping mission.

- The basic technique has been to derive results for educational effectiveness of each alternative by using standard evaluation procedures or studies.

- Assessing Effectiveness

- Once the problem has been formulated, it will be necessary to consider how to assess the effectiveness of alternatives. For this purpose, clear dimensions and measures of effectiveness will be needed.

- Cost Estimation

- The costs of an intervention are defined as the value of the resources that are given up by society to effect the intervention.

- Accordingly, the method sets out systematically to identify and ascertain the value of the ingredients that are required for each alternative that is under consideration.

- The ingredients approach to cost estimation entails three distinct phases: (a) identification of ingredients; (b) determination of the value or cost of the ingredients and the overall costs of an intervention; and (c) an analysis of the costs in an appropriate decision-oriented framework.

- Most educational interventions are labor-intensive, so an initial concern is to account for the number and characteristics of personnel.

- The primary sources for such data are written reports, observations, and interviews. Written reports, usually contain at least a brief history and description of the intervention.

- Ingredients can be divided into those that are purchased in reasonably competitive markets, and those that are obtained through other types of transactions.

- Although the market prices of some ingredients such as personnel can often be obtained from accounting data for educational enterprises, such data are not reliable sources for ascertaining overall program costs.

- Once each of the ingredients is costed, these can be added to obtain a total cost for the intervention.

- The two most important concerns for cost summary and analysis are.

  (a) The appropriate unit for expressing costs and  
  (b) who pays the costs.

- The question of the appropriate unit for expressing costs depends upon how effectiveness is measured and the nature of the decision.
The most common measure of cost-effectiveness is the cost-effectiveness ratio, namely, the effectiveness of an alternative divided by its cost.

Finally, it is important to mention the issue of scale. In general, those alternatives with high fixed costs such as those with large investments in facilities and equipment will require a high enrollment or utilization to reach their best cost-effectiveness ratios.

Cost-effectiveness studies have been carried out on teacher training, teacher selection, educational television and radio, choice of a mathematics curriculum, computer-assisted instruction and also increasing the school day, reducing class size, an cross-age tutoring. Among studies and interventions should be viewed cautiously given that the studies were done.

Curriculum is an area that is very appropriate for cost-effectiveness analysis. In the quest for educational improvement, schools face numerous ways in which they can organize the pace, content, and method of instruction.

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Cost-effectiveness analysis consists of three steps: (a) The costs of the alternatives must be carefully measured, for example expenditure on teacher salaries, books and learning materials in each type of school; (b) the outcomes or educational effectiveness of the alternatives must be measured, for example by standardized test scores of pupils in each school; finally, (c) costs and effectiveness measures are combined to calculate a cost-effectiveness ratio.

14.7 Keywords

- **Analysis**: The detailed study or examination of something in order to understand more about it.
- **Productivity**: The rate at which a worker, company or a country produces goods and the amount produced.
- **Unemployment**: The fact of a number of people not having a job.
- **Benefit**: The advantage that something gives you, a helpful and useful effect.

14.8 Review Questions

1. What is Cost benefit analysis
2. What is the purpose of Cost benefit analysis
3. Explain the meaning of Cost efficiency

**Answers : Self Assessment**

1. (i) Systematic Comparison (ii) Measure
   (iii) Cost benefit analysis (iv) Salaries
2. (i) T (ii) T (iii) F
14.9 Further Readings

Books

Unit 15: Participation of Stakeholders in Educational Management

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15.3 Role of Headmaster in Educational Management
15.4 Role of Teachers in Educational Management
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Objectives
The objectives of this unit can be summarised as below:
- To explain about Educational Stakeholders
- To discuss about role of Central & State Government in Educational management
- To describe about the role of headmaster in Educational management
- To discuss about role of Teachers in School Management
- To discuss about role of parents in Educational Management

Introduction
The roles of each stakeholder in a school provide an integral part to the entire organization. Like a system of checks and balances, the school board oversees a superintendent and the superintendent oversees the site administrators. The parents and students, as stakeholders, have a right to complain to the board, to the administration, and to the superintendent concerning the changes and adherence to policy. Though each stakeholder has a say in the business of the district, the power and influence of say may depend on the role and the position of a stakeholder.

As the ideas and methodology change to meet the information age, the structure and hierarchy within a school district and the role of the stakeholders may change. America is currently revamping administrative and teaching roles within the schools, which may restructure the leadership of the school board, superintendent, and other educational stakeholders who participate in the educational processes.

As the roles change for the stakeholders, a new set of skills will have to be incorporated into each role. Additionally, decision making powers may shift; the check and balance system may move in different directions; and the final authority may come from stakeholders other than the school board or the superintendent of the district.
15.1 Educational Stakeholders

The educational stakeholders are the participants who take part in various activities of school management either they are academic financial or social administrative. Let us we will discuss about them the further.

15.1.1 School Board Members

A school board is comprised of members that are usually elected by the residents of the school district, but in some districts are elected by the mayor or other executives of jurisdictions that may include towns, cities, or countries. The size of a school board varies between districts and from city to city; similarly, the power of the boards will vary between districts and from city to city. School boards have the power to hire and fire teachers and administrators. They are the guardians of the policy that help implement changes that will benefit the district or support the superintendent of the district who has the responsibility of implementing and maintaining the policies set by the board.

15.1.2 Teachers

The teacher, along with the student, plays an interactive role in the education process because one cannot function without the other. The empowerment of teachers will facilitate the empowerment of students. Teacher empowerment takes the form of providing teachers with a significant role in decisions making, control over their work environment and conditions, and opportunities to serve in a range of professional roles. The teacher as a stakeholder is expected to possess the professional knowledge to lead the students in instruction. In addition to serving in an instructional role the teacher can be a mentor, supervisor, counselor, and community leader. The teacher can be a mentor to students or other teachers. The role of supervisor is present in every aspect of a teacher’s daily responsibilities. The teacher’s role as counselor can be used to offer advice to students or school advisory committees.

The motivational factors for teachers is related to the impact their role plays in producing individuals who are an asset to the community they live in. "The ends of education have to do with such things as providing the society with a culturally literate citizenry, a world-class workforce, people who can think and reason. The teacher is motivated to fulfill their role with an understanding of how important teachers are to society. Without teachers, our society would not be able to function as a global competitor.

15.1.3. Parents

Parents play key roles as educational stakeholders. Parents’ primary objective is the assurance that their children will receive a quality education, which will enable the children to lead productive rewarding lives as adults in a global society. Parents bring a valuable quality to the educational experience of their children because they may better understand their own children and can influence significantly student behaviors such as time management and study habits, eating practices, and their personal safety and general welfare. Parents as educational stakeholders provide additional resources for the school to assist with student achievement and to enhance a sense of community pride and commitment, which may be influential in the overall success of the school. For instance, parent involvement with their children’s educational process through attending school functions, participating in the decision making process, encouraging students to manage their social and academic time wisely, and modeling desirable behavior for their children represent a valuable resource for schools across this nation, according to Cotton and Wikelund. In addition, parents have the right and the responsibility to be involved in their children’s educational process. Legislation such as encourages and enhances parent involvement in their children’s education.

Parents are very important stakeholders to the educational decision making process. As suggested by many parents’ decisions on educational issues are significantly influenced by their values and
beliefs rather than school law. In addition, each geographical area is subject to present different beliefs and values. Therefore, the parent’s position on the nativity scene may be dependent on his or her value system or the area he or she lives.

15.1.4 Students
Educational institutions were incepted for the purpose of providing free schooling for all children.

15.2 Role of Central Government in Educational Management
Since independence, the Central Government has been spending increasing amount of money on education. The contribution of the Central Government and State Governments have increased form 57.1 percent in 1950-51 to about 72 percent at present. Central government accounting for 7 percent and the State Government for about 75 percent. The contribution is likely to be increased to about 90 percent by 2012. The following are the important reasons for this increase.

1. The Central Government must assists the State in realising the constitutional provisions for providing compulsory primary education in the age group 6 to 14
2. The Central Government must assist the backward States for providing better educational opportunities.
3. The Central Government has large resources for collecting finances.
4. Central funds must be utilised for providing equality of opportunities for all.

The Central Government assists the States for educational development in three ways:
1. Central Government performs educational functions through NCERT, U.G.C., Central Universities, Central Schools Organisation, etc.
2. Central Government (MHRD) sponsor schemes fully financed by it but implemented by the States.
3. Central government partially finances some programmes planned and implemented by the Governments.

Financing Educational Plans
Education in India is a state responsibility and the bulk of educational expenditure i.e., about 65 percent, is born by the States. The Finance Commission transfers adequate resources at the end of each plan to each State under: (i) Share in Income Tax, (ii) Share in Excise, and (iii) Lump-sum grant-in-aid.

Creating Resources
There are usually two approaches adopted in the preparation of plans for national development. However the main objective of each approach is to get the most and best educational results for the effort expended and to maximise education’s contribution to each individual and to the whole society.

The following are the two main approaches which determine the allocation of resources. Both, however are interlinked and one cannot be separated form the other.

(1) Social Considerations: Under the first approach, the educational goals of a country are first determined with reference to its past traditions, comparison with advanced countries and the needs of the new society which it desires to create. The financial implications of these goals are then worked out, and an attempt is made to raise the funds needed for educational development. The usual experience in this approach, however, is that the finances required for supporting and educational programme which the nation desires to have, are not an educational programme which the nation desires to have, are not likely to be available in the near future, and in some cases, they are found to be even large than the entire public expenditure of the country in all sectors.
(2) Economic Considerations: In the second approach, a beginning is made with the limitation of
finances, and the first step is to ascertain the maximum financial resources that can be raised for
education by mobilising internal resources through taxation or voluntary contributions in cash
and kind and external assistance. On the basis of the resources that thus seem likely to be
available, three questions are posed: (1) What type of education can the country afford? (2)
How much of for whom? (3) What should be the priorities on available funds?

The first of these approaches is dominated mainly by educational considerations, and the second by
financial limitations. The ultimate solution of the problem would have to be sought in a realistic and
wise compromise between these two approaches and that in order to provide a good educational
system to Asian countries in the near future, educationists and economists would have to work
together. In the process, educationists would become increasingly conscious of the new but significant
science of the ‘economics of education and the economists, in their turn, would become increasingly
conscious of the significance of education in economic development. The major basic programme is
to make an intensive effort to eliminate poverty and to raise the gross national product as quickly
as possible. Programmes of increasing national income may have to be coupled with the programmes
of increasing national income may have to be coupled with the programmes of population control
as well. In the larger interests of speedy development, governmental expenditure on economic
investment and development of social services, including education, should be increased rapidly.

Delegation of Authorities and Accountability

A principal or headmaster of an educational institution is assigned to perform various types of tasks
and functions which are as follows:

1. Roles of a principal or headmaster.
2. Functions and duties of a principal.
3. Responsibilities of a principal, and
4. Accountability of a principal/headmaster.

The above tasks are limited to the institutions but principal tasks have very wide scope. He has to
deal with various types of person a which have been enumerated as follows:

(a) Teachers and staff.
(b) Students.
(c) Parents.
(d) Management.
(e) Local authorities.
(f) State authorities.
(g) Other related organizations.

The functioning of an institution involves various types of activities which are to be managed and
administered by the principal which are as follows:

1. Time table of school, class wise and teachers wise.
2. Teaching work and practical work.
3. Maintaining discipline is school.
4. Prayer and assembly programme.
5. Cultural programmes.
6. Games and sports.
7. N.C.C. and Scouting.
8. School finance and budgeting.
10. Preparing results and School records.

In urban areas most of the institutions have shift system. There are two shifts which are held in the school. It means, there are two schools, though the classes have been divided into two shifts due to the shortage of classrooms. It means that principal duties and responsibilities are twice work load of a principal.

Delegation of Authority

The review of principal work load indicates it is difficult for a principal to manage all the activities of school efficiently. The communication system may assist him to some extent but he has to decentralized his authorities. In the present time centralized-system of authorities may not work efficiently. Moreover in democratic educational administration decentralized of authorities approach is effective and efficient.

A principal has to delegate his authorities and responsibilities to his senior teachers of the school. The major tasks are assigned to the senior teachers or experience teachers according to their interest and abilities so that they can perform their duties independently. The following are the examples of delegation of authorities.

1. Time table incharge.
2. Discipline incharge or chief proctor.
3. Games and sports incharge.
4. Examination incharge or superindent.
5. Admission incharge.
6. Finance of Accounts incharge.
7. Library incharge etc.

The responsibilities and authorities are delegated by the principal to these incharges. The incharges are appointed by the principal according to the need and requirements of the institution. The committees may be formed to assist the incharge.

Accountability of a Principal/Headmaster

As it has been discussed in the earlier paras that a principal delegates authorities to senior teachers for the smooth working of the school by sharing responsibilities with teachers. But as per State Education Act, ultimate responsibility of the principal. The state authorities and central authorities are recognized the principal. If something wrong has been done in the school by the incharge whom principal has delegated authority. The state or central authorities will ask to the principal because it is the accountability of the principal not the incharge concern. It is the local arrangement of the school.

The delegation of authority means, a senior teacher is working on behalf of the principal. The credit of good administration goes to the principal. The discredit of poor administration also goes to the principal. The ultimate responsibility and accountability of school functioning is the principal. There is no provision in the educational Act to delegate the authority to any other teachers. Therefore it is the responsibility of principal to delegate the authorities to sincer and hard working teachers of the school.

Right Delegation of Authority

The headmaster should delegate to the other members of the staff supervision of the examinations, school cleanliness, morning assembly, funds, hostel scouting, literary and social activities, etc. The
delegation of power will develop in them a sense of responsibility for the school. He should consult his colleagues regarding improvement in school discipline and instruction. The advantages will be that a spirit will be instilled in them that they belong to the school.

15.3 Role of Headmaster in Educational Management

(1) Monitoring

The term monitoring is very old concept in our education. The monitoring system of education was very popular in our ancient education. Even to day class monitors are appointed in our schools in every section. The main function or duty of class monitor is to maintain class discipline in the absence of a class-teacher or subject teacher. Monitor of a class has engage the class in some a academic activity. Thus, the discipline in the school is maintained with the help of monitor.

The Headmaster Role in Monitoring

In school administration and organization, the headmaster delegates the authorities and duties to senior teachers. They are supposed to monitor the functioning of the area assigned to them. Even in the absence of headmaster a senior teacher takes responsibilities and duties of the principal. In the absence of class teacher the class monitor maintains class discipline and controls the class.

Some time the principal renders the duties of the management and takes some policy decisions. It is just as for school management. The monitoring role of headmaster has the focus to maintain and control the school functioning.

Difference between Monitoring and Supervision

These two terms indicate the similar meaning but these are different to each other in the following manner

(1) Monitoring purpose is to maintain the discipline and make the smooth functioning of the school.
(2) The purpose of supervision is to improve and modifying the activities.
(3) Monitoring is done by second person or to whom the power have been delegated or assigned to a person.
(4) Supervision is done by the headmaster or first person only.
(5) Monitoring role can not take policy decision by second person.
(6) Superviser or headmaster can take policy or major decision.
(7) The purpose of supervision is also diagnosing the causes of weakness, The remedial facilities can be provided by the headmaster in that area.

Advantages of Monitoring

The monitoring role has the following advantages:

(1) It makes administrative functioning smooth and effective.
(2) It is based on democratic educational administration principles.
(3) It maintains the school discipline, conducive for learning.
(4) It provides the opportunities to learn and have new experiences.
(5) It also provides opportunities to the persons in different areas.
(6) It is based on decentralization of responsibilities and power.
Limitations of Monitoring

The following are two main limitations of the monitoring role. If the responsibilities are given to undeserving candidates, then the purpose will not be served. It may create problems in the school. It requires right delegation of authorities.

(2) Supervision

Are all the programmes of school going properly or not? For having knowledge of these things, the headmaster requires vigilant supervision on them. This is his most important responsibility. Through supervision only, he can have the knowledge of all the activities of the school and he can be successful in knowing this also that in which field are the weaknesses so that some steps may be taken to improve them. No part of the school is out of the vision of the headmaster because every section of the school plays some role in making or unmaking of students. It is not sufficient to pay attention on the teaching programme only, notwithstanding, what do students do outside, the school games and sports are the life of hostel, it is also necessary to see how students lead hostel life. The supervision of all these things should be done not only for the mental development of the students but also for the development of physical, social and ethical one. Study regarding responsibility of supervision of head master could be done under the following heads:

(1) Teaching Work: The headmaster has got very important responsibility in this area. He has to look after teaching work of various classes regularly. If he prepares a plan of supervision programme, supervision of all the classes and subjects could be possible and non disturbance would be followed in this work. When he goes to classroom for supervision, he should keep a register (inspection register) with him. He should write down those suggestions through which he wants to bring improvement in teaching work and wants to raise the standard or level high. He should give his suggestions in the form of advice only. The headmaster can make supervision successful by paying attention on the following points:

(a) At the time of supervision in the class, the headmaster should not adopt the view of fault finding, notwithstanding his view-point should be constructive and sympathetic, because, if he would go in the class with the objective of fault finding the teachers would start to see him with suspicion and most probably he may lose their faith. His entrance in the class should be as an adviser, co-operator and friend.

(b) At the time of looking after the teaching work, the headmaster should keep in his mind that teacher is working with which kind of material that is, he should watch the level of children, material available, teaching method etc. The headmaster should keep in his mind the temperament of the teacher, interest and ability also at the time of inspection.

(c) The headmaster should not impose his suggestions on the teacher, notwithstanding he should provide him opportunity for discussions. With this, they both would understand each other, and the teacher would accept those suggestions as well being of his own.

(2) Hostel Supervision: Schools, which have hostels, it also becomes a duty of their headmasters that they should as and when supervise those hostels also. The headmaster should keep a watch on the food of students, management of food preparation, arrangement of drinking water, the place of dining (Dining room), and cleanliness of utensils etc. So, it is necessary for him to inspect all these things and sometimes he should eat food with the students so that the should know what kind of food is served to the students.

He should supervise the sleeping rooms of the boys also and it should be watched too that cleanliness and light in rooms are proper or not. Besides, he should manage to know this also that the children do not study by liely (lying). They keep their rooms in order or not. He should Inspect the arrangement of bathroom and latrines and urinals etc., also.

The headmaster should look after the hostel activities. He should also see that the students properly utilise playground, library, reading room and common room etc., or not. In addition
to that he should also inspect the Hostel Bye-laws, log-book, stock register and attendance register etc.

(3) **Office Record Supervision**: It is necessary for the headmaster to inspect the working of the office and upkeep of office record. He should watch daily correspondence and manage to send their replies as soon as possible. Besides, he should inspect/look after various records of the office. For running the school work efficiently full attention should be paid towards these things.

(4) **General Supervision**: There are many practical responsibilities under this head. For example, co-curricular activities, physical elements of the school, physiological activities, activities relating to subjects, activities of students’ union, co-operative store regarding school, canteen etc. He is to do inspection of these all for smooth running and he is to watch that there is no misuse of the resources. Meaning thereby, the energy, money and time are properly being utilised. He should pay his attention towards physical elements of the school: School building, furniture, teaching material and library etc. He should manage supply and repairs and cleanliness etc.

(3) **Evaluation**

This is one of the important duties of a headmaster that he should evaluate his total arrangements form time to time. He has implemented, the policies, which have been formulated for running school. To what extent are they successful. To know this fact, evaluation is essential. To improve the level of teacher and for making it high and principles and processes which have been used those, and co-curricular activities organisation and direction, in getting the objectives of education, how far or till what extent have been successful or helpful? Discipline of school and its general tone, how far have they been helpful in developing social and moral qualities in children. To know all these things also, he requires to conduct evaluation necessarily. For the knowledge of all these things, the headmaster should use various methods, like observation, probing, interview, questionnaire and record etc.

The headmaster should pay attention on the following points for knowing about progress, promotion, their capacities and difficulties etc. of his students:

(1) It should be watched whether “Question Papers” of examination are not too easy or too hard.

(2) Weekly and monthly tests should be arranged and upkeep of record of these tests should be maintained.

(3) **Cumulative Record** of children should be prepared. In these records, a detailed description of test of various aptitudes and qualities should be given, for instance, general knowledge, acquiring knowledge practical capability, social and citizen activities, expression, service motive, co-operation, health progress, traits of personality, character, firmness, leadership, industriousness, self-confidence, self-control, sociability and presence of mind. These qualities of students should be recorded and maintained in the office of the headmaster. It is very essential for him to know the opinions and ideas of teachers and guardians as well in this matter.

The headmaster has not to do evaluation only of his policies, processes and activities of children (students) notwithstanding it is essential for him to examine his associates and actions of other functionaries of school also. At the time of evaluating the activities of these officials, the headmaster should keep in mind the following points:

1. He should tell clearly merits and demerits of his colleagues.

2. He should conduct evaluation for bringing about improvement in their working.

3. He should develop feelings of self-evaluation and self-development in his workers.
4. For making human relations appropriate, he should have sympathetic and helpful attitude towards his subordinates. He should not conduct the evaluation with the viewpoint of destruction.

Establishment of Human Relations: The most essential condition of success of headmaster is this that he should establish appropriate human relations with his colleagues, subordinates, students and their guardians and the other members of the society. For this, he should keep the following points in his mind:

1. The headmaster should recognise his colleagues personally. Along with he should know about personality of each of them. Only by doing so, he would not establish appropriate human relations with them, notwithstanding he could get willing co-operation of them also.

2. The headmaster should endeavour to seek maximum participation form all the persons. For this, he should involve utmost member of his colleagues in decision-making, by doing so they would not come in his contact only but they would realise their responsibility also in each matter and perform that in a suitable manner.

3. The headmaster should do development of policies and processes of school on the co-operative basis. By this, he could establish proper human relations with his associates and students etc.

4. The headmaster should develop faith, affection and feeling of respect in his associates and subordinates, students and guardians.

5. The headmaster should strive continuously for the development of self and his colleagues.

(4) Guidance and Motivation

Guidance function of a headmaster is of recent origin. He is expected to provide educational and vocational guidance:

(1) The students in the selection of the subjects at the secondary stage, leading to suitable vocations after the school leaving stage.

(2) The students in their day-to-day activities and instructional work.

(3) The teacher in organising teaching and other activities, in making a deeper study of their subjects, and in solving specific problems of discipline, backwardness, teaching etc.

(4) The parents in supervising the education of their wards, in planning their education according to their abilities and aptitudes.

(5) The higher authorities matters of curriculum, text-books, school organising, framing of educational policies and other educational problems are supervised.

Out of all these tasks, educational and vocational guidance is of utmost necessity, although it is neglected so far. The headmaster must reconvene meetings of the staff for purposes of planning educational guidance and organising a full-fledged guidance programme. He should start a guidance unit in the school and appoint the necessary staff for guidance.

The guidance unit must provide not only curricular and vocational guidance but also personal guidance to those young children who lack adjustment. For this purpose he may have to seek help from the psychologists and other organisations. The headmaster shall have to act as a liaison between the school guidance unit and the Slate Guidance bureau, employment officers and other organisations.

Every headmaster has to extract work from his colleagues this he cannot do smoothly and effectively through and autocratic attitude. He has to motivate his subordinates to work conscientiously and enthusiastically. The headmasters has to create motivating situations prompting. Others to accomplish the task for attainment of the full goal. For this purpose, he is expected to human skill, besides technical skill. The human skill will mean ability to motivate
others to work, judgement to evaluate their work, understanding of the sources of behaviour of others and patience to deal with difficult situations.

(5) **Inter-Personal Conflicts**

Many situations in the organization, particularly decision-making situations produce inter-personal conflict for educational managers, as the force choice among values; for example selecting and unqualified teacher form amongst several well-qualified ones for promotion or for award or doing some important prestigious job. This administrative act may generate a conflicting situation between or among the teachers which the manager has to face. A large number of such interpersonal conflicts are like to occur in every educational organization among teachers, students, administrators, parents and other employees and also between them in permutation and combination of these. Many of these conflicts may be trivial, but a few of them may be quite serious having long histories’, are in crisis of management.

(6) **Managing Finance**

An expansion of education facilities and services are dependent upon the availability of finances. Educational finance cannot be separated form education. No educational activity can be conceived without provision of adequate funds. Finances has important implications for educational policies and programmes. Which make school programmes workable.

Broadly speaking educational finances are needed for the following purposes in education :

1. Maintenance of normal education services.
2. Expansion of educational facilities.
3. Expansion of educational services, and
4. Removal of disparities in educational opportunities.

**Methods of Financing Education**

The following methods have been used for time to time in financing education :

(1) **Land Grants and Income Yielding Endowments** : this was the most important method used in Ancient and medieval times in financing education. Even now this method is prevalent in India. This method implies grating land or endowment for educational purposes. The income derived form land or endowment is used for educational purposes. Sometimes many shops are attached with educational trusts. The rulers and feudal lords used to adopt this method. Till recently it was also in vogue in the U.S.A.

(2) **Learning while Earning** : Basic System of Education formulated by Gandhi ji is based on the premise that students should learn while earning. Craft centred education has been envisaged as self-supporting education.

(3) **Donations form the Public** : The method is usually resorted to by trusts set up by philanthropists, religious and social organisations. The scope of public donations has become very limited now as donation to political parties has assumed larger proportion and people give priority to it.

(4) **Realisation Fees** : All public schools in our country are being maintained through heavy fees which are charged form the students. There is a made rush’ for admission to public schools. Donations for a single seat in a renowned public school in Delhi mean several thousands of rupees.

(5) **Government Funds** : Since independence Central and State Governments have been spending more and more on education. Grant-in-aid is available to private institutions when they satisfy certain conditions. Government has also opened many state schools which are wholly financed by it.
Unesco co-operates with the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) and its affiliate, the International Development Association (IDA), in a programme designed to assist governments in making their national systems of education more productive and efficient.

Most of the activities are discharged through National Commissions for co-operation with UNESCO. Among the important activities in the field of education undertaken by UNESCO are:

1. Establishment of institutes like the present National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration, New Delhi.
3. Farmer’s Training and Functional Literacy Programmes.
4. Centre for Educational Technology.

In fact every educational activity is closely related to educational finance and support. Educational finance determines the whole national fabric.

15.4 Role of Teachers in Educational Management

No better tributes have been paid to any man on earth than to the teacher. East or west, everywhere he has been respected and worshipped. If in ancient India he was ranked next to God, in the West he has been called the ‘architect of nation,’ the harbinger of the progress of culture’, ‘the maker of man’ and the ‘maker of history’. Like a gardener, caressing the plants, he caresses young human beings and looks after their physical, mental and social growth and development. God created man in the shape of his own image, the teacher fashions the child in the shape of his own image. Hence it is said, as the teacher, so is the child.

Role of Teacher in a school

Teacher is the principal component of classroom management. He has to play the several roles-as manager philosopher, guide and friend. He has the authority, responsibility, accountability and leadership in managing classroom activities. He has to employ an appropriate model of discipline, strategies and techniques of teaching. He has to maintain rapport with students and social relation with his colleagues and principal. Some of the important roles have been discussed here.

1. **Role As Teacher** : Teaching is a noble profession. Teacher is an ideal for his students as well as to society. He should look like a teacher and behave like a teacher. The important role which influences most to students. How he dresses in classroom and how addresses to his students? He must know his students i.e. entering behaviours and social and cultural background.

2. **Role as Philosopher** : The main job of a teacher is impart knowledge of his subject content. He must have the mastery of subject and latest development of his subject. He should have the interest is has subject. Research studies have found that mastery of the subject in a powerful predictor of teacher-effectiveness.

3. **Role as Guide** : Teacher job is to help students in their personal and learning problems. He has to deal the students problem scientifically for providing the awareness of causes of the problem. The remedial teaching is arranged for weak students.
(4) **Role as Researcher**: Teacher should have the ability to deal with the problems of classroom management. He should have the knowledge and skill for using action research. Classroom management problems can be solved with the help of action research project.

(5) **Role as Manager**: Teacher should know the functions, authorities, and responsibilities of a manager. The main functions of a manager are planning, organizing, supervising, directing, coordinating, and controlling the teaching process. Now a teacher has a very wide area of responsibilities.

(6) **Role as Leader**: A teacher should have leadership quality. A teacher function as a leader of his class. Academic leadership is the most important function of a teacher.

In the modern era, a teacher has enumerable responsibilities as our society becomes very complex. Teacher has to play the several roles in classroom management. The most important qualities of teacher are sincerity, honesty and involvement in teaching. He enjoys his classroom teaching. It brings excellence in classroom management. The knowledge of teaching, training and instruction can be effectively used by a teacher in managing classroom activities.

**Functions of a Teacher**

The duties and functions of teacher can be categorised as follows:

1. **Planning**
2. **Educating**
3. **Organising**
4. **Supervising**
5. **Guiding**
6. **Recording**
7. **Evaluating**
8. **Maintaining good relations**

(1) **Planning**: Before proceeding with the actual teaching work and class management, a teacher should plan thoroughly the following items:

   (i) He should plan the curriculum as a whole, the syllabus in the subjects, he teaches, and divides the syllabus into monthly and weekly units or yearly plan.

   (ii) He should plan the use of audio-visual and other teaching aids, and procure those in advance.

   (iii) He should plan the time-table, and the actual class-work in accordance with the time-schedule.

   (iv) He should plan all the co-curricular activities, to be organised during the session.

(2) **Educating**: Teaching is his first and foremost duty. It is his duty to have a thorough knowledge of the subject, he teaches, study and practise the latest techniques of teaching, select the learning materials, manage the daily routines and procedures of teaching, and motivate the students to learn. He should give sufficient and adequate home-task and make regular correction of written work. He has to direct co-curricular activities and look to the all-round development of pupils.

(3) **Organising**: A teacher has to organise the following items:

   (i) He has to organise various curricular and cocurricular activities.

   (ii) He has to organise the school plant look to decoration and up-keep of the school campus, make seating arrangements, maintain the equipment, distribute the furniture and pay attention to the sanitation of the surroundings.

   (iii) He has to organise library work of the pupils.

   (iv) Organisation of the instructional work is the most important duty. This includes organisation of syllabus, classification of pupils, construction of time-table, and assignment of work.

(4) **Supervision**: A teacher has to supervise the work of the pupils. He should ensure regular attendance and regular work, and detect irregularities. He has to check the practical work, the written work and supervised study by the pupils. He has to maintain discipline and order in the school. He has to supervise games and other activities of the pupils. He may have to supervise the work of the pupils in the hostel.
Guidance: The teacher has to guide the students in a number of matters. He has to guide them in the proper selection of subjects, leading to wholesome vocations. He has to guide them in their studies. He shall have to recognise the personality, strengths and weaknesses of his pupils and so adjust his own attitude and behaviour that he is able to motivate the students.

15.5 Role of Parents in Educational Management

Parents want to be involved in children’s education. Teachers and schools believe that involved parents benefit children. But good intentions on either side only go so far. “Teachers, parents, and students have little understanding of each other’s interests in children and schools....Most teachers do not know the goals that parents have for their children, how parents help them learn, or how parents would like to be involved. Most parents do not know much about the educational programs in their children’s school or what teachers require of them.” Effective parent involvement comes when a true partnership exists between schools and families. Creating that partnership, especially around academics, is what works for student achievement.

The types of parent involvement

1. Parenting, in which schools help families with their parenting skills by providing information on children’s developmental stages and offering advice on learning-friendly home environments;
2. Communicating, or working to educate families about their child’s progress and school services and providing opportunities for parents to communicate with the school;
3. Volunteering, which ranges from offering opportunities for parents to visit their child’s school to finding ways to recruit and train them to work in the school or classroom;
4. Learning at home, in which schools and educators share ideas to promote at-home learning through high expectations and strategies so parents can monitor and help with homework.
5. Decision-making, in which schools include families as partners in school organizations, advisory panels, and similar committees.
6. Community collaboration, a two-way outreach strategy in which community or business groups are involved in education and schools encourage family participation in the community.

What is delegation of authority?

Self Assessment

1. Fill in the blanks:

(i) ______ have the power to hire and fire teachers and Administrators.
(ii) Parents may bring a ______ to the Educational experience of their children.
(iii) The ______ transfers adequate resources at the end of each plan to each state.
(iv) In school administration and organization, the ______ delegates the authorities and duties to senior teachers.
(v) Co curricular activities, physical elements of the school, physiological activities come under ______.
(vi) To arrange ______ for weak students is a big responsibility of teacher and head master.
15.6 Summary

- The educational Stakeholder are the participants who take part in various activities of school management either they are academic financial or social administrative. Let us we will discuss about them the further.

- A school board is comprised of members that are usually elected by the residents of the school district, but in some districts are elected by the mayor or other executives of jurisdictions that may include towns, cities, or countries, The size of a school board varies between districts and from city to city; similarly, the power of the boards will vary between districts and from city to city.

- Teachers

- The teacher, along with the student, plays an interactive role in the education process because one cannot function without the other. Teacher empowerment takes the form of providing teachers with a significant role in decisions making, control over their work environment and conditions, and opportunities to serve in a range of professional roles. The teacher as a stakeholder is expected to possess the professional knowledge to lead the students in instruction.

- The motivational factors for teachers is related to the impact their role plays in producing individuals who are an asset to the community they live in.

- Parents

- Parents play key roles as educational stakeholders. Parents’ primary objective is the assurance that their children will receive a quality education, which will enable the children to lead productive rewarding lives as adults in a global society. Parents bring a valuable quality to the educational experience of their children because they may better understand their own children and can influence significantly student behaviors such as time management and study habits, eating practices, and their personal safety and general welfare.

- Role of the Central Government in the Financing of Education

- Since independence, the Central Government has been spending increasing amount of money on education.

- The following are the important reasons for this increase.

  (i) The Central Government must assists the State in realising the constitutional provisions for providing compulsory primary education in the age group 6 to 14

  (ii) The Central Government must assist the backward States for providing better educational opportunities.

  (iii) The Central Government has large resources for collecting finances.

- Education in India is a state responsibility and the bulk of educational expenditure i.e., about 65 percent, is born by the States.

- There are usually two approaches adopted in the preparation of plans for national development. However the main objective of each approach is to get the most and best educational results for the effort expended and to maximise education’s contribution to each individual and to the whole society.

- The following are the two main approaches which determine the allocation of resources. Both, however are interlinked and one cannot be separated form the other.

  (i) Social Considerations : Under the first approach, the educational goals of a country are first determined with reference to its past traditions, comparison with advanced countries and the needs of the new society which it desires to create. The financial implications of these goals are then worked out, and an attempt is made to raise the funds needed for educational development.
Economic Considerations: In the second approach, a beginning is made with the limitation of finance, and the first step is to ascertain the maximum financial resources that can be raised for education by mobilising internal resources through taxation or voluntary contributions in cash and kind and external assistance.

- Delegation of Authorities and Accountability
- A principal or headmaster of an educational institution is assigned to perform various type of tasks and functions which are as follows:
  1. Roles of a principal or headmaster.
  2. Functions and duties of a principal.
  3. Responsibilities of a principal, and
  4. Accountability of a principal/headmaster.
- He has to deal with various types of persons which have been enumerated as follows:
  1. Teachers and staff.
  2. Students.
  3. Parents.
  5. Local authorities.

- Delegation of Authority
- A principal has to delegate his authorities and responsibilities to his senior teachers of the school. The major tasks are assigned to the senior teachers or experienced teachers according to their interest and abilities so that they can perform their duties independently. The following are the examples of delegation of authorities.
- The delegation of authority means, a senior teacher is working on behalf of the principal. The credit of a good administration goes to the principal. The discredit of poor administration also goes to the principal. The ultimate responsibility and accountability of school functioning is the principal.

- The Headmaster Role in Monitoring
- In school administration and organization, the headmaster delegates the authorities and duties to senior teachers. They are supposed to monitor the functioning of the area assigned to them. Even in the absence of the headmaster a senior teacher takes responsibilities and duties of the principal.

- Advantages of Monitoring
- The monitoring role has the following advantages:
  1. It makes administrative functioning smooth and effective.
  2. It is based on democratic educational administration principles.
  3. It maintains the school discipline, conducive for learning.
- The following are two main limitations of the monitoring role. If the responsibilities are given to undeserving candidates, then the purpose will not be served.

- Supervision
- The supervision of all these things should be done not only for the mental development of the students but also for the development of physical, social and ethical one. Study regarding responsibility of supervision of head master could be done under the following heads:
  1. Teaching Work: The headmaster has got very important responsibility in this area. He has to look after teaching work of various classes regularly. If he prepares a plan of supervision...
programme. Supervision of all the classes and subjects could be possible and non disturbance would be followed in this work.

(a) At the time of supervision in the class, the headmaster should not adopt the view of fault finding, notwithstanding his view-point should be constructive and sympathetic, because, if he would go in the class with the objective of fault finding the teachers would start to see him with suspicion and most probably he may lose their faith.

(ii) Hostel Supervision: Schools, which have hostels, it also becomes a duty of their headmasters that they should as and when supervise those hostels also. The headmaster should keep a watch on the food of students, management of food preparation, arrangement of drinking water, the place of dining (Dining room), and cleanliness of utensils etc.

(iii) Office Record Supervision: It is necessary for the headmaster to inspect the working of the office and upkeep of office record.

- This is one of the important duties of a headmaster that he should evaluate his total arrangements form time to time. He has implemented, the policies, which have been formulated for running school.
- Establishment of Human Relations: The most essential condition of success of headmaster is this that he should establish appropriate human relations with his colleagues, subordinates, students and their guardians and the other members of the society.
- Guidance and Motivation
  - Guidance function of a headmaster is of recent origin. He is expected to provide educational and vocational guidance:
    (i) The students in the selection of the subjects at the secondary stage, leading to suitable vocations after the school leaving stage.
    (ii) The students in their day-to-day activities and instructional work.
    (3) The teacher in organising teaching and other activities, in making a deeper study of their subjects, and in solving specific problems of discipline, backwardness, teaching etc.
- Inter-Personal Conflicts
  - Many situations in the organization, particularly decision-making situations produce inter-personal conflict for educational managers, as the force choice among values; for example selecting and unqualified teacher form amongst several well-qualified ones for promotion or for award or doing some important prestigious job.
  - Teacher is the principal component of classroom management. He has to play the several roles as manager philosopher, guide and friend. He has the authority, responsibility, accountability and leadership in managing classroom activities. He has to employ an appropriate model of discipline, strategies and techniques of teaching. He has to maintain rapport with students and social relation with his colleagues and principal. Some of the important roles have been discussed here.
    (i) Role As Teacher: Teaching is a noble profession. Teacher is an ideal for his students as well as to society. He should look like a teacher and behave like a teacher.
    (ii) Role as Philosopher: The main job of a teacher is impart knowledge of his subject content. He must have the mastery of subject and latest development of his subject.
    (iii) Role as Guide: Teacher job is to help students in their personal and learning problems. He has to deal the students problem scientifically for providing the awareness of causes of the problem. The remedial teaching is arranged for weak students.
    (iv) Role as Leader: A teacher should have leadership quality. A teacher function as a leader of his class.
In the modern era, a teacher has enumerable responsibilities as our society becomes very complex. Teacher has to play the several roles in classroom management.

(i) Parenting, in which schools help families with their parenting skills by providing information on children’s developmental stages and offering advice on learning-friendly home environments.

(ii) Communicating, or working to educate families about their child’s progress and school services and providing opportunities for parents to communicate with the school;

(iii) Volunteering, which ranges from offering opportunities for parents to visit their child’s school to finding ways to recruit and train them to work in the school or classroom;

(iv) Learning at home, in which schools and educators share ideas to promote at-home learning through high expectations and strategies so parents can monitor and help with homework.

(v) Decision-making, in which school include families as partners in school organizations, advisory panels, and similar committees.

(vi) Community collaboration, a two-way outreach strategy in which community or business groups are involved in education and schools encourage family participation in the community.

15.7 Keywords

- **Stakeholder**: A person or company that is involved in a particular organization.
- **Participation**: The act of taking part in an activity or event.
- **Decision**: A choice or judgement that you make after thinking and talking about what is best thing to do.

15.8 Review Questions

1. What is educational stakeholder. Explain about different stakeholders.
2. What is role of headmaster in school management?
3. Explain the functions of teacher in a school
4. How do parents involve in school management.

**Answers : Self Assessment**

(i) School boards (ii) Valuable quality (iii) Finance Commission
(iv) Headmaster (v) General Supervision (vi) Remedial teaching

15.9 Further Readings

Unit 16: Promoting Need based Educational Programmes

CONTENTS
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Objectives
The objectives of this unit can be summarised as below:
• To explain about Need based Educational Programmes
• To describe about Promotion of Need based Educational Programmes.

Introduction
There are many deprived sections in our society. The education of these people plays a very wide role in the development of nation. These is need of education of such people education of different backward classes, woman’s education other deprived and poor persons is must in every aspect of national development.

16.1 Need based Educational Programmes
The educational programmes which are introduced for comparatively poor children, backward people other deprived sections and current social problems.
UGC has suggested different areas in which need based educational programmes is very important. Let us discuss in detail.
(1) development of vocational skills and professional competences among technical, marginal and professional, industrial and unemployed youth through inservice programmes
(2) arrangements for remedial and bridge courses and programmes for students from urban slums, rural areas, tribal areas, handicapped and other weaker sections
(3) conduct of pre-examination training and entry to professional and technical courses
(4) promotion of activities for general self-employment and self-reliance
(5) identification and organisation of needs-based instructional programmes for community development
(6) training and extension packages for functionaries of various social development programmes such as population education, legal literacy, science for the people, environmental education, rural development and peace education etc.
16.1.1 Education of the Scheduled Castes

Population of Scheduled Castes. In 2001, the population of Scheduled Castes was 179.7 million, which accounted for 17.5 per cent of the total population (projected on the basis of the trend of their decadal growth rates).

Almost half of the total population of SC is concentrated in the state of Bihar, Haryana, Madhya Pradesh, Punjab, Rajasthan and U.P.—popularly known as Hindi belt in the North.

In the South, SCs are concentrated mainly in Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu. In the East, they are in Bengal and in the West in Maharashtra.

16.1.2 Education of the Scheduled Tribes

Origin of the Term Scheduled Tribes (ST). As distinct from the so-called mainstream population, the British used this term with respect to groups living in forests and hills, etc. It was also used with the prefix like indigenous people, etc. The term Scheduled Tribes denoted that people belonging to these groups did not have much contact with the main culture.

Traditionally Considered Characteristics of the Tribal People
1. The tribal people live in the rather inaccessible parts of the country.
2. The tribal people live away from the civilised world.
3. They belong to these races—Australoid or Mongoloids or Negrito.
4. They speak tribal dialect.
5. They believe in ghosts and spirits and worship them.
6. They profess primitive religion known as ‘Animism’.
7. Their chief occupations are gathering forest products, hunting, etc.
8. They are, by and large, meat eaters.

Total Tribal Population
The population of tribal people in 2001 was estimated to have reached 88.8 million on the basis of the projected figures. This represented 8.6 per cent of country’s total population.

Population Profile of the Tribal People
1. The largest concentration of ST population is found in the north-eastern states: Mizoram (94.8 per cent); Nagaland (87.7 per cent); Meghalaya (85.5 per cent); and Arunachal Pradesh; (63.7 per cent).
2. Union Territories: Lakshadweep (93.2 per cent); Dadra and Nagar Haveli (79 per cent); Andaman and Nicobar Islands (5.5 per cent).
3. Madhya Pradesh (23.3 per cent); Orissa (22.2 per cent); Rajasthan (12.4 per cent); Maharashtra (9.3 per cent); Bihar (7.7 per cent); and Madhya Pradesh (6.3 per cent).
4. Almost nil in Haryana, Punjab, Chandigarh, Delhi and Pondicherry.

16.1.3 Meaning and Definition of Adult Education

According to Liveright and Haygood (1969), “Adult education is the process whereby persons who no longer (or did not) attend school on a regular and full time basis undertake sequential and organised activities within or conscious intention of bringing about changes in information, knowledge understanding or skills, appreciation and attitudes or for the purpose of identifying and solving personal or community problems.”

UNESCO in an *International Conference on the Development of Adult Education* (1976) explained the meaning of adult education as, “The term Adult education denotes the entire body of organised educational process, whatever content, level and method, whether formal or otherwise, whether they prolong or replace education in schools, colleges and universities as well as in apprenticeship, whereby persons regarded as adults by the society to which they belong develop their abilities, enrich their knowledge, improve their technical or professional qualifications and bring about changes in their attitudes or behaviour in the two-fold perspective of full personal development and participates in balanced and independent social, economic and cultural development. It is an integral part of life-long education and learning.”

A perusal of the above definition indicates that the definition and meaning of adult education is the same as that of education except that it relates to adults. It is a broad and comprehensive definition. According to Bryson, “Adult education includes all activities and educational purposes carried on in ordinary business of life by people who use only part of their energy to acquire intellectual development.”

“Adult education is education given on part-time basis and given, therefore, concurrently with work and the earning of a living.” Earnest Baker.

In the words of Morgan and Holmes, “Adult education may be thought as the conscious effort of mature persons to learn something new.”

Reense, Fenster and Houle state, “Adult education may be concerned with any or more of three aspects of an individual’s life, his work life, his personal life and his life as a citizen.”

S.N. Mukerjee defines adult education as to “include all instruction, formal and informal imparted to adults.”

‘*A Handbook of Adult Education Instructors*’ (1980) published by the Ministry stated the meaning of adult education as “Adult education is a package of educational programme for adults outside the formal educational system aiming at providing more information and both knowledge and skills for improving their life-style and also earning capacity.”

### 16.1.4 Importance of Women’s Education

Women plays a prominent role in the cultural, economic, political, religious and social life of a country. The ancient people of India fully realised this fact and accorded a reasonable status to women and encouraged their education. According to Vedas, women should have opportunity to attain knowledge of the Vedas from all four courses (Rig Veda 14.9.64). More than 400 verses in the Vedas are ascribed to 24 women seers. In the Vedas, women have been called ‘Updeshtri’ of knowledge and this indicates, women working as teachers (Rig Veda 1.3.11).

Swami Vivekananda has emphasised, “If you do not raise the women who are living embodiment of the divine mother, don’t think that you have any other way to rise.”

Gandhiji stated the importance of women education in these words, “I am strongly of the opinion that women should have the same facilities as men and even special facilities where necessary.”

Jawaharlal Nehru very rightly observed, “Education of a boy is the education of one person, but education of a girl is the education of entire family.”

In view of the importance of women education in national development, the University Education Commission 1948-49 remarked, “There can’t be an educated people without education of women. If general education had to be limited to men or to women, then opportunity should be given to women, from them it would more surely be passed to the next generation.”

Similarly, the Kothari Commission 1964-66, stated, “For full development of human resources, the improvement of human beings and for moulding the character of children during the most impressionable years of infancy, the education of women is of great importance than that of men.”
Slow but Encouraging Progress of Girls and Women Education

The above table clearly illustrates that girls and women have now increasingly pursuing higher and professional courses. The emerging courses that girls are now entering into are M.Com., BSc., BSc. (Hons.), BE, BSc, BArch., MBBS etc. This is an encouraging trend. It shows that parents, especially from urban areas and from relatively better socio-economic backgrounds, are sending their daughters to higher education/professional courses. Participation of women in non-traditional courses has gradually eroded the myth of gender bias and sex stereotyping in courses and professions. This phenomena also depicts why there is a gradual rise in the status of women. However, this change is by and large confined to urban areas and among the educated classes.

From the figures given above, it is quite clear that there has been phenomenal progress on women’s education since independence but still there is a wide gap between female education and male education.

Usually following causes of slow progress are mentioned:

(i) Lack of proper social attitudes in the rural and backward areas for the education of girls.
(ii) Lack of educational facilities in rural areas.
(iii) Economic backwardness of the rural community.
(iv) Conservative nature and co-educational aspects.
(v) Lack of suitable curriculum.
(vi) Lack of proper incentives to parents and children.
(vii) Lack of women teachers.
(viii) Lack of proper supervision and guidance due to inadequate women personnel in the Inspectorate.
(ix) Uneducated adult women and lack of social education.
(x) Social ills.
(xi) Inadequate systematic publicity.
(xii) Indifference of Panchayats.

Measures for the Promotion of Women’s Education

Following measures are suggested:

I. Creating Proper Social attitude in the Rural and Backward Areas for the Education of Girls:

Following measures may be taken:

(1) To study the problems relating to women’s education and to get detailed scientific data, a thorough research should be taken up by the Institutes of Education and allied institutions in different States and coordinated at the national level.

(2) Separate schools for girls at the middle and high school stages should be established where needed.

(3) School Mothers in co-education primary schools should be appointed.

(4) Creches and nursery classes wherever possible should be opened.

(5) Public opinion in favour of girls’ education should be created.

II. Providing Adequate Educational Facilities in Backward and Rural Areas:

The target should be to have at least one primary school within a radius of one kilometre from every home which is within the walking distance of a child. Following steps are needed:

(1) Hostel for girls at the middle and high school stages.
III. Removing Economic Backwardness of the Rural and Backward Areas: The girls are very useful at home for carrying out domestic duties and so mothers are reluctant to send them to school. A large number of children in the rural areas are under-nourished. They hardly have a square meal a day. Unless the parents are given some kind of economic relief, it will be impossible to achieve the targets.

Following measures should prove very useful:

1. Free uniforms and free books to the needy and deserving children should be provided.
2. Attendance scholarships which serve as a compensation to the parents should be given. This will also ensure reduction of wastage and stagnation.
3. Mid-day meals should be made available free of charge.

IV. Conservative Nature of Parents and Co-education: Parents in rural areas and backward communities tend not to send the girls to co-educational schools. Their apprehensions have to be removed with a thought-out plan of educating them in this regard (see next part).

V. Provision of Suitable Curriculum: Curriculum, by and large, has not met the requirements of women.

Following suggestions Committee (1962) deserve careful consideration:

1. No differentiation should be made in the curricula for boys and girls at the primary and middle stages of education.
2. Steps should be taken to improve the instruction of home economics.
3. Steps should be taken to improve the teaching of music and fine arts and liberal financial assistance should also be made available to girls’ schools for the introduction of these courses.
4. Universities should review periodically the provision they have made for the courses designed to meet the special needs of girls and take necessary action to remove the deficiencies discovered.

VI. Proper Incentives to Parents and Girls: The following measures have been suggested:

1. The number of attendance scholarships should be doubled in the Ninth Plan.
2. The allowance of the School Mothers should be enhanced so that qualified women may be attracted to take up the work.
3. The number of maintenance stipends should be doubled in the Ninth Plan and the rate of such stipends should be adequately increased in view of the rising prices all over the country.
4. The number of sanitary blocks in co-educational primary schools be adequately increased during the Ninth Plan.
5. Larger allocation of funds should be made in the budget for construction of hostels for girls during the Ninth Plan.

16.2 Promotion of Need based Educational Programmes

Government has made many constitutional provisions and promoting methods which are beneficial give need based education to social weaker sections.
Need for Promotion of Education of the Weaker Sections’ Children

The Education Commission 1964-66, in Chapter VI entitled ‘Equalisation of Educational Opportunity and Social Change’ very aptly observed, “One of the important social objectives of education is to equalise opportunity, enabling the backward or under-privileged classes and individuals to use education as a lever for the improvement of their conditions. Every society that values social justice and is anxious to improve the lot of the common man and cultivate all available talent must ensure progressive equality of opportunity to all sections of the population. This is the only guarantee for the building up of an egalitarian and humane society in which the exploitation of the weak is minimised.” The Commission further stated, “The education of the backward classes in general and the tribal people in particular is a major programme of equalisation and of social and national integration. No expenditure is too great for this purpose.” Alas! We have not paid heed to these words of wisdom. Non-implementation of this vital recommendation has led to disintegrative tendencies, hatred and strife.


16.2.1 Constitutional Provisions regarding Deprived Socially Disadvantaged Sections of Society

Article 15 : Prohibition of Discrimination on grounds of religion, race, caste, sex or place of births sub-section (4) states, “Nothing in this Article or in clause (2) of Article 29 shall prevent the State from making any special provision for the advancement of any socially and educationally backward classes or for the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes.”

Article 46 : It reads, “the State shall provide with special care the educational and economic interests of the weaker sections of the people, and in particular, of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and shall protect them from social injustice and all forms of exploitation.”

Article 338 : It makes provision for the appointment of a Special Officer for SCs and STs.

Article 390 : It envisions the appointment of a Commission to investigate the conditions of the Backward classes.

16.2.2 The Measures Contemplated for Education of SCs Include :

(i) Incentives to indigent families to send their children to school regularly till they reach the age of 14;

(ii) Pre-matric Scholarship scheme for children of families engaged in occupations such as scavenging, flaying and tinning to be made applicable from Class I onwards. All children of such families, regardless of incomes, will be covered by this scheme and time-bound programmes targeted on them will be undertaken;

(iii) Constant micro-planning and verification to ensure that the enrolment, retention and successful completion of courses by SC students do not fail at any stage, and provision of remedial courses to improve their prospects for further education and in employment;

(iv) The recruitment of teachers from Scheduled Castes;

(v) Provision of facilities for SC students in hostels at district headquarters, according to a phased programme;

(vi) Location of school buildings, Balwadis and Adult Education Centres in such a way as to facilitate full participation of the Scheduled Castes; backward sections of society, particularly in the rural areas. Hill and desert districts, remote and inaccessible areas and islands will be provided adequate institutional infrastructure.
16.2.3 Promotion of Education among the STs in Accordance with the Provisions of the NPE and Programme of Action (1986 and 1992)

The following measures are being taken urgently to bring the Scheduled Tribes at par with others:

(i) Priority is accorded to opening primary schools in tribal areas. The construction of school buildings will be undertaken in these areas on a priority basis under the normal funds for education, as well as under the Jawahar Rozgar Yojna, Tribal Welfare Schemes, etc.

(ii) The socio-cultural milieu of the ST has its distinctive characteristics including, in many cases, their own spoken languages. This underlines the need to develop the curricula and devise institutional materials in tribal languages at the initial stages, with arrangements for switching over to the regional languages.

(iii) Educated and promising Scheduled Tribe youths are encouraged and trained to take up teaching in tribal areas.

(iv) Residential schools, including Ashram Schools have been established on a large scale.

(v) Incentive schemes have been formulated for the Scheduled Tribes, keeping in view their special needs and life styles. Scholarships for higher education will emphasis technical, professional and para-professional courses. Special remedial courses and other programmes to remove psycho-social impediments are provided to improve their performance in various courses.

(vi) Anganwadis, Non-formal and Adult Education Centres are being opened on a priority basis in areas predominantly inhabited by the Scheduled Tribes.

(vii) The curriculum at all states of education has been gradually designed to create an awareness of the rich cultural identity of the tribal people as also of their enormous creative talent.

16.2.4 Other Backward Classes (OBCs) and their Education

Constitutional Provisions

1. Article 15(4) of the Constitution: It enjoins upon the state the creation of special provisions for the advancement of any socially and educationally backward classes of citizens or for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.

2. Article 16(4): It enables the State for making provisions for the reservation of appointments or posts in favour of any backward class of citizens which in the opinion of the state is not adequately represented in the services under the state.

3. Article 38: It makes it obligatory for the State to “strive to promote the welfare of the people by securing and protecting as effectively as it may a social order, in which Justice; Social, Economic and Political shall inform all the institutions of the National Life”.

4. Article 46: It contains a very significant directive regarding promotion of educational and economic interests of other weaker sections and protecting them from social injustice and all forms of exploitation.

5. Part XVI of the Constitution: It contains “special provisions relating to certain classes” and under this part, Article 340 envisages the appointment of a Commission to investigate the conditions of Backward Classes.

With a view to consider measures for the improvement of the conditions of the Other Backward Classes, the Government of India appointed the Mandal Commission in 1978. As far as promotion of education among these sections is concerned, following special measures are being taken:

1. Special schemes for the OBCs after their educational training.

2. Reservation of seats for OBC students in all scientific, technical and professional institutions run by the Centre as well as the State Governments.
Need for and Objectives of Adult Education

Some of the important factors which call for the promotion of adult education are given here.

1. **Development and enrichment of an individual**: Through adult education, deficiencies in earlier formal education must be made good.

2. **Participation in social life**: Adult education should enable every adult to be able to equip himself or herself to play as full part as he or she wishes to take in social and civic life.

3. **Strengthening national integration**: It can also be a means of creating better understanding.

4. **Development of worthy leisure time activities**: Adult education is needed to enable every adult to have the opportunity of discovering how he or she can most satisfactorily and recreatively use his or her leisure.

5. **Preservation and promotion of culture**: Adult education is needed for the preservation and promotion of culture.

6. **Mutual tolerance**: Adult education is needed to promote international understanding, mutual sympathy and tolerance of different points of view and to put every adult in the way of arriving at the truth.

7. **Adult education and vocational efficiency**: Adult education should enable everyone to study his or her role as a parent and member of a community; as a wage earner and as a responsible citizen. It must also give opportunities for vocational employment.

8. **Adult literacy and economic growth**: Adult literacy, an essential element in overall development, must be closely linked to economic and social priorities and to present and future manpower needs.

9. **Awakening in the people of an appreciation of Five-Year Plans**: One of the essential functions of adult education is to awaken in the people an appreciation of the significance of the country’s Five-Year Plans and to enthuse them for participation in it.

10. **Adult education for a changing world**: The development of the modern world, the accession to independence of a large number of countries, the need for the real emancipation of people and for the increasingly active and productive participation in the economic, social and political life of human society, of the hundreds of millions of illiterate adults still existing in the world, make it essential to change national education policies.

11. **Knowledge of the basic skills**: It is an important and traditional function of adult education to bring knowledge to the people especially the knowledge which concerns them deeply, e.g., knowledge of the basic essentials of a healthy life, civic education, etc. As a large part of the Indian population is illiterate, literacy has become one of the most important programmes of social education and is an index of its progress.

12. **Improvement in the quality of leadership and followership**: Men everywhere function in group and a distinctive group is a cluster of people around a leader. The quality of a group is therefore largely a product of its leadership and if the Indian people have to justify their aspirations, this can be done only by improving the quality of leadership in the villages and towns of India. This is a responsibility which adult education alone can shoulder.

13. **Benefits of new knowledge**: Since India has resolved to recover her place in technology in response to the demands of modern times, it is the function of adult education to serve as a smooth and effective channel between centres of research and the homes and hamlets in which the common people live. It aims to bring down to the people the benefits of new knowledge that is being continually created in laboratories and also the knowledge that is already there, but is not available to them.

14. **Achievement of the objectives of Universal Elementary Education (UEE)**: An educated adult is quite sensitive to the importance of promoting UEE of the children under his care and charge.
Notes

15. Accelerating National Development: The last but not the least significant objective of adult education is to accelerate national development.

The Adult Education Policy Statement (1978) very rightly observed, "Exclusion of a vast majority of the people from the process of education is the most disturbing aspect of educational and social planning. This has been uppermost in the consideration of the Government. While determined effort must be made to universalise elementary education up to the age of 14 years, educational facilities must be extended to adult population to remedy their educational deprivation and to enable them to develop their potentiality. Indeed, universalisation of elementary education and of adult literacy are mutually interdependent.

6.2.5 Major Efforts Made in India for the Promotion of Adult Education

1. Issue of Adult Policy Statement (1978)
2. National Adult Education Programme (1978)
4. Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan — SSA (Education for All)
5. Grant to Non-Governmental Organisations (NGO’s)

Issue of Adult Policy Statement (1978)

The policy statement outlined the philosophy of adult education as the assumptions (a) that illiteracy is a serious impediment to and individual’s growth and to the country’s socio-economic progress; (b) that education is not co-terminus with schooling but takes place in most work and life situations; (c) that learning, working and living are inseparable and each acquires a meaning only when correlated with the others; (d) that the means by which people are involved in the process of development are at least as important as the ends; and (e) that the illiterate and the poor can rise to their own liberation through literacy, dialogue and action."

National Adult Education Programme

NAEP was launched on October 2, 1978. It was proposed to cover the entire population in the age group 15-35 by the end of 1983-1984.

Component of the NLM

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Components of the NLM

1. Literacy: Making literate 80 million

2. Functional Literacy: The Mission has prescribed certain levels in the three Rs. to be achieved by the target groups

   Reading Norms: As far as reading is concerned, a person, to be declared a literate, must be able to read aloud a simple passage at a speed of 30 words per minute. While reading silently small paragraph in simple language, a speed of 35 words per minute should be achieved.

   The neo-literates must also be able to read and understand road signs, posters, simple instructions and newspapers specially produced for them. Ability to follow simple written messages relating to one’s working and living environment is another requisite attribute.

   Writing Norms: In respect of writing, the Mission has laid down that a neo-literature should be able to ‘copy with understanding at a speed of seven words per minute.’ He should be able
to take dictation at five words per minute. He should be able to write with proper spacing alignment. He should also be able to write independently short letters, application and terms of day-to-day use.

**Arithmetic Norms** : Proficiency in numerals has also been laid down. The new learner must be able to read and write 1 to 100. He should also be able to do simple calculations without fraction involving addition, subtraction up to three digits and multiplication and visions by two digits.’

The Mission also expects the neo-literates to have a working knowledge of metric units of weights, measures, currency, distance and area, and units of time. They should also have a broad idea of proportion and interest (without involving fractions) and their use in working and living conditions.

3. **Awareness** : Enabling the adults to be aware of the causes of their deprivation and moving towards amelioration of their condition through organisation, and participation in the process of development;

4. **Development and Improvement** : Acquiring skills to improve the economic status and general well-being; Imbibing the values of national integration, conservation of the environment, women’s equality, observance of small family norm, etc.

| Task | What is National Adult Educational Programme? |

**Integrated Approach to Literacy**

Under the revised NLM scheme, an integrated approach to literacy is being followed since April 2000. The new approach envisages the integration of the activities of basic teaching-learning with post-literacy activities to ensure a smooth transition from TLC to Post-Literacy Programmes (PLP).

**Jan Shikshan Sansthan**

The Jan Shikshan Sansthan scheme, which started in 1988, is meant to promote educational, vocational and occupational development to literates; neo-literates, semi-literates and un-lettered persons. These act as Resource Support Agencies especially in regard to organising vocational training and skill development programmes. During the Ninth Plan, the scheme has been strengthened with enhanced funding and a wider scope and area of operation. The focus of the scheme is now shifting from industrial workers in urban areas to the socio-economically backward and educationally disadvantaged groups in urban and rural areas, such as neo-literates, semi-literates, SCs/STs, women and girls, slum dwellers, migrant workers, etc. A total of 108, Jan Shikshan Sansthans have been set up in the country, of which 50 were set up in the Ninth Plan period.

I. **Provision for Providing Adequate Number of Women Teachers** : Following steps are suggested:

1. A large number of training institutions have to be provided for women, especially in the backward states. These institutions should generally be located in rural areas and they should generally recruit their trainees from that area.

2. Condensed course centres should be started in these backward areas to open up avenues to adult unqualified women for employment as teachers. Wherever possible such centres should be attached to the training institutions.

3. A large number of quarters for women teachers should be provided, particularly in rural areas. Our target should be to provide at least 50 per cent of the women teachers with quarters in primary schools.

4. All women teachers employed in rural areas should be given adequate rural allowance.
Notes

(5) Special stipends should be given to girls in high and higher secondary schools with aptitude for teaching.

(6) Whenever possible husbands and wives should be posted in the same place even if they work in different departments of the Government.

(7) Free training should be imparted with stipends to all candidates of training institutions.

(8) In-service education training should be given to untrained women teachers who have put in at least two years of service. The period of training of education should be treated as on duty.

II. Proper Supervision and Guidance: For providing proper guidance and supervision, following steps should be taken:

(a) Increase in the number of women inspecting officers, particularly in the backward states, at different levels including State level and Directorate level.

(b) Provision of adequate transport for all district women inspecting officers.

(c) Adequate office staff and equipments.

(d) Residential facilities to all women officers at all levels.

(e) Adequate funds at the disposal of the State Council for closer contact with rural areas.

III. Facilities for Education of Adult Women: Girls education and education of adult women suffers on account of lack of social education. This problem can be tackled in the following ways:

(1) By opening adult literacy classes in large number.

(2) By teaching simple skills like sewing, knitting, handicrafts etc., and knowledge of basic principles of health and food habits.

(3) New attitudes towards community living, family planning, superstitions, caste, etc.

This programme can be tackled effectively with the help of the Education Department in cooperation with other departments concerned like the Community Development, Health and Social Welfare.

IV. Eradicating Social Ills: The Purdah System (in some States such as in Orissa, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar and Rajasthan) and certain other harmful social customs in these States and in others stand in the way of the development of girls’ education. In some places caste barriers also contribute to this. Social reformers and other voluntary organisations may be motivated to take up this work.

V. Wide Systematic Publicity: For educating the parents to take interest in the education of girls, press and electronic media may be used extensively.

VI. Awards to Panchayats: Panchayats should be given some motivation to take up work in this area.

Concluding Remarks: The role of women outside the home has become an important feature of the social and economic life of the country and in the years to come this will become still more significant. From this point of view greater attention will have to be paid to the problems of training and development of women. The education of girls, therefore, should be emphasised not only on grounds of social justice, but also because it accelerates economic and social transformation.

Education for Women’s Equality

Education will be used as an agent of basic change in the status of woman. In order to neutralise the accumulated distortions of the past, there will be a well conceived edge in favour of women. The National Education system will play a positive, interventionist role in the empowerment of women. It will foster the development of new values through redesigned, curricula, textbooks, the training
and orientation of teachers, decision-makers and administrators, and the active involvement of educational institutions. This will be an act of faith and social engineering. Women’s studies will be promoted as a part of various courses and educational institutions encouraged to take up active programmes to further women’s development.

The removal of women’s illiteracy and obstacles inhibiting their access to, and retention in, elementary education will receive overriding priority, through provision of special support services, setting of time targets, and effective monitoring. Major emphasis will be laid on women’s participation in vocational, technical and professional education at different levels. The policy of non-discrimination will be pursued vigorously to eliminate sex stereotyping in vocational and professional courses and to promote women’s participation in non-traditional occupations, as well as in existing and emergent technologies.

16.2.6 Popularising Education among the Weaker Sections

It is observed that well-planned, sustained and vigorous efforts as stated below would go a long way in promoting education among the weaker sections.

1. **Introduction of tribal dialects and medium of instruction**: In tribal areas, having a large population where people do not understand the regional language, tribal dialects may be introduced as the medium of instruction wherever possible in the initial stages and then they should be integrated with the general educational system and may be taught regional languages. But in the tribal areas where the children understand the regional language, it can be used as medium of instruction. Such practice will reduce the rate of wastage and stagnation and also create interest among the children.

2. **Suitable curriculum for the schools**: There is a need for evolving a suitable curriculum for the schools functioning in tribal areas. This curriculum may be science-oriented but culture-based. The curriculum should be so framed that this should include the various aspects of tribal life and culture.

3. **Training of teachers**: Such teachers working in the tribal areas who do not possess enough knowledge about the tribal life and culture may be given training in these aspects. The teachers posted in tribal areas should also acquire knowledge of tribal dialects.

4. **Provision of suitable school accommodation**: All the schools functioning in tribal areas should be provided with suitable accommodation.

5. **Provision of hostels and extension of Ashram schools**: Whenever possible, the schools functioning in tribal areas may be provided with hostels which will solve many problems. Extension of Ashram schools, use of youth dormitories may also solve some of the problems.

6. **Encouragement of participation of tribal parents**: Participation of tribal parents in the educational programmes may also be encouraged. The awareness and interest regarding the utility of education for the children should be created among the parents.

7. **Flexibility in schools hours**: In the tribal areas, the school hours and the duration will have to be adjusted according to the needs of the community. Children in these areas are by nature, playful and not work-oriented. They cannot sit for long hours in the classrooms. In some cases, therefore, schools might have to be opened in the morning and evening hours with a break in between.

8. **Medium of instruction**: To sustain the interest of the little children, it is necessary that at least up to class-III the mother-tongue of the children should be used as the medium of instruction. It will help to reduce the drop-out and stagnation of children in the lower class. There is also a need to develop special reading materials for these children.

9. **Economic incentives to parents**: Since the tribal people are economically backward and the children have to take part in different activities of the economic pursuits, the parents do not care for the education of their children because this sustains economic loss. Thus some economic incentive may be given to students, but not to parents to prosecute their studies.
10. **Special training for talented tribal students**: A scheme to help the talented tribal students may be started. They may be given different types of training and they may be asked to work in tribal areas.

11. **Provision of audio-visual aids**: Provision of audio-visual aids for the development of education of tribal children is essential and may be made available as soon as possible.

12. **Improvement of teacher-community relationships**: Steps to improve the Ashram School education may be taken. The teacher-community relationship may be improved. The cleanliness of the buildings, discipline in the Ashram Schools may be improved and adequate freedom to students for participating in various games may be given. Some courses to train these teachers may be organised.

13. **Relaxation in prescribed norms**: Where needed, prescribed norms for the opening of educational institutions catering to the needs of the backward sections, may be relaxed.

14. **Opening of non-formal centres**: One of the solutions for the problems of education of tribals and nomads would be to open non-formal education centres. These centres would cater to the needs of both parents, dropped out and unenrolled children, mothers, and other adult women folk of the community. The educational programmes will have to be integrated with the development and social welfare activities of the community. It would include both health, sanitation, agriculture, work-experience and community developmental programmes. It is through this package programme of the non-formal education centres that tribal and normal children could be brought and retrained in large numbers in the folds of education.

15. **Intensive programme of adult education/social education**: In backward areas and among backward sections, intensive adult education and social education programmes may be undertaken for educating the parents.

16. **Relaxation or prescribed pupil-teacher ratio**: Wherever necessary, the prescribed teacher-pupil ratio may be relaxed while sanctioning staff in schools located in backward areas.

17. **Guidance facilities**: A special drive may be launched for acquainting the people with all types of facilities available for weaker sections.

18. **Incentives for students**: Students of weaker sections should be provided with various incentives like tuition free education, free books, free stationery, free uniform and free mid-day meals.

19. **Scholarships**: A special scheme for providing liberal scholarships to students belonging to backward sections should be operated.

20. **Study camps**: During summer, winter and other holidays study camps for students may be organised. Services of teachers from well-established schools may be utilised for the improvement of standards.

21. **New initiatives for universalisation of elementary education**: Preference may be accorded while launching new initiatives to the backward areas/backward sections of the society. In fact, it would be highly desirable where possible to limit these initiatives to such areas.

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**Did you know?** This particular retrovirus has the ability to damage the immune system of the human beings. Firstly it infects significant organs of the immune system of the human beings. These organs like Dendritic cells, CD4+ T cells, and macrophages are affected by the HIV. HIV also affects CD4+ T cells. CD4+ T cells which contributes a lot to the working of the immune system.
Sex Education

Children must be taught about sex so that they have the right attitude towards it when they are growing up. It is therefore better they learn about sexual relationships from their parents rather than from their peers. It is for the parents to decide just how much the child should know so that he/she is not misled by rumours and myths and convoluted ideas which are so prevalent among the youth today. One cannot prevent wrong ideas or information being imparted to the child by outside influences. Keeping in mind that the child’s psyche is so vulnerable, it is important for the parents to know when and how to begin talking to the child on this rather delicate subject.

1. Take into consideration your child’s age. Your approach to a younger child should be very different from that towards a teen.

2. Begin very naturally as you would when talking of any other subject.

3. Keep it short and simple - no long lectures or dissertations please! Remember that a child’s attention span is very thin and it would be more natural to adopt a question answer format after a short introduction.

4. Swear words related to sex have become common and children mouth them without understanding the meaning. It is up to parents to gently explain why such words ought not to be used. Any forceful handling might have adverse effect making the child use the word more.

5. Child abuse and sexual violence against children have become fairly common news items these days. Children should be made aware of this and taught to say ‘no’ when necessary. They must be made aware that some adults can be dangerous and not agree to going with them alone.

6. Teach your children about puberty and all that it involves much before they attain maturity. These days it is quite common for very young kids to attain puberty even when they are not yet 10 years of age. They must be taught that though they may be very young, their bodies have attained a certain maturity that exposes them to dangerous, prowling adults.

7. Homosexuality, prostitution, sexually transmitted diseases like AIDS should all be discussed in a phased manner. Remember that your kids are exposed to television or the internet that leaves nothing to the imagination! The child’s curiosity is already aroused and is ready with a hundred questions that he/she is ready to ask.

8. Never avoid answering your children’s questions on these topics and don’t dismiss them by saying “You are too young for all this!” It is but natural that they will begin to look for answers elsewhere and not all may be truthful!

9. Always admit if you don’t know the answer to some question. Say that you will find out and give them the information. Also always make sure that whatever you have said has been properly understood.

Notes

Continuing Education for school dropouts would facilitate their entry into the national development mainstream. The problem can be tackled by organising job oriented bridge and remedial courses and well planned career counselling efforts.

Operational Strategy

The following eightfold operational strategy is adopted:

1. Programme for Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes and Backward Classes: At university level they need pre-examination coaching for various competitive examinations. The Ministry of Social Welfare is operating a number of schemes for the welfare of these sections of society.
Notes

2. **Continuing Education for Women**: It is for the benefit of women to cover a wide spectrum such as home science courses, nutrition, health and hygiene and child welfare, economic development and courses in contemporary social cultural awareness.

3. **Workers Education**: In this, workers may be of two categories: (i) Illiterate and semi-literate workers, including unskilled and semi-skilled workers like masons, carpenters, barbers, bus and taxi drivers, transport workers, paramedical staff, class-iv employees etc. (ii) Literate workers, including teachers of all categories, ministerial staff in offices, officers of all categories, and skilled technicians and administrators. They need regular staff development courses to enhance their skill and efficiency in their day to day work.

4. **Continuing Education for School Dropouts and Unemployed Youth**:

5. **Programme for Slum Dwellers and Migrant Workers**: The migrant workers and slum dwellers constitute the bulk of the weaker section of the society. These sections live in miserable conditions. To this section, besides basic literacy and numeracy, awareness regarding health and hygiene, labour laws, the environment, economic opportunities, social development benefits, etc. will be extremely critical.

6. **Social Development Education for all Citizens**: The complexity of modern urban life requires of each individual a large number of roles and skills as parents, members of a neighbourhood, residents of a city, citizens of a nation and the world, and above all as integral parts of the ecological system. Programmes for children’s education, area development, environmental education, legal literacy, national integration and global brotherhood, etc., may be organised.

For this purpose the following areas are adopted in the Ninth Plan:

1. training of personnel in each university and its colleges in the methodology of continuing education programmes with a view to their acquiring knowledge and skills.
2. preparation of a handbook on Continuing Education
3. development of a course bank stating titles of courses, courses, course content, management strategy, instructional methodology and feedback mechanisms
4. setting up of a monitoring mechanism to monitor the growth of continuing education as related to area development and national development needs
5. developing learning materials (print and audio-visual)
6. Institution of teachers’ fellowships to enable teachers to devote their time to the development and management of continuing education programmes
7. encouragement to research in the area of Continuing Education
8. setting up of institution based and community based evaluation studies in this area
9. development of a series of films

**Self Assessment**

1. **Fill in the blanks**:

   (i) The educational programmes introduced for weaker and deprived sections are called ______ educational programmes.

   (ii) ______ gives the special provision for the scheduled castes and scheduled Tribes.

   (iii) ______ is the provision of learning situation to enable nature men and women to enlarge and interpret their own experience.

   (iv) Parents in rural areas and backward communities tend not to send the girls to ______.
(vi) Problems of Girls education and education of adult women can be tackled by _____ classes in large number.

(vi) In the _____, the school hours and the duration will have to be adjusted according to needs of community.

(vii) The HIV virus infects significant organs of the _____.

16.3 Summary

• UGC has suggested different areas in which need based educational programmes is very important. Let us discuss in detail.
  (i) development of vocational skills and professional competences among technical, marginal and professional, industrial and unemployed youth through inservice programmes
  (ii) arrangements for remedial and bridge courses and programmes for students from urban slums, rural areas, tribal areas, handicapped and other weaker sections
  (iii) conduct of pre-examination training and entry to professional and technical courses
  (iv) promotion of activities for general self-employment and self-reliance
  (v) identification and organisation of needs-based instructional programmes for community development
  (vi) training and extension packages for functionaries of various social development programmes such as population education, legal literacy, science for the people, environmental education, rural development and peace education etc.

• Population of Scheduled Castes. In 2001, the population of Scheduled Castes was 179.7 million, which accounted for 17.5 per cent of the total population (projected on the basis of the trend of their decadal growth rates).

• Origin of the Term Scheduled Tribes (ST). As distinct from the so-called mainstream population, the British used this term with respect to groups living in forests and hills, etc. It was also used with the prefix like indigenous people, etc.

• According to Liveright and Haygood (1969), ”Adult education is the process whereby persons who no longer (or did not) attend school on a regular and full time basis undertake sequential and organised activities within or conscious intention of bringing about changes in information, knowledge understanding or skills, appreciation and attitudes or for the purpose of identifying and solving personal or community problems.”

• Importance of Women’s Education

• Women plays a prominent role in the cultural, economic, political, religious and social life of a country. The ancient people of India fully realised this fact and accorded a reasonable status to women and encouraged their education.

• Usually following causes of slow progress are mentioned :
  (i) Lack of proper social attitudes in the rural and backward areas for the education of girls.
  (ii) Lack of educational facilities in rural areas.
  (iii) Economic backwardness of the rural community.
  (iv) Conservative nature and co-educational aspects.
  (v) Lack of suitable curriculum.
  (vi) Lack of proper incentives to parents and children.
  (vii) Lack of women teachers.
  (viii) Lack of proper supervision and guidance due to inadequate women personnel in the Inspectorate.
Notes

(x) Uneducated adult women and lack of social education.

(x) Social ills.

• Removing Economic Backwardness of the Rural and Backward Areas: The girls are very useful at home for carrying out domestic duties and so mothers are reluctant to send them to school. A large number of children in the rural areas are under-nourished. They hardly have a square meal a day.

• Conservative Nature of Parents and Co-education: Parents in rural areas and backward communities tend not to send the girls to co-educational schools. Their apprehensions have to be removed with a thought-out plan of educating them in this regard (see next part).

• Provision of Suitable Curriculum: Curriculum, by and large, has not met the requirements of women.

• Following suggestions Committee (1962) deserve careful consideration:

(i) No differentiation should be made in the curricula for boys and girls at the primary and middle stages of education.

(ii) Steps should be taken to improve the instruction of home economics.

(iii) Steps should be taken to improve the teaching of music and fine arts and liberal financial assistance should also be made available to girls’ schools for the introduction of these courses.

• Issue of Adult Policy Statement (1978)

• The policy statement outlined the philosophy of adult education as the assumptions (a) that illiteracy is a serious impediment to and individual’s growth and to the country’s socio-economic progress; (b) that education is not co-terminus with schooling but takes place in most work and life situations;

• Writing Norms: In respect of writing, the Mission has laid down that a neo-literature should be able to ‘copy with understanding at a speed of seven words per minute.’ He should be able to take dictation at five words per minute. He should be able to write with proper spacing alignment.

• Arithmetic Norms: Proficiency in numerals has also been laid down. The new learner must be able to read and write 1 to 100. He should also be able to do simple calculations without fraction involving addition, subtraction up to three digits and multiplication and visions by two digits.’

• Awareness: Enabling the adults to be aware of the causes of their deprivation and moving towards amelioration of their condition through organisation, and participation in the process of development;

• Development and Improvement: Acquiring skills to improve the economic status and general well-being; Imbibing the values of national integration, conservation of the environment, women’s equality, observance of small family norm, etc.

• Under the revised NLM scheme, an integrated approach to literacy is being followed since April 2000. The new approach envisages the integration of the activities of basic teaching-learning with post-literacy activities to ensure a smooth transition from TLC to Post-Literacy Programmes (PLP).

• The Jan Shikshan Sansthan scheme, which started in 1988, is meant to promote educational, vocational and occupational development to literates; neo-literates, semi-literates and un-lettered persons.

• A large number of training institutions have to be provided for women, especially in the backward states. These institutions should generally be located in rural areas and they should generally recruit their trainees from that area.
• Condensed course centres should be started in these backward areas to open up avenues to adult unqualified women for employment as teachers.

• A large number of quarters for women teachers should be provided, particularly in rural areas.

• Special stipends should be given to girls in high and higher secondary schools with aptitude for teaching.

Education will be used as an agent of basic change in the status of woman. In order to neutralise the accumulated distortions of the past, there will be a well conceived edge in favour of women. The National Education system will play a positive, interventionist role in the empowerment of women.

• The Indian Education system is comprised of six stages: nursery, primary, secondary, higher secondary, graduation and post-graduation. Schooling prior to university lasts 12 years. Some students go into a different stream after secondary school for 3 years of technical education-referred to as Polytechnics. Education is heavily subsidized by the Indian government, though there is a move to make higher education partially self-financing.

• The rate of literacy in tribal areas of Eastern India is around 30 percent and among the tribal women in remote areas, only about two percent are literate. This in itself is a violation of basic human rights. It also leads to exploitation and resource alienation.

• Children don’t go to school for many reasons, including the absence of adequate infrastructure and parents needing them to bring in a daily wage.

• The University Grants Commission (UGC) has played a key role in shaping the character of University Adult Education in India since the launching of the National Adult Education Programme in 1978.

• University Education in India is identified with the preparation of people for professional work. Today it needs to be examined whether the initial training and preparation of young people for occupations of professional level is all that universities need to do. In an ever changing society which grows complex and mysterious at every turn of the year, professionals need guidance and illumination almost throughout their careers.

• The scientific and technological growth in India and the nation, and the resolve to upgrade levels of living in our rural areas have necessitated the acceptance and operationalisation of a culture of lifelong education. Individuals and groups need to be continuously galvanised into developmental action through a process of periodic updating of their knowledge and skills, a better understanding of their work environment.

• AIDS has engulfed and killed a considerable number of people in this world. Many people are bearer of HIV positive and living with the severe disease of AIDS. The blood of the people suffering from the disease of AIDS contains HIV (Human Immunodeficiency virus).

• Children must be taught about sex so that they have the right attitude towards it when they are growing up. It is therefore better they learn about sexual relationships from their parents rather than from their peers. It is for the parents to decide just how much the child should know so that he/she is not misled by rumours and myths and convoluted ideas which are so prevalent among the youth today.

### 16.4 Keywords

- **Educational** : A process of teaching, training and learning especially in schools or collages.
- **Need** : To require something.
- **Attitude** : The way that you think and feel about something.
- **Disease** : An illness affecting humans, animals, or plants.
16.5 Review Questions

1. Explain about the education of weaker sections
2. What is the meaning of Adult Education?
3. What are the efforts made in India for the promotion of adult education?
4. Explain the women’s education and efforts made for educating them by Government.

Answers: Self Assessment

1. (i) Need based  (ii) Article 15 (4)
   (iii) Adult education  (iv) Co-educational Schools
   (v) adult literacy  (vi) Tribal areas
   (vii) Immune system

16.6 Further Readings

Unit 17: Educational Supervision: Meaning, Nature and Types

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Objectives
The objectives of this unit can be summarised as below:

• To explain about the Meaning of Supervision
• To discuss about the Need of Supervision
• To describe about the Nature of Supervision
• To discuss about the Scope of Supervision
• To describe about the Types of Supervision
• To explain about the Functions of Supervision

Introduction
Supervision of any school ordinarily refers to the improvement of the total teaching-learning situation and the conditions that affect them. It is a socialized functions designed to improve instruction by working with the people who are working with the students/pupils.

Supervision can also be defined in terms of function and purposes for which it shall be used as (a) skills in leadership, (b) skills in human relation, (c) skill in group process, (d) skill in personnel administration and (e) skill in evaluation.

17.1 Meaning of Supervision
Supervision has several meanings. People interpret its meaning according to their “past experiences, their needs and purposes” Supervision, for a supervisor, is a “positive force for programme improvement, for a teacher it is either a threat to his individuality or an assistance and support to
his profession.” Teacher’s feelings about supervision differ because of various ways in which supervisors have interpreted their role.

Commonly the term supervision means “to superintend, or to guide and to stimulate the activities of others with a view to their improvement.” In education, supervision carries the same general concept, but is usually applied to the activities of teaching—the supervision of instruction.

Instruction implies that “there are persons to be educated, teachers to carry on education and there are materials and methods by which education may be accomplished.” Since society maintains schools in order that youth may be educated for participation in the society, the educational organisation organizes supervision to maintain, change and improve the provision and actualisation of learning opportunities for students.

Definition of Supervision

Supervision of instruction may be defined as, “the effort to stimulate, coordinate and guide the continued growth of the teachers in school, both individually and collectively.” According to Barton and Burckner, “Supervision is an expert technical service primarily aimed at studying and improving cooperatively all factors which affect the child’s growth and development.”

It the words of Dicky, “Supervision is a planned programme for improvement of instruction.” Wiles defines modern supervision as “assistance in the development of a better teaching-learning situation.”

In the words of Moorar, “Supervision is directly concerned with studying and improving the conditions which surround the learning and growth of pupils and teachers.”

“Supervision,” according to Barr and Burton “is the foundation on which all programmes for improvement of teaching must be built.”

Asams and Dicky define educational supervision as, “The function of educational supervision is the improvement of instruction.”

In the words of Flyer, “At its best supervision is the most noble and dynamic of all endeavours.”

Thus the term supervision has been defined by different educationists in different ways. But all agree that the improvement of instruction is a cooperative process in which all the teachers participate and the supervisor is an educational leader who acts as a stimulator, guide and consultant to the teachers in their effort to improve instruction.

17.2 Need of Supervision

The following are the needs of supervision:

(1) For providing expert technical assistance: Education is a complex and difficult activity because it deals with living persons. It is carried on through minute divisions of a variety of curricula by a large number of teachers of different abilities. In recent times, education has largely expended. All these require expert assistance in supervision.

(2) For the growth of teachers: In spite of better professional training, teachers still need continuous and improved training on the job in a realistic situation.

(3) For helping teachers to prepare for teaching: Teachers have to perform diverse activities and face a heavy load of work. They cannot devote much time to a thorough preparation of teaching. Supervision can very well help to lighten the burden of teachers in this respect.

(4) For keeping teachers up-to-date: With continuous social change there is going on development in educational theory and practice. Creative suggestions derived from critical analysis and discussion of research finding are indispensable for growth. Supervision can provide this service.

(5) For providing democratic professional leadership: In can make creative contribution. It can also unify the efforts of all the persons engaged in the educative process.
17.3 Nature of Supervision

In order to carry on instruction, we take the help of administration and supervision. From the standpoint of their contribution to education of students, administration is subordinate to supervision. The purpose of supervision is to bring about a continuing improvement in the instructional programme. Administration executes and directs, but supervision advises, stimulates, explains, leads, guides and assists.

Characteristics of Supervision

It has the following feature:

1. It is a creative and dynamic expert technical service,
2. It provides leadership with extra knowledge and superior skills,
3. It promotes cooperative educational effort in a friendly atmosphere,
4. It gives coordination, direction and guidance to teacher’s activities,
5. It stimulates the continuous growth of teachers and development of pupils.
6. It improves instruction and the teaching-learning situation and the process,
7. It helps achievement of appropriate educational aims and objectives.

Thus Supervision is a creative and dynamic process giving friendly guidance and direction to teachers and pupils for improving themselves and the teaching-learning situation of the accomplishment of the desired goals of education.

17.4 Scope of Supervision

The major functions logically under school supervision can be cited as:

Inspection: This is actually a study of school conditions, to discover problems or defects of the students, teachers, equipment, school curriculum, objectives and methods. This could be done via actual observation, educational tests, conference, questionnaires and checklists.

Research: This has something to do to remedy the weaknesses of the solution to solve problems discovered. The supervisor should conduct research to discover means, methods and procedure fundamental to the success of supervision. The solutions discovered are then passed on the teachers.

Training: This is acquainting teachers with solutions discovered in research through training. Training may take the form of demonstration teaching, workshops, seminars, classroom observations, individual or group conferences, intervitation, professional classes or the use of bulletin board and circulars, and writing suggestions in BPS Form 178.

Guidance: Guidance involved personal help given by someone. It is the function of supervision to stimulate, direct, guide and encourage the teachers to apply instructional procedures, techniques, principles and devices.

Evaluation: As an ultimate functions of supervision, evaluation appraises the outcomes and the factors conditioning the outcomes of instructions and to improve the products and processes of instructions.

Activities of Supervision: The activities logically that are falling under supervision can be enumerated as:

1. survey of the school system;
2. improvement of classroom teaching;
3. in-service education of teachers;
4. selecting and organizing materials for instructions;
5. researching the problems of teaching;
6. determining the desirable physical condition of teaching and
7. performing semi-administrative duties.

17.5 Types of Educational Supervision

The type of school supervision that can be cited are in terms of:

Laissez-faire type: This type of supervision utilizes inspectorial supervisory methods unaided by any objective control, in which the teachers are observed, but noting is done to help them improve the work they are doing. In other words, the teachers are left free; they are not to be imposed upon or directed.

Coercive type: This type of supervision is the opposite of the laissez-faire. The supervisor visits the teachers in order to observe them. The teachers acquire ready-made-procedure or standard prescribed by the supervisors.

Training and Guidance type: This type of supervision emphasizes the improvements of teachers as well as her technique through direction, training and guidance.

Democratic leadership type: It consists of the teacher’s cooperation in the formulation of policies, plans and procedures. Supervisor observes teacher inside the classroom setting with the aim of improving the teaching-learning situation via cooperation process or group action. The teachers, supervisors and administrators are regarded as co-workers in a common task.

Administration represents the whole of the education system; supervision represent a portion of it in terms of improving the total teaching-learning situation.

17.6 Functions of Supervision

The scope of educational supervision can be further understood by defining its primary functions. These may be enumerated as follows:

(1) Providing Leadership.
(2) Formulating Policies.
(3) Studying the Teaching-Learning Situations.
(4) Improving the Teaching-Learning Situations.
(5) Improving the Personnel.
(6) Improving Human Relations.
(7) Improving Group Interaction.
(8) Improving the Product of Education.
(9) Improving Supervision.

(10) Improving Morale of Teachers, and

(11) Generating Favourable Learning Climate:

1. **Providing Leadership**: The educational enterprise calls for the share and contribution of people of diverse temperaments, abilities and capacities. Their efforts are to be coordinated so that they can work in cooperation with a common mind and purpose. This needs leadership, which may be defined as the process of formulation and achievement of the goals and purposes of the group. For success it is necessary to maintain the unity of the group and release its force and energy. "If supervision is to be effective, it is imperative that some person or persons be assigned the responsibility for stimulating groups of teachers with common interests to share their educational experiences to the end that a more effective educational process will be available to boys and girls." Without leadership both group activity and group existence are in danger. Leadership is essential because it is "the total process through which appropriate human and material resources are made available and made effective for accomplishing the purposes of an enterprise." One of the most significant functions of supervision is, therefore, to provide leadership that will maintain solidarity of the group through the promotion of group feeling and group effort.

2. **Formulating Policies**: Education is a purposeful activity aiming at the development and growth of the individual's powers and capacities and meeting the needs and demands of society to develop a better self and an improved and richer democratic social order. For this definite policies have to be formulated, aims and objectives have to be laid down and proper planning has to be undertaken. It is for the realisation of these policies and goals that society establishes schools, the state invests resources and the teachers and administrators strive hard. Without a definite policy there can neither be good planning nor effective implementation. The services are to be provided, the organisation to be set up, the activities to be undertaken, all these things depend upon the policies and plans that have been chalked out. Supervision is charged with the task of improving education in all its aspects. So, it should be responsible for formulating educational policies.

We have already seen that one of the factors that have influences education and educational supervision in modern times is the democratic way of life. Democracy has faith in the equal right and respect of all individuals. It is a belief in the dignity of the individual, a faith that everyone is capable of contributing something unique to the betterment of the group. When we talk of leadership in educational supervision we mean to emphasize that leadership is not an exclusive quality or possession of the officially appointed leader but that it is a quality of group activity in which every worker can and should participate and contribute. Reader has drawn our attention to the fact that "...in recent years a small group of theorists has developed a different approach to the concept of educational leadership.

Devoted to the democratic ideal......this group would conceive of an educational leader simply as a sort of chairman of a collection of educational co-workers." So leadership can be exercised by any member of the group. In fact the quality of group achievement would be very much enhanced if every member of the group is called upon to play the role of the leader at suitable times. It is, thus, the diverse resources, talents and capacities of the member that can be pooled together for the group cause.
Notes

(3) **Studying the Teaching-Learning Situation**: As stated earlier modern supervision is concerned with the total teaching-learning situation, its ultimate purpose being to bring about all round improvement in the learning programme and activities. For this, it is indispensable that supervision should first survey the present state of the situation, which includes the pupils, teachers, class-rooms, the curriculum and materials of instruction as well as the administrative factors such as funds, equipment, time tables, evaluation of pupils, their progress reports and records, etc. In other words, all the four important elements, namely the learners, teachers, curriculum and the socio-physical environment, have to be systematically studied. Supervision has to find out whether the growth and achievement of the learners are satisfactory in the light of the aims and objectives cooperatively set up by all persons concerned.

In the past, the supervisor’s job was to visit the class-rooms, rate the teachers and teach them on the job. The purpose was to ensure the growth of children by imparting to them information and knowledge. It is now realised that growth has to be interpreted not only as academic training and skill but also as stimulation of interests, development of powers and capacities through the learners’ cooperation to enable them to acquire a richer and a more abundant life. Supervision has to study the situation in the light of these new demands.

Did you know? In India, public participation has been confined to providing funds for education, or indirect determination of policy through popular ministries or school boards. It is now necessary to launch publicity campaigns to inform the community about the latest professional thinking on education. This is necessary for carrying the public with educational efforts and to win their support and contribution.

(4) **Improving the Teaching-Learning Situation**: Having studied the situation and having observed it in operation supervision proceeds to take positive steps for its improvement. These steps should be planned and undertaken with the cooperation of all the workers. It has to be realized that learning is much more than mere memorising and in order to develop the learners’ interests, capacities and habits and to enhance their achievement their active participation in the learning process should be enlisted and their continuous growth should the individual differences of the learners. “Effective guidance of the learning activity depends upon a knowledge by the teachers of the characteristics and backgrounds of each pupil.”

Teachers possess knowledge and necessary professional training but these are not enough. There is constant need of their on-the-job improvement by keeping them abreast of the current researches and developments in educational theory and practice. The ever-going social changes make it all the more imperative to reform educational technology. Supervision should be regarded as a necessary step in this direction and as a continuation of their pre-service training and guiding them to do a better job. “Teacher growth is promoted through the kind of faculty organisation that encourages teachers to exert leadership by stating their problems, by devising ways of seeking solutions, by participating in decision-making and by accepting responsibility for the outcome.... For this, we must maintain a permissive climate in which creativity is valued and diversity of opinion is recognized as an asset.”

The curriculum too, has to be constantly revised on basis of experimental testing of material. It should be life-centred, that is to say, related to the nature and needs of the learners and factors in their current family and community life. “A programme of curriculum improvement to be successful must bring about many important changes within persons and within elements constituting the setting for learning.”
Similarly; supervision has to concern itself with the improvement of equipment, facilities and services and also of the socio-physical environment. These have to be made conducive to the growth and progress of pupils, which constitute the real scope of supervision.

(5) Improving the Personnel : Long ago, Elliott defined supervision thus : Supervisory control is concerned with what should be taught; to whom, by whom, how and to what purposes. “ If we substitute the word ‘control’ by the word ‘cooperation’, this definition still holds good, provided that decision regarding the what, when, how and why are made not by ‘higher authorities’, as is done today, but by the instructional staff and the supervisor. It is the supervisor’s responsibility to release and coordinate the teacher’s creative abilities and efforts for the ultimate purpose of modern supervision, namely the improvement of the teaching-learning situation, for which the improvement of the personnel is important and indispensable. Today’s teachers, despite their knowledge, skill and training, need “able leadership to foster their growth as teachers and to coordinate their efforts to operate a good school.” Supervision has to supply the leadership to help teachers grow professionally and to improve the situation.

It should, however, be understood that the improvement of teachers is possible only when they realise the need for it. “Foremost among the important functions of a supervisor is that of helping teachers become aware of their need for growth.” Improvement of teachers can come only when they themselves make the effort. It has been rightly said that “the improvement of teachers is not so much a supervisory function is which teachers participate as it is a teacher function in which supervisors participate.”

Improvement of the staff can be effected through in-service training in which both the teachers and supervisors participate on the basis of the following well-established principles of learning:

(1) Learning is occurring all the time;
(2) The learning that an individual does in a situation is determined by his purposes, his needs, and his past experiences;
(3) When force is applied, the learning that occurs may be the opposite of what is desired;
(4) The learning of the teacher will be nearer what the supervisor expects when both the teacher and the supervisor feel secure and when both have had a part in establishing purposes;
(5) The supervisor and the teacher learn simultaneously.

The right direction of the improvement of personnel lies in promotion of truly creative and effective teaching. The supervisor and the teachers together explore and study children’s behaviour, discover their needs, find ways and means to meet these needs and finally evaluate how far the measures taken have proved fruitful.

(6) Improving Human Relations : The attitudes and values of a person depend upon the type of experiences he has had with other people. If others treat him well, give him understanding, respect and love, he develops a healthy personality with a sense of security and self-confidence. His morale is high and so also his achievement. Good human relations among the members bring individual satisfaction and group success. It, therefore, follows that a significant function of supervision is to develop and maintain good human relations with and among all the educational workers. Principles of democracy tell us that good human relations depend upon manifestation of the belief in the worth and dignity of all individuals, regard and respect for the other man’s feeling and point of view and equality of opportunity for working in harmony for common goals by sharing interests and purposes.

Good human relations cannot be achieved by merely bringing people together to form a group. “Good human relations cannot be obtained by demanding or requesting them. They are built by living and working with fellow staff members in such a way that they can practise good human relations too.” The supervisor has to make positive and deliberate efforts to develop and maintain good human relations.
First of all, he should erase from his mind all feelings of superiority. He should treat his coworkers as his equals and should be imbued with the spirit of serving and not dominating or governing.

Secondly, the supervisor should also have faith and confidence in other people’s worth and honesty. He should firmly believe that everyone possesses the capacity for making a unique contribution to the group’s activity. So, he should provide every worker opportunities for sharing problems and participating in their solution.

Thirdly, he must always share with the members the credit for the group's success. He should own his mistakes and be magnanimous enough to take the blame even for other’s failure.

Fourthly, good human relations can be sustained by generating a stimulating atmosphere of cooperation by exchange of ideas and experiences and continuous experimentation.

Finally, good relations are the result, not of talks and precepts, but good group living. The supervisor should live up to others’ expectations and above all behave not only as a teacher and helper but also as a human being.

(7) Improving Group Interaction: Education is a cooperative group enterprise. It is the function of supervision to secure and maintain cooperation so that each worker is enabled to make his best contribution to group effort toward the desired goals. This raises two important questions—those of released energy so that everyone pulls in the same direction.

For releasing the full power of the group some conditions are necessary. Firstly, the workers should know each other’s duties and responsibilities. This knowledge will not only tell them how far they can go but also help them appreciate other’s viewpoints and activities and thus promote mutual respect and goodwill. Secondly, decisions should be made by the group after discussion and free and frank exchange of ideas and experiences. Decisions thus arrived at are readily acceptable to all the members of the group as well as outside authority and the general community. Common interests, purposes and values emerge only from group thinking. Thirdly, the channels of communication among the members should be open, free and quick. Then only can members know what is to be done and how, and whether any change of procedure is necessary as a result of some new finding and experience.

For coordinating the effort of the group some positive steps can be suggested. The work of the school should be planned and organised after discussion by the whole staff or representative committees if the staff is too big to be brought together frequently. In a big school various committees, like a policy committee, planning committee, coordination committee, etc., may be appointed by the staff. Each committee should work at the problems in the areas assigned to it. Its responsibility is to bring specific proposals before the staff for discussion and adoption. The supervisor has to play an important role by summarising the findings. He should take care not to dominate either the discussion or the decision. Domination can lead only to superficial behaviour, feelings of inadequacy and insecurity, frustration and fear. Opportunities should be provided for the staff to come together at reasonable regular intervals and time should be set apart for the purpose. Free and frequent communication promotes and improves group understanding and interaction. Group work encourages individual development, strengthens democratic practices and fosters moral and ethical values.

The educative process is launched and operated to achieve certain general purposes and specific aims and objectives. Briefly speaking, these are the all round development of the individual’s powers and capacities and fulfilment of the needs of society. The organisation, administration and supervision of education, all are geared to the realisation of these aims through teaching. In modern educational thought, the concept of teaching has some important connotations. It is universally agreed that both what and how we do are important, that men are more important than materials, that the personality of the teachers is more important than the curriculum and that learning is more important than teaching. It has been rightly recommended that “the
principle and supervisor have the responsibility for seeing that conditions of leadership and environment make it possible for the teacher to release himself/ herself for more effective learning.” With these views in mind the educational workers strive to accomplish the product of education of contemplated standard mutually decided upon by all the concerned persons. Supervision has continuously to assess the extent to which the aims are being fulfilled and how far the resulting product of education has reached the desired level. It has to discover the strength and weakness of this product and what still remains to be done in the light of assessment made. Supervision should next proceed to adopt remedial measures whenever and wherever needed. Educational practices should constantly upgrade the educational product.

Effective improvement of the educational product can follow only correct and reliable evaluation. This involves a critical analysis of the aims and objectives in terms of pupil behaviour, setting up of appropriate and objective criteria of appraisal and adapting the means of evaluation to available resources. Supervision has to draw heavily upon the modern techniques of measurement such as rating scales, checklists, interview, objective testing, etc. Sound evaluation will guide us to the right, remedial measures for improving the educational product; and adoption of these is an important function of supervision.

(8) Improving Supervision: It may sound strange to some readers when we say that another important function of supervision is to improve itself. The significance of this statement will be clear if we remember that supervision sets forth its own purposes and procedures and so it essential constantly to evaluate whether and how far it is fulfilling its appointee tasks. This would involve appraisal of its results or outcomes, modification of its techniques and methods and improvement of the supervisory personal in the light of this assessment and the experiences gained during the process of supervision. As before, we have co-operatively to define the purposes of supervision, set up criteria and adopt appropriate ways and means of its measurement. This must be followed by suitable remedial measures.

Modern supervision directs attention towards the fundamentals of education within its general aims and specific objectives. It tries to improve the total teaching-learning situation. It encourages teachers to participate in the group’s efforts to improve the product of education. Principles of democracy and scientific methods have much to contribute to its philosophy and procedures. More and more use should be made of the objective and diagnostic techniques as well as of an evolutionary and experimental approach. Much will depend upon individual effort. “The mature individual will not only serve as a leader in group enterprise, not only make contributions to group discussion and decision; he will often engage in purely individual effort.” Modern supervision, therefore, emphasises that effort should be made by teachers and supervisors towards self-evaluation, self-direction, self-guidance and self-supervision.

(9) Improving Morale of Teachers: Morale refers to a specific mental state of an individual. It is an attitude towards the achievement of a goal. If the individual feels and says that he can achieve the goal, it is inferred that his morale is high. If he says that he can not achieve that, his morale is said to be low. Similarly, if a person perceives his present performance, achievement or status as unsatisfactory and experiences within himself feelings of anxiety, tension, depression, he is also said to be having low morale. Its opposite, on the other hand, indicates high morale. Feelings of hopefulness indicate high morale; feelings of helplessness reflect low morale. Morale is considered as a psychological state of the mind which develops as a consequence of the way the individual perceives his present achievement and the progress he is making. Various factors, psychological, sociological, economic and ecological, affect the morale of people. But, more important to understand for an educational supervisor is the role of morale in teaching-learning situation, and the ways it can be improved. A teacher whose morale is low does great harm to the students who are taught by him. His low morale is associated with frustration and tension which produce in him feelings of anger and aggression resulting into his undesirable behaviours such as criticising authorities, policies and programmes, not teaching, showing temper-tentrums,
running away from facing responsibility and so on. Such teachers develop negative feelings in
the students. They are ineffective in the classroom and students fail to learn from them.

Since the educational supervisor is responsible for improving teaching-learning situations, it
becomes his duty to do everything that keeps the morale of teachers high. To achieve this, the
supervision has to understand what affects teacher’s morale adversely and how such factors
and conditions can be controlled. This will be dealt with in detail in a separate chapter. Here,
the purpose is only to impress on the readers that improvement of morale of teachers and other
workers associated with teaching-learning situation is an important function of the educational
supervisors.

(10) Generating Favourable Learning Climate: Climate refers to the psycho-social characteristic of
the environment. These characteristics greatly influence learning of students and teaching by
teachers. These characteristics have been variously named as socio-emotional climate, social
interaction, inter-personal relations, environmental ethos or thrust. These are, sometimes,
described as the sum total of all the psychosocial characteristics of the environment in which
learning takes place. This includes factors such as social relationships accompanied by various
kinds of feelings and emotions which are generated in the teachers and pupils in educational
institutions. It is, in a way, institutional atmosphere characterized by teacher’s and learner’s
interactions, their attitudes, emotions and feelings, actions and reactions, their philosophies
and perceptions which may or may not be conducive to teaching-learning. Boocock uses the
term ‘social context’ for climate and says that “The characteristics and attitudes of the individuals
whose roles comprise the school combine to form its social context.”

Researches on climate conducted in India as well as abroad have shown that there is a high
positive correlation between teaching-learning and the quality of classroom climate. A good
socio-emotional climate of the classroom is a potent facilitator of school learning. It has been
found to be positively correlated with pupils’ achievement. Development of desirable behaviours
in the pupils is found linked with the classroom climate. Research has also revealed that the
climate of the school and the classroom influence the development of attitudes, values and
other personality aspects of the students. Teacher morale and institutional climate have also
found to be positively related.

It is, therefore, emphasized that the educational supervisor should study, analyse and improve
the teaching-learning climate. By providing needed facilities, by enlisting teacher’s participation
and involvement in decision-making, by talking to teachers, by supporting them and rewarding

Self Assessment
1. Fill in the blanks:

(i) ______ is a creative and dynamic expert technical service.
(ii) ______ of supervision utilizes inspectorial supervisory methods unaided by any objective
control, in which the teachers are observed.

(iii) ______ consists of the teacher’s Cooperation in the formulation of policies, plans and
procedures.

(iv) Teachers acquired ready made-procedure or standard prescribed by the supervisors in ______
type supervision.
One of the most significant functions of supervision is to provide _______.

_____ is the function of supervision to stimulate direct and encourage the teachers to apply instructional procedures.

17.7 Summary

- Supervision, for a supervisor, is a “positive force for programme improvement, for a teacher it is either a threat to his individuality or an assistance and support to his profession.”

- Instruction implies that “there are persons to be educated, teachers to carry on education and there are materials and methods by which education may be accomplished.”

- Supervision of instruction may be defined as, “the effort to stimulate, coordinate and guide the continued growth of the teachers in school, both individually and collectively.”

- The following are the needs of supervision:

  (i) For providing expert technical assistance: Education is a complex and difficult activity because it deals with living persons.

  (ii) For the growth of teachers: In spite of better professional training, teachers still need continuous and improved training on the job in a realistic situation.

  (iii) For helping teachers to prepare for teaching: Teachers have to perform diverse activities and face a heavy load of work.

  (iv) For keeping teachers up-to-date: With continuous social change there is going on development in educational theory and practice.

- In order to carry on instruction, we take the help of administration and supervision. From the standpoint of their contribution to education of students, administration is subordinate to supervision.

- Characteristics of Supervision

  - It has the following feature:

    (i) It is a creative and dynamic expert technical service,

    (ii) It provides leadership with extra knowledge and superior skills,

    (iii) It promotes cooperative educational effort in a friendly atmosphere,

    (iv) It gives coordination, direction and guidance to teacher’s activities,

    (v) It stimulates the continuous growth of teachers and development of pupils.

    (vi) It improves instruction and the teaching-learning situation and the process.

- The major functions logically under school supervision can be cited as:

  - Inspection: This is actually a study of school conditions, to discover problems or defects of the students, teachers, equipment, school curriculum, objectives and methods.

  - Research: This has something to do with solving the weaknesses of the solution to solve problems discovered.

  - Training: This is acquainting teachers with solutions discovered in research through training.

  - Guidance: Guidance involves personal help given by someone. It is the function of supervision to stimulate, direct, guide and encourage the teachers to apply instructional procedures, techniques, principles and devices.

  - Evaluation: As an ultimate function of supervision, evaluation appraises the outcomes and the factors conditioning the outcomes of instructions and to improve the products and processes of instructions.
• Activities of Supervision: The activities logically that are falling under supervision can be enumerated as:

   (i) survey of the school system;
   (ii) improvement of classroom teaching;
   (iii) in-service education of teachers;

• Laissez-faire type: This type of supervision utilizes inspectorial supervisory methods unaided by any objective control, in which the teachers are observed, but noting is done to help them improve the work they are doing.

• Coercive type: This type of supervision is the opposite of the laissez-faire. The supervisor visits the teachers in order to observe them.

• Training and Guidance type: This type of supervision emphasizes the improvements of teachers as well as her technique through direction, training and guidance.

• Democratic leadership type: It consists of the teacher’s cooperation in the formulation of policies, plans and procedures. Supervisor observes teacher inside the classroom setting with the aim of improving the teaching-learning situation via cooperation process or group action.

• The scope of educational supervision can be further understood by defining its primary functions. These may be enumerated as follows:

   (i) Providing Leadership: The educational enterprise calls for the share and contribution of people of diverse temperaments, abilities and capacities. Their efforts are to be coordinated so that they can work in cooperation with a common mind and purpose.

   (ii) Formulating Policies: Education is a purposeful activity aiming at the development and growth of the individual’s powers and capacities and meeting the needs and demands of society. So as to develop a better self and an improved and richer democratic social order.

   The principles of democracy and the necessity for practical planning demand that in policy making there should be an ever wider participation by the public. It is only reasonable that participate in its making.

   (iii) Studying the Teaching-Learning Situation: As states earlier modern supervision is concerned with the total teaching-learning situation, its ultimate purpose being to bring about all round improvement in the learning programme and activities.

   (iv) Improving the Teaching-Learning Situation: Having studied the situation and having observed it in operation supervision proceeds to take positive steps for its improvement. These steps should be planned and undertaken with the cooperation of all the workers.

   Teachers possess knowledge and necessary professional training but these are not enough. There is constant need of their on-the-job improvement by keeping them abreast of the current researches and developments in educational theory and practice.

   (v) Improving Human Relations: The attitudes and values of a person depend upon the type of experiences he has had with other people. If others treat him well, give him understanding, respect and love, he develops a healthy personality with a sense of security and self-confidence.

   (vi) Improving Group Interaction: Education is a cooperative group enterprise. It is the function of supervision to secure and maintain cooperation so that each worker is enabled to make his best contribution to group effort toward the desired goals.

   (vii) Improving Supervision: It may sound strange to some readers when we say that another important function of supervision is to improve itself. The significance of this statement will be clear if we remember that supervision sets forth its own purposes and procedures and so it essential constantly to evaluate whether and how far it is fulfilling its appointee tasks.
Improving Morale of Teachers: Morale refers to a specific mental state of an individual. It is an attitude towards the achievement of a goal. If the individual feels and says that he can achieve the goal, it is inferred that his morale is high.

Generating Favourable Learning Climate: Climate refers to the psycho-social characteristic of the environment. These characteristics greatly influence learning of students and teaching by teachers. These characteristics have been variously named as socio-emotional climate, social interaction, inter-personal relations, environmental ethos or thrust.

17.8 Keywords

• Supervisor: a person who supervises something.
• Inspector: a person whose job is to visit schools, factories etc.
• Potential interaction: that can develop into something or be developed in the future.

17.9 Review Questions

1. Define the term “Supervision”.
2. Why is the need of supervision?
3. Explain the nature and scope of supervision.
4. Explain the different types of supervision.
5. What are the functions of supervision.

Answers: Self Assessment

1. (i) Supervision (ii) Laissaz-faire (iii) Democratic leadership style
   (iv) Coersive (v) leadership (vi) Guidance

17.10 Further Readings

Books

Unit 18: Qualities of an Effective Supervisor

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Objectives
The objectives of this unit can be summarised as below:
• To discuss about the Objective of Supervision
• To describe about the Methods of Supervision
• To explain about the Qualities of an Effective Supervisor

Introduction
An important factor contributing to employees’ job satisfaction is the quality of supervision that they receive. The supervisor is someone with whom they interact on a daily basis. The nature of this relationship can make or mar an entire department’s output. Supervising employees is not about ordering people around and expecting them to comply. Rather, it provides the superior with an opportunity to truly inspire his team to achieve the highest levels of performance.

18.1 Objectives of Supervision
In the educational literature, we come across words like ‘aims’, ‘purpose’, goals’ and ‘objectives’. The terms are used interchangeably and loosely. It should be observed that the dictionary equates ‘objectives’ with ‘goals’. In instructional planning ‘goal’ and ‘objectives’ are not the same and should not be used interchangeably. For purposes of instructional design it is best to avoid using the words ‘goals’ and ‘purposes’. These terms should be relegated to philosophical discussions of education on a broad scale. When somebody speaks of ‘goals’ he means the broad aims or purposes of education. Educational goals are concerned with the whole process of education. And schooling. But objectives are concerned with specific content. School supervision is a specific content of the whole process of education. Therefore, the instructional planners and specialists have recommended the following as the objectives of supervision.

(1) Helping Teachers to Plan for Instruction.
(2) Helping Teachers to Present Instruction.
(3) Helping Teachers to use Modern Methods of Teaching.
(4) Helping Teachers to Evaluate Instruction.
(5) Helping Teachers with Classroom Management.
(6) Helping Teachers with Curriculum Development.
(7) Helping Teachers to Evaluate the Curriculum.
(8) Helping Teachers to Evaluate Themselves.
(9) Helping Teachers to Work Together.
(10) Helping Teachers through In-service Programmes, and
(11) Helping Teachers in Providing them with a Reasonable Workload.

The details of objectives of the supervision have been given following paragraphs:

(1) Helping Teachers to Plan for Instruction: Instructional planning is considered as the first step in the improvement of instruction. Therefore, it is recommended that the supervisor should help the teachers to develop and improve skills in instructional designs and to use a model of instruction as guide to instructional planning. Most instructional planners recommend two types of instructional plans: the lesson plan, which shows the planning for one day and the modular plan, which shows the planning for longer periods of time and from which the lesson plans are derived. Planning requires a good deal of both thought and time but it is an essential process whose ultimate aim is the enhancement of student learning.

(2) Helping Teachers to Present Instruction: Lesson presentation involves a complex variety of component skills. The supervisor should help the teachers to translate their module and lesson plans into action and to select and use appropriate teaching strategy. In order to understand the use of strategy in the classroom, we do need to understand the meaning of strategy. Pedagogy has borrowed the word strategy from the armed services. The military men plan their tactics or strategy in the battlefield to win the battle. But we should not conceptualize the classroom as a battlefield with the teachers and students on opposing sides. It is rather a team effort with the teacher as a leader and both teacher and students work together for a common cause. From a pedagogical point of view, teaching strategy may be defined as a procedure or set of procedures for utilizing resources and for deploying the central figures in the instructional procedure—the teacher and the learners. The supervisor should encourage teachers to increase student participation and incorporate a variety of stimuli and activities in both their planning and actual participation.

It is during this stage that ideas leap from mind to mind, skills are mastered by those who lacked them before instruction and knowledge is stored in the brain, primarily because of the right strategy followed by the teacher in the classroom. Therefore, an ideal supervisor should help the teacher in the art of presenting instructions which he planned beforehand.

(3) Helping Teachers to Use Modern Methods of Teaching: Methods of teaching are an important art of presenting instruction in the classroom in an effective manner. Therefore, the supervisor should help the teachers in using modern methods of teaching in the classroom. The modern concept of instructional methods have departed from the traditional chalk and talk method. It is based on philosophical and psychological principles. Greater emphasis is laid on interests, capacities and abilities of the students for their adjustment to home, vocation, social group relationships and civic life. Instruction is imparted on the basis of individual differences. To master the modern techniques of teaching, a teacher has to develop certain teaching skills. It is the supervisor’s responsibility to help the teachers to keep abreast of new educational movements, to study and learn new methods of teaching and to apply these new techniques in the classroom situation.
Notes

Lesson planning a private affair of the teachers. But lesson presentation is a phase of instruction which the public knows as teaching. This phase is most rewarding to the teacher.

(4) **Helping Teachers to Evaluate Instruction**: Evaluation is conceived as an integral part of the instructional system. For this reason, evaluation should always be present and continuing. In some manner, no matter how brief or informal, evaluation should take place everyday with every lesson. The teacher wants to know, not only how well students will perform at the end of a lesson or a course, but also how well they have mastered each day’s work. The supervisory activities can help teachers to master a variety of formal and informal evaluation techniques which they can call on as the need arises. It should develop a number of in-service activities to help teachers with the improvement of skills of evaluation, measurement, testing marking and reporting. Reporting systems should be designed to let students, parents, and others to know how well the learner is performing in school. The reporting system can be improved through the use of narrative reports, progress reports and evaluation conferences.

(5) **Helping Teachers with Classroom Management**: A teacher not only teaches classes but manages them, or more properly, manage the learning environment in such a way that learning can go on. The skills which the teacher employs for this purpose are called classroom management.

“Both teachers and school administrators are in agreement that discipline is the most serious problem faced by teachers, particularly inexperienced teachers.” It is an aspect which causes many teachers great concern and one with which teachers frequently need help. Pre-service training programmes hardly solve this complex problem and therefore, in-service training is essential to help teachers in developing classroom management skills and understanding about discipline.

Schools themselves contribute to a student’s behaviour problems. The first task of supervisor is to order the classes and school environment in such a way that disciplinary problems will be minimized. When behaviour problems do arise remedial measures should be tried to correct these problems and to take some action to prevent, reduce or eliminate disciplinary problems. It is suggested that supervisory activities should aim at enabling teachers to develop preventive and corrective measures of discipline in the classroom situation.

(6) **Helping Teachers with Curriculum Development**: The word curriculum has different meanings to different people. To some people the curriculum consists of all the experiences undergone by children wherever they may be: in school, at home, on the street. To others, the curriculum is a set of subjects which students ‘take’.

The curriculum itself is a concept-as planned concept. Instruction is curriculum in action. Whether in the classroom or in extra class activity, whether in the guidance office or the library, instruction is the means of putting the curriculum into action. Specialists in the field of curriculum talk and write about curriculum development, curriculum planning, curriculum improvement, curriculum construction, curriculum reform, curriculum change and curriculum evaluation. All these terms are, of course, interrelated but not necessarily synonymous. Curriculum development is a task of supervision directed towards designing or redesigning the guidelines for specifications indicating what is to be taught, by whom when, where and in what sequence or pattern.” Hence the supervisor should play an instrumental role in promoting curriculum development. He should bring the non-professional school personnel, lay persons and students into the process of curriculum development.
(7) **Helping Teachers to Evaluate the Curriculum:** Evaluation is a fundamental part of the curriculum development process. It is through evaluation that teachers learn whether or not stated objectives have been reached. It is only through evaluation that intelligent curriculum decisions can be made.

The objective of supervision is to help teachers to develop an evaluative frame of mind, an inquiring attitude, and a research-orientation.

(8) **Helping Teachers to Evaluate Themselves:** Most teachers develop antagonistic attitudes and fears towards evaluation. Therefore, the objective of democratic supervision is to help teachers to evaluate themselves rather than evaluating their competence by the help of a supervisor. The role of the supervisor in this evaluation should not be a threat to the teachers. It should be a help and an assistance. He must master a variety of techniques for getting teachers to look at their own behaviour.

(9) **Helping Teachers to work Together:** Unless one lives in deserted island, much of one’s life from the cradle to the grave will be spent in groups of some kind or another. Most of the world’s work is conducted through group interaction. No less true of the school; most of the work of the school is carried on through interaction of personnel of the school. In order to accomplish much of the school’s work teachers must learn to work together in groups and one of the objectives of supervision is the enhancement of teacher’s skills is working cooperatively.

(10) **Helping Teachers through In-service Programmes:** Every year on the campuses of hundreds of training colleges several thousand people receive the long-awaited B. Ed. degree which certifies that they have successfully completed their teacher training programme. With this degree they join the competition for teaching jobs. The talented, the lucky and some times the favoured get jobs in a tight market. Within a period of only ten months stay in the colleges of education, the student-teachers receive both knowledge in theory and practice of the training programme. Thus the preservice training programme usually culminates in a brief student-teaching experience. Hence there is the needs for a continuing in-service programme. The goal of in-service teacher education programme is the continuing professional development of the teachers which in turn will enhance the achievement of the learners. Among the types of organised in-service programmes are seminars, workshops and institutes, conferences, supervision of student-teachers and visiting days. Organization of these activities is one of the most important objectives of supervision.

(11) **Helping Teachers in Providing Them with a Reasonable Workload:** Another important objective of supervision is to look to the teaching load of the educational programme. In secondary schools teachers hold of the educational programme. In secondary schools teachers hold a heavy load of both instructional and non-instructional activities. A teacher is also expected to teach three or four subjects. Subject combinations assigned to the teachers often have no fundamental relationship. The young and inexperienced teachers tend to have a greater load. This situation demands supervisory effort to help in adjustment of teaching load.

Supervision thus has many different objectives for the improvement of professional techniques and procedures and to formulate the theory that will guide, advice and judge the progress of the school system.

**Did you know?** A successful curriculum requires an independent working relationship among all school personnel and cooperative planning for that relationship.
18.2 Methods of Supervision

The instructional plans can be actualized and will result in certain learning outcomes for students by the valid supervisory methods. Without methods, it is impossible to know to what extent one can attribute certain learning results. Without methods, the supervisor cannot make meaningful judgments about what procedure to continue or discontinue. To actualize the “engagement opportunities for students”, the supervisor should follow the following methods.

Collaborative Supervision

Collaborative supervision is a recent idea. It developed with a view for cooperative help, sharing of ideas, coordination etc., in the process of supervision. It recognised that the supervisors are specialized and competent workers. But they cannot be competent in all the areas. The titled supervisors may not be available in large numbers. Therefore, it is proposed that the competence of the titled supervisors and non-titled supervisors be utilised to collaborate with individuals needing psychological and technical support. Therefore the management should facilitate this method of supervision.

Scope of Supervision

The educational institution is assumed to be a sub-system of a group of interdependent parts which exist for the purpose of contributing to the overall goals of the organisation. The organization of a particular school is the major factor in determining the special characteristics of supervision. This organisation involves both the human and material elements, for the improvement of the quality of learning for the students. This is done through the following functions which come under the scope of supervision.

(1) Technological and Psychological Support System for Teachers.

(2) Supervision of Curriculum Design.

(3) Continuing Professional Development of the Staff.


(5) Selection, Allocation and Development of Materials and Equipment of Instruction.

(6) Research Programme.

(7) Dissemination of knowledge.

(8) Supervision of Co-curricular Activities, and

(9) Supervision of School Records.

(1) Technological and Psychological Support System for Teachers: Development of human resources in the teaching situation requires efficient supervision of instruction. To utilize the instructional supervision personnel effectively, there should be proper consideration of their function, allocation, organizational structure, roles authority, needed specialization etc. They should be provided with improved materials of instruction, new instructional media etc., as a technological support system after proper supervision. Again the technological and psychological support can be provided to the teachers through cooperation with institutions of higher education, studying, analysing, interpreting and implementing community expectations of the individual programme providing a programme of professional growth for the staff, evaluation of the effectiveness of the educational programme and the extension of school developed educational opportunity. If the teaching staff fulfils its mission through psychological and technological support, it will proceed with a definite programme.

(2) Supervision of Curriculum Design: Supervision of curriculum design is essential for the improvement and development of curriculum. Most of our schools neglect this.
In our school system the individual schools and the individual teachers should be encouraged to move ahead on their own experimentation and innovation in the programme of curriculum development. The school staff, by the help of the supervisory staff should lay a set of criteria by which they can judge whether curriculum material developed by an outside source will fit into the design of the curriculum in the school system in which they work. A blueprint of curriculum development should be drawn. To spend the money and effort wisely a proper plan and strategy and supervision must be conceived. The entire supervisory staff should develop the plan with the advice and consultation of the teachers.

3) **Continuing Professional Development of the Staff**: The changing nature of what is to be taught and how it is to be taught demands the development of new understandings and skills on the part of teachers. Therefore, professional development of the staff comes under the scope of supervision. It is through the programme of professional development that teachers can maintain a readiness to meet the challenge of new programmes and new responsibilities. Hence the supervisory staff should know the special competence and skills of the professional staff and should guide them in their professional development.

4) **Evaluation of Teaching-Learning Process**: The focus of the evaluation should be on the outcome of instruction and learning rather than the instructional process itself. It is the responsibility of the supervisory system to know the effectiveness of each professional person in the teaching-learning situation. They must try to facilitate the process of self-evaluation of the teachers. The technological and psychological support system will help a lot in this connection. It should help the teachers with their development in the skill of teaching.

5) **Selection, Allocation and Development of Materials and Equipment of Instruction**: The supervisory staff has the responsibility for locating and making available the materials and equipments of instruction that are appropriate, because teachers do not have time to get informed about them. The supervisory staff must survey what is available and recommend the desirable new materials in the teaching-learning situation.

Not only instructional materials, but the selection of correct textbooks is their responsibility. As a result, textbooks can be used effectively and intelligently. The supervisory staff should also see that the materials are supplied quickly upon the request of the teachers. This will be possible by a well organized system of supervision.

6) **Research Programme**: A neglected function of supervision in our system is the conducting of research into instructional procedure and curriculum design. In this age of science and technology, when many new ideas are coming, research at every stage of education is essential. Therefore, the research programme comes under the scope of supervision. A well developed supervisory staff can encourage effective research practices in the school system.

7) **Dissemination of knowledge**: Dissemination of knowledge is another important function of supervisory staff. To improve dissemination of ideas, teacher Supervision, headmaster groups, workshops and curriculum planning activities etc., should be encouraged.

8) **Supervision of Co-curricular Activities**: Modern schools should not only be a place of instruction, but also a place of joyous participation in a total and full life for the entire school community. Students should be humming with life throughout the day. Our playgrounds and libraries, laboratories and debating halls should throb with life. School should be a place of different co-curricular activities throughout the year. Therefore organization and management of co-curricular activities come within the range of supervision. The supervisory staff can bring life to the programme and can make it effective programme.

9) **Supervision of School Records**: A school has to maintain certain records, reports and registers. They are indispensable for the successful working of the modern school.
18.3 Qualities of an Effective Supervisor

1. **Availability**: Availability can mean a lot of things, both tangible and intangible. On the tangible side, it means being physically present at work. Of course, you’re not going to be at your desk every second of the day, but being away all day, every day by traveling too much, having too many off-site meetings, etc. isn’t productive. That also means keeping your calendar updated regularly. Personally, I’m a fan of making your calendar ‘public’ through Outlook. On the more intangible side, availability means being mentally present and available — and being clear about when you can’t be. If you are under a lot of stress for a major project, you need to let your supervisees know that you won’t be able to help them think through a project. But don’t let the ‘can’t’ times take over the ‘can’ times or you’ll create problems.

2. **Mission-focus/priority-setting**: Here is what priority setting comes down to: **Figure out what is most important. Do that first.** It is that simple and that difficult. In a nonprofit environment (every environment really) it is essential. We are mission-focused organizations and everything we do, everyday, should help us achieve that mission.

3. **Transparency**: Not every decision needs a full, 360 degree explanation, but lots of secrecy is frustrating and ultimately dis-empowering to those you supervise. Being transparent also means admitting when you’re wrong or when you don’t know the answer. No one is perfect and if you constantly try to hide behind a perfect image, the downfall will be that much harder.

4. **Delegation**: Delegation is arguably the hardest of these skills to learn and perfect. Delegation basically means transferring decision-making authority to another employee for a task not necessarily within one’s job description while still retaining ultimate responsibility for the task. There are three key pieces of this:
   - Responsibility - setting clear expectations, but not step-by-step instructions on how something should be done
   - Authority - the delegatee is given the right to make decisions
   - Accountability - delegatee is responsible for the work, but delegator has ultimate responsibility

5. **Taking Responsibility and Giving Credit**: When you delegate authority, you are responsible for what your supervisee does. You must take responsibility for the mistakes. BUT - you must also give credit for the good things.

6. **Realism**: Again, simple: DO NOT make commitments that you and your staff can’t keep. Promising the world to a funder, sponsor or partner does no one any good -especially if you can’t deliver. Putting that extra pressure on your employees (not to mention yourself) just creates all kind of unnecessary stress. You also need to be realistic about what you can do as a supervisor - don’t be a bottleneck.

7. **Great communication skills**: As a supervisor one must communicate clearly and correctly to avoid misunderstandings and frustrations. When receiving information from a subordinate, she should be sure to receive it correctly - There is no harm in asking again if necessary.

8. **Adapt to the changes**: World is changing at a fast pace. The efficient supervisors ought to keep up with it. Do not just blindly follow the age old norms and rules. Think out of the box if required. Adjust to the needs of the organization.

9. **Value the employees**: The people are any supervisor’s real asset. They are ones running the business and the work. A good supervisor understands their worth and treats them accordingly.
10. A coacher/mentor: Share your experience. A good supervisor shares her wisdom, knowledge and experience with the employees. She helps them perform better. This also strengthens the bond and the trust between them.

11. Disciplined: If a supervisor is disciplined then only can she expect the people to be so. The boss is an example - Come on time, meet the time-lines, set a behavioral code if necessary.

12. Feedback/incentives: Promotions, feedback, raises and accolades should be showered on the deserving people.

13. Be an example: Be hands on - Do not just always delegate. At times the boss should take on projects too. She may try picking up something less attractive or uninteresting and complete it wonderfully. This sets an example to all the team about taking up challenges and about how any work is important.

14. Be approachable: The employees should not hesitate in approaching the supervisor with their concerns and problems. An efficient supervisor will make sure that there is enough trust and openness between her and the employees for the latter to come to her with their grievances.

15. Be considerate: People are not just employees. They have families, friends and a life beyond work. Unless there is something urgent, do not make them work beyond the usual hours. Let them have their weekends and vacations. Be practical when setting the time-lines. This all will in turn improve the efficiency and the productivity of the employees.

Self Assessment

1. Fill in the blanks:
   (i) ______ is conceived as an integral part of instructional system.
   (ii) The ______ can help teachers to master a variety of formal and informal evaluation techniques.
   (iii) ______ is developed with a view for cooperative help, sharing of ideas, coordinate etc.
   (iv) ______ is an important skill of supervisor to avoid misunderstanding and frustrations.
   (v) Supervisor should have ______ to make the environment employee friendly.

18.4 Summary

- In the educational literature, we come across words like ‘aims’, ‘purpose’, goals’ and ‘objectives’. The terms are used interchangeably and loosely. It should be observed that the dictionary equates ‘objectives’ with ‘goals’.
- Therefore, the instructional planners and specialists have recommended the following as the objectives of supervision.

  (i) Helping Teachers to Plan for Instruction: Instructional planning is considered as the first step in the improvement of instruction. Therefore, it is recommended that the supervisor should help the teachers to develop and improve skills in instructional designs and to use a model of instruction as guide to instructional panning.

  (ii) Helping Teachers to Present Instruction: Lesson presentation involves a complex variety of component skills. The supervisor should help the teachers to translate their module and lesson plans into action and to select and use appropriate teaching strategy.

  (iii) Helping Teachers to Use Modern Methods of Teaching: Methods of teaching are an important art of presenting instruction in the classroom in an effective manner. Therefore, the supervisor should help the teachers in using modern methods of teaching in the classroom.

  (iv) Helping Teachers to Evaluate Instruction: Evaluation is conceived as an integral part of the instructional system. For this reason, evaluation should always be present and continuing.
Notes

(v) Helping Teachers with Classroom Management: A teacher not only teaches classes but manages them, or more properly, manage the learning environment in such a way that learning can go on. The skills which the teacher employs for this purpose are called classroom management.

(vi) Helping Teachers with Curriculum Development: The word curriculum has different meanings to different people. To some people the curriculum consists of all the experiences undergone by children wherever they may be: in school, at home, on the street. To others, the curriculum is a set of subjects which students ‘take’.

(vii) Helping Teachers to Evaluate the Curriculum: Evaluation is a fundamental part of the curriculum development process. It is through evaluation that teachers learn whether or not stated objectives have been reached.

(viii) Helping Teachers to Evaluate Themselves: Most teachers develop antagonistic attitudes and fears towards evaluation.

(ix) Helping Teachers to work Together: Unless one lives in deserted island, much of one’s life from the cradle to the grave will be spent in groups of some kind or another. Most of the word’s work is conducted through group interaction.

(x) Helping Teachers through In-service Programmes: Every year on the campuses of hundreds of training colleges several thousand people receive the long-awaited B. Ed. degree which certifies that they have successfully completed their teacher training programme.

(xi) Helping Teachers in Providing Them with a Reasonable Workload: Another important objective of supervision is to look to the teaching load of the educational programme.

• Methods of Supervision
  
• The instructional plans can be actualized and will result in certain learning outcomes for students by the valid supervisory methods. Without methods, it is impossible to know to what extent one can attribute certain learning results.

• Collaborative Supervision
  
• Collaborative supervision is a recent idea. It developed with a view for cooperative help, sharing of ideas, coordination etc., in the process of supervision.

• Scope of Supervision
  
• The educational institution is assumed to be a sub-system of a group of interdependent parts which exist for the purpose of contributing to the overall goals of the organisation.

• This is done through the following functions which come under the scope of supervision.
  
(i) Technological and Psychological Support System for Teachers.

(ii) Supervision of Curriculum Design.

(iii) Continuing Professional Development of the Staff.


(v) Selection, Allocation and Development of Materials and Equipment of Instruction.

• Technological and Psychological Support System for Teachers: Development of human resources in the teaching situation requires efficient supervision of instruction.

• Supervision of Curriculum Design: Supervision of curriculum design is essential for the improvement and development of curriculum. Most of our schools neglect this.

In our school system the individual schools and the individual teachers should be encouraged to move ahead on their own experimentation and innovation in the programme of curriculum development.
• Continuing Professional Development of the Staff: The changing nature of what is to be taught and how it is to be taught demands the development of new understandings and skills on the part of teachers. Therefore, professional development of the staff comes under the scope of supervision.

• Evaluation of Teaching-Learning Process: The focus of the evaluation should be on the outcome of instruction and learning rather than the instructional process itself.

• Selection, Allocation and Development of Materials and Equipment of Instruction: The supervisory staff has the responsibility for locating and making available the materials and equipments of instruction that are appropriate, because teachers do not have time to get informed about them.

• Research Programme: A neglected function of supervision in our system is the conducting of research into instructional procedure and curriculum design.

• Dissemination of knowledge: Dissemination of knowledge is another important function of supervisory staff. To improve dissemination of ideas, teacher supervision, headmaster groups, workshops and curriculum planning activities etc., should be encouraged.

• Supervision of Co-curricular Activities: Modern schools should not only be a place of instruction, but also a place of joyous participation in a total and full life for the entire school community.

• Supervision of School Records: A school has to maintain certain records, reports and registers. They are indispensable for the successful working of the modern school.
  • Availability: Availability can mean a lot of things, both tangible and intangible. On the tangible side, it means being physically present at work.
  • Mission-focus/priority-setting
  • Transparency
  • Delegation
  • Taking Responsibility and Giving Credit
  • Realism
  • Great communication skills
  • Adapt to the changes
  • Value the employees
  • A coacher/mentor
  • Disciplined
  • Feedback/incentives
  • Be an example
  • Be approachable
  • Be considerate
  • Positive attitude
  • Criticize constructively

18.5 Keywords

• Effective: Producing the result that is wanted or intended.
• Leadership: The state or position of being a leader.
• Strength: The quality of being physically strong.
18.6 Review Questions

1. What are the objectives of supervision?
2. Give the different methods of school supervision.
3. What are the qualities of an effective supervisor?

Answers: Self Assessment

1. (i) Evaluation (ii) Supervisory activities
   (iii) Collaborative supervision (iv) Communication skill
   (v) Positive attitude

18.7 Further Readings

Objectives
The objectives of this unit can be summarised as below:

• To explain about the need for Planning the Supervisory Programme
• To discuss about the Objectives of Planning the Supervisory Programme
• To describe about the Principles of Planning the Supervisory Programme
• To discuss about the Steps in Planning the Supervisory Programme
• To describe about the Need for Organizing the Supervisory Programme
• To explain about the Types of Organization
• To discuss about the Principles of Organizing the supervisory Programme
• To describe about the Organization of Educational Supervision in India.

Introduction
It is more so for supervision which is a very complex and complicated process. Supervision involves many different persons and things. First, there is the group learners who come from different home backgrounds and belong to different socio-economic strata and various age-groups. They possess different abilities, capacities, intelligence, interests, aptitudes, personalities and have different needs. Second, there is the group of educational workers, both teachers and others. They, too, are of different ages, capacities and temperaments. They have different outlook on life and philosophy of education. Their knowledge of subject-matter is of a wide variety both in quality and quantity. They believe in
different theories of learning and, therefore, in the technology of education. Third, there is the vast field of human knowledge and achievement from which we choose different subject-matters, learning materials, activities and experiences for the benefit of the young. Fourth, the available resources for education are of a wide variety and differ not only from place to place, or school to school, but also in the same school from time to time. Fifth, various aims and objectives of education claim our attention. These, too, vary from one locality and community to another. Sixth, there is rapid development of educational theory as a consequence of continuous technological, economic and social changes going on around us. As a result, educational practices also change rapidly and there is an ever increasing expansion of the demands of educational service.

19.1 Need for Planning the Supervisory Programme

The following points clarify the need for planning in supervision:

1. Planning ensures close study of needs and resources: Planning the supervisory programme necessitates careful and close examination by the workers of the pupil’s needs, interests and purposes, the availability of materials and resources, and the demands of society. In other words, planning ensures a realistic appraisal of the whole teaching-learning situation.

2. Planning stimulates Professional effort: The educational workers should have a clear idea of the aims and objectives of education they are striving to achieve. They have to design appropriate activities and experiences, analyse and systematise them so that when undertaken they run smoothly in the desired direction. Planning ensures that the workers make this effort. “There are many advantages inherent in the fostering of professional growth...The good modern supervisor recognizes these advantages and does everything possible to participate in planning opportunities for and with staff members...”

3. Planning clarifies the what and why of the educative process: All educational activities and experiences, the subject-matter and technology, etc., should be purposeful. Through planning the workers come to understand both the nature and the purpose of the required educational effort. It helps to secure the cooperation of the workers and the coordination of their efforts.

4. Planning gives security and confidence to the workers: Planning lays down a clear-cut and definite course of action. Armed with the knowledge of what and why of the educative process the workers come to possess self-confidence. They know they are proceeding in the right direction and so feel secure, inspired and enthused.

5. Planning provides the criteria for evaluation: The workers want to know whether the outcomes of their activities are of the desired and expected standard. For this, they have to evaluate quite frequently the results of their efforts. This reveals shortfalls and helps undertaking remedial measures. Evaluation needs definite and precise criteria against which judgment is to be made. Planning helps in setting up valid criteria for objective and reliable appraisal of the worker’s abilities and the outcomes of their activities.

19.2 Objectives of Planning the Supervisory Programme

The purpose of supervision is to improve instruction. The supervisory programme has to meet four points. These are: “(1) helping teachers with their individual problems, (2) coordinating the total instructional program, (3) providing for the continuous in service development of teachers and staff, and (4) providing proper and adequate instructional materials.” There are two approaches to planning the supervisory programme, (1) long-range, and (2) short-term. The long-range or broad planning refers to the wholesale improvement of the work of many teachers by developing instructional materials and teaching guides, etc., through committee work. The short-term or concentrated planning is concerned with individual teachers and helping them to solve their particular problems. Both these approaches are essential and should proceed side by side. They supplement
each other. From the cumulation of short-term planning can emerge long-range plans of improvement. The planning of supervisory programme should be undertaken with the following objectives in view:

1. **Unification and integration of educational effort**: The programme should be planned with the purpose of co-ordinating the various resources and materials and unifying the effort of all workers. Supervision “needs to be encompassed in a program that represents unity. Only then, can purpose, planning, and organization be assured. A properly conceived program represents effort directed toward a common goal.” Unification of effort can be achieved by a continuous review and re-statement of the objectives of education, a continuous review and revision of the curriculum and a sound administrative organisation. All this must be done co-operatively by the supervisors, administration and teachers. “Frequent meetings of the supervisory staff is one of the best safeguards against scattered effort and the subsequent frustration or confusion on the part of teachers.”

2. **Improvement of the knowledge and skills of the teacher**: The centre of all supervisory effort is the teacher. “The teachers hold the key position in any program of instruction, and consequently in any program of instructional improvement.” Hence, the supervisory programme “should be planned around the work, the thinking, and the attitudes of teachers.” In this connection it should be remembered that “…establishing a good program is dependent upon overcoming among teachers a feeling of futility about supervision.” Improvement in teachers’ knowledge and skills is of paramount importance. The supervisory programme should offer all possible opportunities to participate in co-operative planning of policies and procedures, to exercise leadership and creativity by trying out new ideas experimentally.

3. **Incorporation of the latest trends**: Teaching is a complicated process and there are rapid developments in educational theory and practice. Reeder says, “Pedagogical theory and accompanying instructional practice are today, like most of our other cultural institutions, in a period of rapid change and development.” Improvement in instruction can, therefore, be accomplished only if school practices keep abreast of the changes in educational thinking and practice. Educational workers should keep up to date with the new educational literature. The supervisor’s special duty in this regard is to bring the latest developments to the notice of the workers through a continuing programme of inservice education. The supervisory programme should be planned in a way to offer opportunities for this. “A continuous program of inservice training through supervision is the price which school systems must pay if they would keep abreast of the truth which the profession is discovering.”

4. **Improvement of the teaching-learning situation**: The central purpose of the supervisory programme is the assessment and improvement of the teaching-learning situation, the constituents of which are the pupils, teachers, curriculum, materials and equipment and the physical and social environment. For effective supervision it is necessary to appraise and improve these matters. Also things like buildings and other physical conditions, work loads instructional material, products and outcomes of education and conditions likely to bring success and better achievement should be studied. Similarly, the needs, interests and study habits, etc., of students should be improved. The supervisory programme should take care of all these things.

5. **Promotion of Good Relationships**: Nothing can be achieved from any activity if the workers are in a state of tension. “Supervision depends for full effectiveness upon the existence between teachers and supervisors of a common ground of agreement as to the essentials of the educational program” The best classroom is one in which prevails the atmosphere of a good home. In other words, healthy relationships between teacher-to-child, child-to-teacher and child-to-child must exist. Similarly for good supervision supervisor-administrator-teacher relationship must be developed. It should be noted that such relationships are the result of gradual growth and development through mutual understanding, goodwill and close co-operation.
19.3 Principles of Planning the Supervisory Programme

The main purpose of supervision is to improve instruction. This requires critical thinking and so the supervisory programme has to be based on intelligent thought process. Dewey says, “The sole direct path to enduring improvement in the methods of instruction and learning consists in centering on conditions which exact, promote and test thinking.” The programme of supervision should therefore be governed by well-thought and well-defined principles which are:

1. **The supervisory programme should be formulated co-operatively**: The democratic philosophy of education demands that administrators, supervisors, teachers, pupils and the members of the community, all should participate in formulating the programme. Such cooperative planning has been found very effective “Most of those who have experimented over the past three or four years would probably agree that the most successful method of realizing worthwhile objectives in modern teaching is through group planning in all areas.” The programme shows the direction in which all persons concerned with instruction should make efforts. The goals of education and instruction have been set cooperatively and the energies of all the workers must be co-ordinated towards their attainment. Hence, cooperation is essential. The supervisor should act as a democratic leader in the process of planning. He “expects that his followers will have the same personal ideas that he has and be no with different from himself, except that he recognizes that in certain of the ideals some of his followers may be superior to him.”

   If something goes wrong in the execution of the plans the members of the group should explore the reasons for the difficulty and work out a solution for themselves. In planning the programme participation of all workers should be secured. Supervision “enlists the cooperative efforts of the entire staff in the study of the educational problems of the school. Much attention is directed to the function and operation of group processes; and contribution of all members as members of the group is provided for and encouraged.”

2. **The supervisory programme should be derived from the situation**: The programme should be based on the facts of the situation, the physical and material setting and the needs of the persons involved. Different schools have different traditions, courses of study, text-books, equipment and environment and teachers with different backgrounds of training and experience. Children, too, differ. So situations are different. No one method of instruction or its improvement can prove valuable. “The principal works with teachers in groups and as individuals to help them and himself to discover how the total teaching-learning situation might be improved.” The facts of the situation should be carefully observed and critically examined and analysed and on this basis correct and concrete steps for action should be planned. Standard tests and other techniques should be used to obtain a clear and complete picture of the situation. For study of pupils’ needs modern techniques of observation and appraisal of understandings, attitudes and values and appreciations should be employed. Situation is best studied by observing the activity, noting the continuous on going change and analysing its complexity. For all this supervision has to provide an effective leadership. “Today’s teachers are less in need of training in service, more in need of able leadership to foster growth as teachers and to coordinate their efforts to operate a good school. The purpose of modern supervision, therefore, is to supply the leadership which will help the staff to improve the instructional situation.”

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3. **The supervisory programme should be planned with an experimental outlook**: In an earlier chapter we saw that today’s thinking was permeated with the scientific approach. The new
concept of supervision is that it is experimental in nature. “One of the foundation stones of the emerging philosophy and practice of supervision is the belief that current practice should always be questioned, examined, evaluated, and placed under the searching light of critical analysis and that such analysis should be applied to supervisory practice itself.” This is necessary because educational workers have to perform work of a highly creative type. “To study and to understand thoroughly statements of values and of general principles and then to translate these into workable and successful techniques of action, requires a highly creative mind.” Dewey, too, is of the opinion that useful and usable material comes only out of critical thinking. “The skill at the ready command of intelligence is the skill acquired with the aid of intelligence; the only information which, otherwise then by accident, can be put to logical use is that acquired in the course of thinking.”

4. **The supervisory programme should be flexible** : The experimental approach in planning implies that decisions are not final. Plans have to be modified in the light of experiences gained. The situation is ever changing. This necessitates constant adjustment and modification in the programme. In other words, the supervisory programme should be flexible. Easy channels for free and frequent contact and communication between the members also help flexibility because mutual consultation and re-adjustment become easier. It is also necessary that the objectives should be definite and small in number. The plans should also be made simple. At the same time uniformity and standardisation must be avoided.

5. **The Supervisory Programme should provide for its own appraisal** : The programme should have a built-in system of evaluation. It should lay down in advance the evidence that would be regarded as a proof of its efficiency, i.e., the criteria of its effectiveness should be laid down beforehand. What objective observations, what test scores, what changes in pupil behaviour and teacher behaviour would be regarded as indicators of the success of the supervisory effort must be decided in advance at the time of planning. Evaluation is necessary and this too should be done cooperatively.

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**Did you know?** To increase flexibility co-operative planning is essential, because then the group understands the aims and purposes to be achieved and the members are able to adjust and re-adjust the programme according to the needs of the situation.

### 19.4 Steps in Planning the Supervisory Programme

The purpose of supervision is continuous improvement of the educative process. This requires appraisal of the current teaching-learning situation planning for progress. For this, the following steps are necessary:

1. **Evaluation of the educational product** : At the time of policy-making and before launching the educational programme we should, formulate the aims and objectives in terms of pupil growth and achievement. The generally accepted outcomes of education are knowledge and understanding, skills and abilities, interests and attitudes, appreciations and values, and application and transference of learning and experiences. Pupil growth and achievement are based upon their nature and needs, capacities and activities. The educational product should be evaluated from time to time in the light of the previously defined objectives. For surveying and appraising these we have to set-up appropriate criteria and devise and employ tools and procedures of appraisal of all these things. There should follow an analysis of the conditions and the pupil’s reactions to the educational programme. Suggestions for improvement should be invited from all the concerned persons including the pupils.
2. **Analysis and appraisal of the teaching-learning situation**: The chief constituents of the teaching-learning situation are the learners, the teachers, the curriculum and the socio-physical environment. In order to understand the current state of the situation we should study and appraise all these aspects: (1) the learners' individual and group abilities like intelligence, needs, interests, aptitudes, likes and dislikes, social capacity, etc., their state of health and level of maturity; (2) the teacher's academic and professional knowledge, personal background, training, experience, teaching techniques, needs and problems as observed by the supervisor, and also their opinions, suggestions and proposals as expressed by them; (3) the curriculum, courses of study, classroom procedures, objectives of the lesson, teaching techniques, instructional material and the socio-physical conditions of the lesson, etc., and analysis of the observation report of the lesson based on Flander's “interaction analysis” system or some other technique; (4) survey of the socio-physical environment in which the educational process is carried on. This includes study of the administrative policy, provision of physical facilities, the survey of the community conditions and analysis of the aims and objectives of the curriculum.

Of special significance is the study of conditions that help or hinder the learner’s development and growth. We should specially find out and discuss with the teachers the possible causes that led to good or poor teaching. In the light of all these facts we should formulate a tentative programme for improving the situation with special reference to the local conditions and resources. While planning the procedure for improving we should remember that the teaching-learning situation is an integrated whole of all these aspects, so we should secure a unified picture of the situation in order to understand and improve it.

3. **Improvement of the situation**: The study of the situation should be supplemented by new ideas and experiments in educational theory and practice. Education is a dynamic process. Philosophic thought and scientific experimentation throw open new doors to methods and techniques in the field of educational aims, procedures, curriculum and services, etc. Progressive education demands trial of new ideas and technology and adoption of practices found useful in the local situation. We should prepare a list of improvements that can be profitably introduced and these should be put into operation.

4. **Selection of problems requiring attention**: From the study of the teaching-learning situation will emerge a picture of the needs, difficulties and problems requiring attention. Selection of these should be made through group discussion. The total picture comprises of the evaluation of the product, analysis of the situation and the new ideas available and to be tried. Some of the problems call for immediate attention and short-term measures should be devised to solve them, while others require long-term measures. Problems under both the categories should be stated clearly and definitely. Policies should be formulated and means of achieving them decided and employed.

5. **Development of a programme of action**: After selection of the problems it is necessary to formulate a programme of activities that should be launched to improve the conditions and product of learning. The activities should be cooperatively planned under supervisory leadership. Individual as well as groups should be encouraged and helped to study and attack the problems through meetings, study groups, conferences, extension courses, summer schools, experiments, visits, etc. The guiding purposes of all these activities should be examining pupil needs, interests and attitudes, observation of classroom teaching and improvement of curriculum and text-books and instructional material, etc.

6. **Evaluation of the effectiveness of the supervisory programme**: The supervisory programme is of value to the extent of its effectiveness in achieving its own accepted objectives. This should be judged through standard methods of appraisal to determine the degree and direction of the success of the programme. The prerequisites for this are the criteria and means of appraisal which should be decided upon in advance. This evaluation should lead to the improvement of the supervisory programme itself. Here too, the cooperation of all the concerned persons must be secured.
Self Assessment

1. Fill in the blanks:
   
   (i) Planning ensures a realistic ______ of the whole teaching-learning situation.
   
   (ii) The short term or _____ is Concerned with individual teachers and helping them to solve their particular problem.
   
   (iii) The centre of all supervisory effort is the ______.
   
   (iv) The activities should be Cooperatively planned under ______.

19.5 Organizing the Supervisory Programme

Having, planned the supervisory programme we should proceed to organise it. Organization refers to the structured responsibilities and relationships allocated to the various executive and supervisory positions in a field of employment. It refers to the structure or the form of the organization, the vertical and horizontal lay-out of the power positions in the organization. Organization refers to two things—the structure or machinery of organisation and the process of organizing. The former refers to the positions and persons occupying them, and the latter refers to relationships, direction, control, authority, coordination, etc., that is the functions and processes through which the efforts of the workers flow.

Organization of the supervisory programme has to take cognizance of both these elements. The organizational pattern of supervision is the systematic array of anticipated requisite tasks appropriate to the achievement of instructional purposes, woven into an organic structure of defined positions with described power or control relationships.

19.6 Need of Organizing the Supervisory Programme

The following considerations indicate the need for organizing the supervisory programmes:

1. Organisation is needed to meet the ever-increasing demands of the educational enterprise:
   In recent times, the machinery of organisation has become very complex. Due to social change, technological advancement and the complexity of the needs of everyday life, the school of today has to perform multifarious duties, for which it has to set-up an appropriate machinery and offer an ever-increasing number of services to the children and the community. It should, however, be remembered that much more important than the machinery are the functions for which it has been set-up, namely, the realisation of the goals of education. The systematic arrangement of duties and relationships between the people occupying the various positions are necessary for the accomplishment of group purposes. Due to the complexities of demands, the school system has to be divided into two departments, one dealing with the services and the other with the subjects and fields of the curriculum. The department of services includes things like attendance, library, guidance, care for exceptional or defective children, etc. The department of curriculum may be combined with supervision and then it may be called the department of instruction. Organization is needed separately for each of these departments and also collectively to coordinate their activities.

2. Organization is needed to combine together various youth services: The various school services should be coordinated with similar other outside agencies, such as child guidance clinics, public health and recreation agencies, boy scouts, museums, zoos, public libraries, public parks, neighbourhood clubs, hobby centres, parent-teacher associations etc. Besides the school, many other public institutions can offer indirect educational service, such as fire, police, traffic, juvenile courts, etc. “School people want to work with other community organizations dealing with youth, so that each may contribute to the work of the other and more clearly relate the work being done for youth. The school people are also anxious to have the advice and support.
of the general public." There should now be made a move to combine both school and community services into one department which may be named the department of youth welfare. An appropriate organization, both structure and process, is needed for the purpose.

3. **Organization is needed to integrate the academic activities of the school** : Supervision is mainly concerned with instruction in academic subjects. With the growing complexity of life more and more subjects are being added to school studies. Lest instruction should remain isolated it is necessary to integrate these in order to produce a better total effect. "The school system involves the efforts of many professional as well as non-professional personnel, teachers, supervisors, administrators, whose specialised abilities must be meshed in the working agreements that make all expended energy and talent serve the purpose of the educational enterprise." A large number of persons is, therefore, needed to participate in supervision. There is need for supervisors, assistant supervisors, principals and heads of departments in large secondary schools for supervisory duties. They should also be supplemented by doctors, psychologists, counsellors and research workers, etc.

4. **Organization is needed to realise the goals of the supervision and education** : A systematic organization is indispensable for the forward flow of efforts of the educational workers. Without a proper and strong organisation no activity can possibly run smoothly and successfully. The chief purpose for establishing an organizational pattern is to clarify functions and relationships between various person, involved in the organization’s operation." The purpose of administration is to provide instruction and that of supervision is to improve it. The aims of education can be realised only when the workers know what others are doing and when they pool together their talents and efforts.

19.7 **Types of Organization**

Broadly speaking, there are two types of organizations autocratic or authoritarian and democratic. Both these have their characteristic features, merits and demerits.

1. **Autocratic or Authoritarian Organization** is of the traditional type. The authority is centralised in the key person or head, who has been legally appointed to look after the organization. He is responsible to run the institution, and the policies and techniques of the school programme including instruction are directed by him. Sometimes, in big schools the authority and power may be delegated to junior officers who are directly responsible to the head. There is quick communication between the central authority and individual workers so that they can be easily contacted and ordered to carry out definite directions. There is an hierarchy of positions defined by seniority, generally determined by the sweet will of the administrator and not by superiority of knowledge, skill or capacity. All suggestions and prescriptions of duties and activities come from one person and may be passed down the line; and performance is checked in the same manner upward. Staff officers are also appointed in big establishments. They are subject specialists and instructional consultants, but they have no executive powers.

Generally, the central authority is concentrated in the principal or departmental heads in big schools. They visit individual teachers’ classes, meet them individually to solve their problems. Students are also assisted individually. The experts exercise indirect influence and leadership. They prescribe the courses of study provide instructional material or guides. They also lay down standards and train the workers whenever necessary. The authoritarian leader remains in the focus of the group’s attention. He emphasises their obedience. He maintains “segregation within the group and must see that intragroup communication is kept to minimum except in so far as it is through him and focussed upon himself he renders himself the key to all group action and eventually becomes indispensable.”

These characteristics of the autocratic organization reveal its many weaknesses or demerits. In such an organization conflict, friction and antagonism soon develop. There is repression of
individual personalities and no attempt is made to utilise the intelligence and talent of the juniors. There is great wastage of both talent and energy. Activities are duplicated; and due to lack of distribution of responsibility important activities and services quite often remain neglected. The greatest disadvantage of such an organization are two. Firstly, even a temporary withdrawal of the key person or head precipitates a crisis. “When the cat is away the mice will play.” Secondly, lack of inter-personal communication within the group reduces the morale of the workers.

The authoritarian organization is still quite popular and is used widely in our country as well as in other countries of the world. Though, it is being gradually replaced by the leadership-oriented or democratic pattern of supervisory organization, it is hoped that it will be used for a long time to come. The leadership-oriented organization is based upon leadership instead of authority and is formulated co-operatively by all the concerned persons. Theoretically, it is no doubt superior to authoritarian organization of supervisory programmes. But, in practice it requires for being effective a high level of socialization and acculturation of people who have to operate it. Rorer has described two types of authoritarian organizations, internal, and external. The external organization deals with the machinery and personnel of a system. The internal organization deals with the functioning of the machinery.

In case of the external organization the authority is centralized in the legally appointed person at the head. For example, the district inspector of schools in Uttar Pradesh is responsible for the general instructional policy of the department of education and the principal of a school is the executive-in-chief with supreme responsibility in his school. He is directly responsible to the district inspector of schools. The authority and responsibility may be delegated by the district inspector to inferior officers. In this case, the performance of duties at a particular level are checked by the next higher authority. The principal or a departmental head is both an administrative and a supervisory officer.

In case of internal organization facility for co-operation and co-ordination is provided and there is a common policy, theory of education, technology, philosophy and aims for all. The next higher officer co-ordinates the work of officers and other persons. At the highest level there is the director of education who co-ordinates the functioning of the deputy directors. The deputy director co-ordinates the functioning of all the district inspectors of his region. Cases of conflict or disagreement between any officers or groups are settled by the next higher administrative officer and ultimately by the director of education. One preferable feature of this kind of organisation is that there is flexibility of operation in this. When the need arises adjustment of duties, transfer of work, assignment of additional duty is possible. These features counteract, in some measure, the inherently un-democratic nature of authoritarian organization.

Authoritarian organizations are found, in the countries of the world, in different forms. One of these was named by Barr long ago. It is extrinsic-dualistic organization. In this case supervision was considered "extrinsic" to an educational organization. This consideration was responsible for dualistic conception of administration and supervision. As held by Barr extrinsic-dualistic organization has no central authority, no definition of lines, no mechanisms for co-operation, nor any modern method for co-operative formulation of procedures. The line and staff organization is another form which is found in its pure form in the army. In this kind of organization, line officers are those who are in authority and who issue orders. Authority descends along regularly defined “lines” from top officer to the lowest one. No officer at any point can be superseded when approaching the officer higher to him. Through “proper channel” procedures are strictly followed. Staff-officers are specialized experts belonging to professional and technical services. They have no authority and issue no orders though they may have equivalent ranks. Their duties are to supply information, give advice or technical assistance to the line-officers. This kind of organization due to the rigidity of its functioning is considered suitable for army, publishing companies, manufacturing concerns, etc., but not for the schools and other educational
systems. The line-officers in school systems are the director of education, deputy directors, district inspectors education officers, principals and vice-principals, departmental heads and other officers on special duty who are given authority from the head of the system. The staff officers include statisticians, psychologists, counsellors, librarians, physical education directors, curriculum experts, etc., and many other persons belonging to service divisions (clerical and office assistants, etc.) who serve the entire system.

Many variations of line-and-staff model of organizations are found. Three common models are described by Burton and Brueckner. These are:

1. Line-and-staff with vertical supervision of instruction.
2. Line-and-staff with horizontal supervision of instruction.
3. Coordinate line-and-staff which usually follows the horizontal or divisional plan.

In vertical organizations supervisors work throughout all levels from primary to higher secondary level. In horizontal organizations they work only at a given level, elementary, junior or secondary. The co-ordinate line-and-staff is, in fact, a variation of the line-and-staff with horizontal supervision. The extra feature of this is the stress on the co-ordinate nature of the activities of line-and-staff officers. According to this activities of the line-and-staff officers are considered co-ordinate functions. Staff officers in this kind of organization serve only the given level of education, elementary or secondary and so on. In this kind of organization the principal of a school and the inspector of the school both are assumed to be interested in the improvement of the instruction. They work in collaboration with each other. Thus, this model emphasizes and encourages co-operation and integration under an authoritarian system.

The forms of supervisory organizations described above have no exactly similar examples anywhere in the world. Everywhere they are found with differences here and there only indicating the dominant trend. In India and her various states the organization of supervisory services is, largely, modelled on the pattern of the line-and-staff with characteristics of both the vertical and horizontal organization.

2. Democratic Organization, in most respects, is diametrically opposed to the autocratic organization. Here, authority is based on superiority of knowledge, skills and capacity and not on legal sanctions. So authority instead of being centralised in one person is shared by all. Every worker is required to contribute his best to group purposes and group welfare. The talents of all workers are utilised fully. Channels of communication are kept wide open. There is maximum possible participation of all workers in determining policies, procedures and final evaluation. Each individual personality is respected and considered of supreme value. There is no hierarchy of positions. Equality is practised in all matters. In the democratic organization coercion is replaced by persuasion and authority by leadership. Emphasis is placed on mutual relationship and respect for one another. The leader protects the group and is concerned with the satisfaction of the aspirations of each individual. With the sharing of responsibility and power and pooling together of abilities the level of production is considerably raised. In such an organization “leadership is a means, rather than an end in itself ...the effectiveness of any leadership technique lies in its acceptability to the followers.”

Democratic organization is basically leadership-oriented. Eight principles of democratic organization relate to its external organization, the machinery and personnel while the three relate to its internal organization, functioning of its machinery. These are (1) authority residing in the situation (2) authority shared by all participants, (3) responsibility assumed by leadership (4) educational leadership and responsibility shared by all (5) leadership exercised all stages (policy formulation and policy execution) by securing participation of all concerned, (6) group made rules, mechanisms and procedures (7) shared responsibility, exercising initiative and performing functions as desired by the group. The three characteristics of the internal
The advantages of the democratic organization are not far to see. It helps to unite administration and supervision functionally. In the long run, cooperation proves far superior to imposition in promoting efficiency of all workers. Policies, procedures, rules and regulations made by all the workers will be followed more faithfully than those imposed by a central authority. The democratic organization is able to achieve better production and higher satisfaction and morale of the workers. We should, however, guard against one serious danger. Facilities set up for group welfare and good human relations may be overdone and become ends in themselves. Smooth running may be given greater importance than the required aims and objectives. Realisation of the goals of education, development of individual personalities and improvement of society should never be lost sight of.

19.8 Principles of Organizing the Supervisory Programme

In India we have accepted the democratic philosophy of life and education. “The enunciation of a democratic philosophy of education and the analysis of the implications of such a philosophy for the schools have caused many to reconsider their way of working with people. Research in the field of social psychology on the formation and productivity of groups has made clear that people work together better and with greater effectiveness when the members participate in establishing goals and in formulating work methods.” The principles of democratic organization may be briefly stated as follows:

1. **The Principle of Participation**: The principles of democracy necessitate wider and fuller participation of educational workers, laymen and experts, administrators, teachers, students and members of the public. The supervisor “wants to use all the intelligence of all the faculty members. He will apply it to the establishment of faculty structure as well as to the solution of problems.” Participation is necessary for the formulation of policy, its planning, execution and evaluation. It may also be useful in areas such as improvement of the curriculum, methods of teaching and welfare of youth. “A program of improvement in curriculum and methods of teaching in particular can succeed only as public leaders, publicists, and all lay groups concerned with the welfare of childhood and youth are carried along as part of the new program.” Public leaders can help in conducting surveys of local needs and in securing financial support. Of course, they cannot help much in the solution of professional and technical problems like implications of research or inservice training programmes. Technical decisions should best be left to the professional leaders.

Lay participation ensures that policies and plans are kept closer to the needs of the community, that they become real and practical. Democracy believes that everybody is endowed with some measure of creativity and is capable of making some contribution. So deliberate effort must be made to invite and utilise everybody’s contribution. Even the students’ contribution produces excellent results and should be welcome.

Supervision should secure the cooperation of all concerned in programmes of activity. For this, councils, committees and conference groups should be organized to serve definite purposes. Free and easy channels of communication and operation accessible to all should be set up. Harold Spears has suggested that for improvement of organisation regular meetings of administrators, supervisors and teachers should be held on fixed days of the month, schools policy council should be set up and a curriculum council should be created and a sound educational philosophy should be developed by the entire school family. It is also necessary to have “a publicity campaign to advise, inform and carry the public along with professional development.”
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2. **The Principle of Coordination**: Cooperative determination of policies, procedure, structure and relationship of machinery raises the important administrative problem of coordination. “Coordination of this huge list of services and of persons must be achieved for the greater good of the teaching-learning situation.” A good educational programme demands unity of purpose and effort on the part of all workers. This is a difficult task for the educational leader to achieve. Leadership is best exercised by full participation of all concerned. For exercise of leadership and responsibility, rules, procedures, mechanisms and their relationship should be determined by the group and not imposed from above. This will develop favourable attitude towards the activity. The leader should coordinate the energy and effort of all persons engaged in the educative process. Duties and responsibilities should be shared by administrators, supervisory staff, teachers and students. They should all develop likemindedness and identity of purposes. Coordination will help exercising initiative and getting things done without duplication of activity and wastage of energy.

3. **The Principle of Leadership**: Democratic procedure is slow but sure. We have seen earlier that in a democratic organization authority is replaced by leadership and power and responsibility are shared by all school officials, administrators, teachers, pupils and the community. Of course, the chief responsibility rests with the people occupying positions of leadership, but it is shared by all and not centred in any one person. The leaders should encourage initiative in leading. It should be remembered that authority is derived by persons from the situation. We have to understand what the situation is, and what its needs and demands are. We have also to consider what resources of men and material are available and what known facts of educational theory are applicable to the situation. Centralised authority should be replaced by democratic authority, which means that it should be shared by all, either by delegation or rotation. “Since the function of organization has been established as a means and not an end, the value of all agents, agencies and organization forms and practices should be determined on the basis of their contributions to the achievement of educational objectives.”

A democratic organization can be run only by a democratic leader. For this, he needs to possess particular qualities and characteristics. Briefly stated these are:

(1) A democratic leader knows that he is not selected because of his seniority or social or political power, but because of his superiority of knowledge and skill, some special ability or fitness for a particular job. He should have ability and power better than those of the other members of the group. As jobs differ from situation to situation and require different patterns of abilities, it is not necessary that only the legally appointed leader would exercise leadership on all occasions. It follows that any member of the group may become the leader at a given time for a given situation.

(2) A democratic leader must be able to create the necessary climate of cooperation. For this, he should suppress his own urge to dominate; rather, he should have the urge to help, inspire and guide the other members of the group in defining, analysing, understanding and solving problems. He should draw personal satisfaction from other members’ activities and contributions.

(3) A leader must be able to gain sympathetic insight into the thoughts, motives, attitudes, ideals and aspirations of the other members of the group. With an understanding of the level of his colleagues he works patiently to improve it and waits for the result of his efforts.

(4) A leader should be willing to recognise the intelligence and understanding of the other members which are superior to his own and regard them as his own asset. He is willing to recognize ability, creativity and leadership in others and not regard these as his exclusive possessions. He is willing to listen to and understand the proposals of others and welcomes their contributions.
(5) A leader should be responsible for coordinating the abilities, talents, capacities, enthusiasm and effort of his colleagues.

(6) A leader should be sensitive to the proper time for group discussion and decision. He is prepared to take the responsibility for and consequences of others’ actions on himself.

(7) A leader should have more than average intelligence and a good and stable emotional equilibrium.

(8) A leader must have confidence in himself, his aims and purposes and abilities. At the same time, he must possess utmost humility.

(9) A leader must possess confidence and faith in the goodness of human nature and its possibilities for progress and improvement.

4. The Principle of Flexibility: Democratic organization is dynamic and flexible. A supervisor cannot “strike off at one point in time an organizational pattern that will remain adequate through a long tenure in office ...changing purposes in education call for different or additional specialized services that must be provided. It is also a matter of adapting the organizational pattern in order to accommodate the changing school purposes and procedures.” The supervisory organization should, therefore, be adaptable to the teaching-learning situation which is continuously changing. It should provide for coordination and integration of plans, procedures and outcomes. As insight, interest and experiences are gained the teaching-learning situation develops and improves. The organization has to be adjusted to this and, therefore, it must be modifiable easily. But at the same time, it should maintain continuity. This can be done by framing rules and regulations cooperatively by appointing committees for specific purposes and by holding occasional conferences. These steps will result in willing acceptance of obligations and responsibilities by all workers.

5. The Principle of Rotation: Thinkers and writers on administration have pointed out that continued exercise of authority brings deterioration in the administrator’s behaviour. He becomes deliberately selfish and does not care for the effect of his activity and behaviour on other persons. He relies solely on his own judgement, avoids discussion and sharing of ideas and responsibilities and power. Consequently, he commits mistakes. Power corrupts him and security of position makes him disregard local conditions and needs. He neither studies nor tries to grow. For fear of losing tenure he gets into rut and routine. He becomes conservative and withholds all progressive measures. All this holds not only for administrators but also equally well for teachers.

6. The Principle of Group Discussion: Mention has already been made that democratic organization relies on the formulation of policies and plans and their implementation through
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Group discussion and group decision. This technique can be made scientific and effective by taking the following steps:

(1) A problem arises: It may be a problem connecting policy, reorganization of the curriculum, an aspect of teaching-learning or use of some visual aid. It may relate to the staff or students or the community. It may come from any source, staff, students or the community. It may result from the shortcomings revealed by the process of evaluation, or from a teacher desiring to launch an experiment or from some findings of research.

(2) The problem is stated: It may be stated by the leader, the administrator, supervisor, the head of a department or the guidance worker or any one else. It may be stated even by a group. As discussion proceeds, it is clarified more and more and may have to be reshaped, redefined and restated.

(3) The implications and solutions are considered: The discussion group will generally consist of all persons, each one of whom is expected to contribute to the finalisation of a solution. If the whole group is too large, discussion may be held at a committee or even a sub-committee level. All the implications are studied and several possible solutions are suggested.

(4) A machinery is set-up: As discussion proceeds there may arise the need for further study, consulting literature or undertaking some research. Suggestions are offered by the members of the group or collected from other sources. The leader should coordinate them.

(5) Further discussion is held: The democratic principle emphasizes that all persons of the group are capable of making a unique contribution and have the right and responsibility to do so. They should be encouraged to contribute. Then, any one from the group may assume temporary leadership for the discussion. Some one makes a suggestion, another suggests a modification. A resource person or specialist suggests a remedy. Analysis and debate follow and the temporary leader then formulates, on the basis of the discussion held, some tentative action and the group concurs.

(6) The decision is tried out: The tentative decision is now put into action and an individual or a small committee collects the experiences gained or the data observed.

(7) Rediscussion takes place: In the light of the experiences or conclusions drawn from the data the problem and its solutions are again discussed by the group and a final action is formulated and implemented. Thus, policies, plans and procedures are suggested, discussed, a tentative solution is tried out and rediscussed and modified. In this way, growth, progress and improvement should go on continuously.

In conclusion, we agree with Kimball Wiles that “To improve instruction supervision must provide leadership that develops a unified school programme and enriches the environment for all teachers; the type of emotional atmosphere in which all are accepted and feel that they belong; opportunities to think and work together effectively as a faculty group; professional procedures that give the teachers confidence in the school system; and program change based on honest evaluation.”

Functional Way of Organizing Supervisory Programmes

An entirely different point of view on organizing supervisory, programme has been presented by Burton and Brueckner. Their organizational types are based on the specific objective to be achieved. Looking from this point of view there are, depending upon the objective to be achieved, four types of organizations of supervisory programmes: (1) Creative (2) Constructive (3) Preventive (4) Corrective. They hold that only when supervision is organized both as a creative art and as a science will instruction and instruction procedure be improved. The aims and objectives of educational supervision according to them are (1) to clarify the goals of education and special roles of each level of education to the professional staff (2) to help teachers understand and identify the needs of the pupils (3) to provide leadership in improving and developing the staff, in promoting harmonious and cooperative staff-relations (4) provide for effective inservice education of teachers (5) to build
staff morale (6) to determine the work for each teacher he is best suited for (7) to help teachers solve their problems and develop their professional capabilities. Thus, they feel that the organizational format for the supervisory programme must be clear as to what is to be achieved. The means used must be selected on the basis of their being relevant for achieving the desired results.

19.9 Organization of Educational Supervision

It is difficult to describe the supervisory organization of Education in India as there is no one pattern of this in the country. Education in India had been a state subject till recently. It has been put, now, on the concurrent list. But, the organization and control of education is still within the preview of the states. Since the number of states in India is very large and there is no uniformity of organizational patterns of education over these states a wide diversity of administrative and supervisory structures is found in the education departments of these states and union territories. There are many reasons of this diversity. Some of them are historical, some political and others topographical.

The National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration, New Delhi has classified all Indian States and union territories into four categories. Their classification is based on the number of structural layers. According to the survey of this Institute three union territories of Chandigarh, Lakshadweep and Dadra-Nagar Haveli have a unitary type administrative set-up under a single Director of Education who is responsible for administering the entire department of education. He is helped in supervision of educational institutions by District Education Officers (DEOs), one each for primary, middle and high/higher Education (in Chandigarh), by Education Officers and Assistant Education Officers (in Dadra and Nagar Haveli and Lakshadweep). In Lakshadweep there are separate assistant education officers for the supervision of academic and physical education. In addition, there is a social education organizer also of the status of assistant education officer. Each one of them has his own area of supervision which is indicated by his designation. These officers are responsible to the Director of Education.

The four states of Manipur, Meghalya, Nagaland and Tripura and the Union territories of Arunachal Pradesh, Goa and Pondicherry have a two-tier system of educational administration — the state level and the district level. At the state level there is a Director of Education (Nagaland, Tripura, Goa and Manipur) or a Director of Public Instruction (Meghalaya). The Director of Education is supported by District Education Officers (D.E.O.) or District Inspectors of Schools (DIOS) and Assistant Education Officers. In Tripura the inspectorate consists of assistant inspector of schools at primary education level, inspector of schools at middle education level, zonal deputy director at high and also higher secondary education level. In other states and territories also inspectors of schools and deputy Inspectors of schools constitute the main inspectorial staff.

In seven states, Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Haryana, Gujarat, Punjab, Sikkim and West Bengal and also in three Union territories of Andaman Nikobar Islands, Delhi and Mizoram there is a three-tier system with a directorate at the state level supported by Divisional and District Officers. Eleven States, namely, Bihar, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu and Kashmir, Karnataka, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Orissa, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, and Uttar Pradesh, have a four-tier system of administration and supervision. These four-tiers are the state level, regional level, district level and block level. In some states, and union territories there is the Director looking after education at all stages as the executive head of the Directorate. In some other states there are separate Directors for primary, secondary, adult and higher education. Jammu and Kashmir has two Directors of Education—one for boys and the other for girls. There is a separate directorate for primary and adult education in Gujarat. In Sikkim and West Bengal the Director of Public Instruction is also the ex-officio secretary of Education.
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Self Assessment

2. State whether the following statements are ‘true’ or ‘false’.
   
   (i) organization refers to be structured responsibilities and relationships allocated to the various executive and supervisory positions in the field of employment.

   (ii) The leadership oriented organization is based upon leadership instead of authority.

   (iii) In vertical organizations supervisors work only higher level.

   (iv) The principles of democracy necessitate only a small amount of participation of educational workers.

19.10 Summary

• Planning ensures close study of needs and resources
• Planning stimulates Professional effort
• Planning clarifies the what and why of the educative process
• Planning gives security and confidence to the workers
• Planning provides the criteria for evaluation
• Objectives of Planning the Supervisory Programme :
  
  • The purpose of supervision is to improve instruction. The supervisory programme has to meet four points. These are : “(1) helping teachers with their individual problems, (2) coordinating the total instructional program, (3) providing for the continuous inservice development of teachers and staff, and (4) providing proper and adequate instructional materials.”

• The planning of supervisory programme should be undertaken with the following objectives in view :
  
  (i) Unification and integration of educational effort
  (ii) Improvement of the knowledge and skills of the teacher
  (iii) Incorporation of the latest trends
  (iv) Improvement of the teaching-learning situation
  (v) Promotion of Good Relationships

• Principles of Planning the Supervisory Programme

• The main purpose of supervision is to improve instruction. This requires critical thinking and so the supervisory programme has to be based on intelligent thought process. Dewey says.
  
  (i) The supervisory programme should be formulated co-operatively : The democratic philosophy of education demands that administrators, supervisors, teachers, pupils and the members of the community, all should participate in formulating the programme.

  (ii) The supervisory programme should be derived from the situation : The programme should be based on the facts of the situation, the physical and material setting and the needs of the persons involved.

  (iii) The supervisory programme should be planned with an experimental outlook

  (iv) The supervisory programme should be flexible

  (v) The Supervisory Programme should have provide for its own appraisal

• Steps in Planning the Supervisory Programme
• The purpose of supervision is continuous improvement of the educative process.

(i) Evaluation of the educational product: At the time of policy-making and before launching the educational programme we should, formulate the aims and objectives in terms of pupil growth and achievement.

(ii) Analysis and appraisal of the teaching-learning situation: The chief constituents of the teaching-learning situation are the learners, the teachers, the curriculum and the socio-physical environment.

(iii) Improvement of the situation: The study of the situation should be supplemented by new ideas and experiments in educational theory and practice. Education is a dynamic process.

(iv) Selection of problems requiring attention: From the study of the teaching-learning situation will emerge a picture of the needs, difficulties and problems requiring attention.

(v) Development of a programme of action: After selection of the problems it is necessary to formulate a programme of activities that should be launched to improve the conditions and product of learning.

(vi) Evaluation of the effectiveness of the supervisory programme: The supervisory programme is of value to, the extent of its effectiveness in achieving its own accepted objectives.

• Organizing the Supervisory Programme

• Having planned the supervisory programme we should proceed to organise it. Organization refers to the structured responsibilities and relationships allocated to the various executive and supervisory positions in a field of employment.

• The Need for Organizing the Supervisory Programme

• The following considerations indicate the need for organizing the supervisory programmes:

(i) Organisation is needed to meet the ever-increasing demands of the educational enterprise: In recent times, the machinery of organisation has become very complex.

(ii) Organization is needed to combine together various youth services: The various school services should be coordinated with similar other outside agencies, such as child guidance clinics, public health and recreation agencies, boy scouts, museums, zoos, public libraries, public parks, neighbourhood clubs.

(iii) Organization is needed to integrate the academic activities of the school: Supervision is mainly concerned with instruction in academic subjects. With the growing complexity of life more and more subjects are being added to school studies.

(iv) Organization is needed to realise the goals of the supervision and education: A systematic organization is indispensable for the forward flow of efforts of the educational workers.

• Types of Organization

• Broadly speaking, there are two types of organizations autocratic or authoritarian and democratic. Both these have their characteristic features, merits and demerits.

(i) Autocratic or Authoritarian Organization is of the traditional type. The authority is centralised in the key person or head, who has been legally appointed to look after the organization. He is responsible to run the institution, and the policies and techniques of the school programme including instruction are directed by him.

These characteristics of the, autocratic organization reveal its many weaknesses or demerits. In such an organization conflict, friction and antagonism soon develop.

In case of the external organization the authority is centralized in the legally appointed person at the head.
In case of *internal organization* facility for co-operation and co-ordination is provided and there is a common policy, theory of education, technology, philosophy and aims for all. Authoritarian organizations are found, in the countries of the world, in different forms. One of these was named by Barr long ago. It is *extrinsic-dualistic* organization.

(ii) Democratic Organization, in most respects, is diametrically opposed to the autocratic organization. Authority is based on superiority of knowledge, skills and capacity and not on legal sanctions.

- **Principles of Democratic Organizing**
  - In India we have accepted the democratic philosophy of life and education. “The enunciation of a democratic philosophy of education and the analysis of the implications of such a philosophy for the schools have caused many to reconsider their way of working with people.
  - (i) The Principle of Participation: The principles of democracy necessitate wider and fuller participation of educational workers, laymen and experts, administrators, teachers, students and members of the public.
  - (ii) The Principle of Coordination: Cooperative determination of policies, procedure, structure and relationship of machinery raises the important administrative problem of coordination.
  - (iii) The Principle of Leadership: Democratic procedure is slow but sure. We have seen earlier that in a democratic organization authority is replaced by leadership and power and responsibility are shared by all school officials, administrators, teachers, pupils and the community.
  - (iv) The Principle of Flexibility: Democratic organization is dynamic and flexible. A supervisor cannot “strike off at one point in time an organizational pattern that will remain adequate through a long tenure in office...changing purposes in education call for different or additional specialized services that must be provided.
  - (v) The Principle of Rotation: Thinkers and writers on administration have pointed out that continued exercise of authority brings deterioration in the administrator’s behaviour.
  - (vi) The Principle of Group Discussion: Mention has already been made that democratic organization relies on the formulation of policies and plans and their implementation through group discussion and group decision.

- **Functional Way of Organizing Supervisory Programmes**
  - An entirely different point of view on organizing supervisory programme has been presented by Burton and Brueckner. Their organizational types are based on the specific objective to be achieved. Looking from this point of view there are, depending upon the objective to be achieved, four types of organizations of supervisory programmes: (1) Creative (2) Constructive (3) Preventive (4) Corrective.
  - It is difficult to describe the supervisory organization of Education in India as there is no one pattern of this in the country. Education in India had been a state subject till recently. It has been put, now, on the concurrent list. But, the organization and control of education is still within the preview of the states.
  - The National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration, New Delhi has classified all Indian States and union territories into four categories. Their classification is based on the number of structural layers.
  - The four states of Manipur, Meghalya, Nagaland and Tripura and the Union territories of Arunachal Pradesh, Goa and Pondicherry have a two-tier system of educational administration — the state level and the district level.
In seven states, Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Haryana, Gujarat, Punjab, Sikkim, and West Bengal and also in three Union territories of Andaman Nikobar Islands, Delhi, and Mizoram, there is a three-tier system with a directorate at the state level supported by Divisional and District Officers. Eleven States, namely, Bihar, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu and Kashmir, Karnataka, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Orissa, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, and Uttar Pradesh, have a four-tier system of administration and supervision.

19.11 Keywords

- **Communication**: The activity or process of expressing ideas and feeling or of giving people information.
- **Delegation**: A group of people who represent the views of an organisation, a country, etc.
- **Optimistic**: Expecting good things to happen or something to be successful showing this feeling.

19.12 Review Questions

1. What is the need for planning supervisory activity?
2. What are the objectives of planning supervisory activities?
3. Give the principles of planning supervisory activity.
4. Explain the organizing supervisory programme?

**Answers: Self Assessment**

1. 
   - (i) Appraisal
   - (ii) Concentrated planning
   - (iii) Teacher
   - (iv) Supervisory leadership

2. 
   - (i) T
   - (ii) T
   - (iii) F
   - (iv) F

19.13 Further Readings

Unit 20: School Inspection

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20.1 Meaning of School Inspection
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Objectives
The objectives of this unit can be summarised as below
• To explain about the meaning of school inspection
• To discuss about the principles of good inspector
• To describe about the qualities of good inspectors
• To discuss about the selection of inspection
• To explain about the recommendations of the education

Introduction
According to this Despatch the inspectors have been told to report regarding current conditions of schools and to organise or help in conducting the examination of students. In fact, this situation continued till about a century. Then for bringing the improvement in this situation, British government tried to take an important step, with the result in India, in 1936 observation of education was made to do by Abott and Wood. The specialists found great difference in the functions of inspectors of India and Britain. Both the specialists told “Main function of inspector is to inspect school. He should do this function with sympathy and dexterity and give counsel on the basis of his knowledge and experience.” According to this suggestion the inspector was entrusted with the function of providing advice and encouragement. But in the real practice the situation remained the same as it was already or before.

Aforesaid suggestion was given according to inspection of England where important changes were done in the concept and practice of inspection gradually. There is to sufficient extent, it began to be given help in progress of direction work in schools with democratic way. But in India, no important steps were taken for changing concept and practice of inspection. Even today in India the same meaning is attached with inspection which was prevalent in British era in India.
Present Position of Inspection: In India, the practice of school inspection was established on the recommendation of Wood’s Despatch of 1854, which brought private enterprise into the educational field in a big way. It was then decided to conduct the inspection of schools, specially the private ones, to see whether they fulfilled the conditions for recognition by the Education Department and those for the Government grant-in-aid. Out of this grew the old concept of inspection with its functions of control and maintenance of schools. This old concept largely persists even today. Inspection is more or less authoritarian and rigid and offers little for professional guidance of teachers. The inspecting officer “supervises” class-room instruction because of his superior official position and supposed superior skill. His is only a teacher-centred inspection concerned with rating and grading of teachers in an extremely subjective manner, exercising whims and caprices to criticise them. Such inspection has nothing to do with the teachers’ professional growth or the improvement of the teaching-learning situation.

20.1 Meaning of School Inspection

According to dictionary, meaning of inspection is to give test and test meant is to probe with easy and critical view. In the area of education also this sort of test is reflected from the inspection of school with activities related to education and conditions. The school with activities related to education and conditions. The school inspector is appointed by government goes to various schools at times. There he tests some classes, laboratories and play grounds. Besides, he receives some other informations by asking questions from principal / headmaster and teachers and by doing inspection of registers regarding office, financial matters with view of critical appreciation. The information received in this way and on the basis of self-observation, inspector prepares his report, and produces the report before his high officials. This report comes in the hands of various officers and each officer gives his remarks on it and passes it to next one. In this way the remarks are entered on it. With the result, when it reaches the principal, the lot of situation has changed which was criticised in the report. Thus, the result of inspection to a great extent auto-matically goes meaningless.

20.2 Principles of Good Inspection

Inspection, in order to be effective and fruitful, should be conducted according to certain principles which may be listed as:

1. **Principle of General Growth:** Inspection should contribute to the general efficiency of the school and to the professional growth of the teacher.

2. **Principle of Understanding:** Inspection should be done very sympathetically. An inspector should carry with him an abundance of sympathy.

3. **Principle of Scientific Attitude:** inspection implies the impartial observation of facts. The inspector must maintain a scientific and critical attitude and should be free from prejudices.

4. **Principle of Thoroughness:** Inspection should be very comprehensive and through. It should not merely be concerned with the financial aspect of school management and administrative details but should cover all aspects of school work.

5. **Principle of Esprit De Corps:** Inspectors should try to assess the spirit of a school in addition to its instructional work. The spirit of school may be gauged from the records of staff meetings, co-curricular activities and any experimental work done in educational methods. The standard of discipline on the playing field and outside the class in a sure index of the spirit of a school.

6. **Principle of Appreciation:** The individuality of the teacher’s method should be respected. The inspector should not insist on ‘deadly uniformity’. He should try to understand the methods employed by the teachers and appreciate the good points they contain.

7. **Principle of Justice:** The inspectors should be judicious in their criticism of the work of the teachers. They should not be ‘misers’ in giving praise when it is deserved.
(8) **Principle of All-Round Development**: Inspection should not be cursory in character. At least two or three days should be devoted. The work of the teacher should not be judged in a few minutes. More careful and longer supervision is necessary. Doing is always better than telling. Demonstration lessons by an inspector are more useful than pages of suggestions. However, it must be stressed that it is a when an inspector finds a class weak in a subject or finds unsatisfactory methods being used by the teacher. Such a step is likely to lower the prestige of the teacher in the eyes of the students.

(9) **Principle of Reality**: The inspecting staff should not expect impossibility. They should understand the local conditions perfectly well and then decide for themselves what progress may reasonably be expected.

(10) **Principle of Integration**: The written work of the students should be carefully assessed. In the case of subjects with practical work such as science, agriculture and drawing, the inspectors should always get practical work done by the students.

(11) **Principle of Linkage**: Inspection should not be confined to the four walls of the school. As the school is to serve the community and is intimately connected with it, the inspector should help the school to develop proper contacts with the community and to improve its relations with people.

(12) **Principle of Planning**: Inspections must be planned in advance. They should not be a hit-or-miss affair. A good-planned inspection will have a set of clearly stated objectives and will contain an outline of the devices, means and procedures which are to be used in the attainment of these objectives. It will also include a clear out-line of the criteria, checks or tests which are to be used to the results of inspection in order to determine the success or failure of the programmes.

(13) **Principle of Cooperation**: The academic work of the school should be thoroughly checked by a panel of experts with the Inspectors as chairman. Inspection should be planned in such a way as cooperation of all concerned is readily available.

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**20.3 Qualities of Good Inspector**

Brilley suggests that the motto of an Inspector should not be, “Cheek your teachers, frighten your teachers, weaken your teachers, and examine them,” but its variant, “Train your teachers, inspire your teachers, encourage your teachers and trust them.”

(1) **Man of Educational Vision**: He should be aware of new trends in education, latest techniques in education and recent problems in the field. He should not merely assess the academic achievements of the school but also the all-round progress of the school should occupy his attention.

(2) **Man of Faith**: There is no use of being impatient, for growth and improvement always take time. The inspector must have a far-reaching programme, but putting through it, he should proceed item by item.

(3) **Man of Experiments**: He must be an experimenter. An able inspector will select forward-looking schools where the teachers and the headmasters have a progressive outlook on education.
and are imbued with the spirit of experimentation and will turn these schools into nurseries wherein the seeds of educational reform and progress are sown, cared for and their progress carefully watched and the message carried to other schools.

(4) **Man of Planning** : The inspector should plan his work thoroughly and should not undertake it at random.

(5) **Man of Sympathy** : He should always show respect for the teacher’s personality. A good inspector in one who can inspire and enthuse the teachers without domination over them like a harsh task master. He should place the teachers on a footing of human equality. He should be co-operative, sympathetic and affectionate.

(6) **Constructive Mind** : An inspector should possess a constructive mind rather than a destructive one. He should never undertake a visit to a school with the pure objective of fault-finding. An inspector who fails to praise when commendation is deserved, is failing as much in his duties as one who fails to criticise when criticism is deserved. He should have a problem-solving attitude and should help teachers in tacking the problems with which they are faced.

(7) **Organising Capacity** : As he is to serve as ‘teacher of teachers’; he should have the capacity to organise refresher courses, meetings, seminars and discussions.

(8) **Expert in Various Subjects** : An inspector should be a specialist in many languages and subjects. This is particularly important in our schools where different media of instruction are followed.

(9) **A Liaison Officer** : An inspector should be a friendly liaison officer between the department and the field workers, a mediator linking up scattered educational experiences and experiments. Hart of the California University, a specialist in school administration, has enumerated seven abilities which every administrator and supervisor should possess in ample degree to discharge his duties well. The first is the ability to recognise the especially worthwhile things that are taking place in the school system. The second is to organise the school system so that essentially worthwhile things discovered are spread throughout the system. The third is to overcome the inefficiencies of others without losing their good will. The fourth is to set goals that are within the reach of an individual. The fifth ability is that of making everyone in the school system feel the worth whileness of his job. The sixth is that of helping everyone in the system to grow professionally and grow in-service to society. And the seventh is to make those who work for or with the administrator or supervisor personally happy.

(10) **Supervisor as a Good Administrator** : Expert in playing various roles include:

(i) Personnel administration-appointment, promotion and transfer of the teaching, non-teaching and inspecting staff, their performance, appraisal and disciplinary control.

(ii) Financial administration sanctioning and disbursement of grant-in-aid, disbursement of teacher’s salaries, audit and inspection of accounts.

(iii) Dealing with disputes between teachers and management and attending to quasi-judicial cases.

(iv) Dealing with local bodies and the Panchayat Raj institutions.

(11) **Role as a Supervisor and Inspector** : A supervisor should be able to provide academic leadership and technical advice for improving the teaching-learning process.

(12) **Role as Professional Leader and Innovator** : He must be an expert in organising orientation programmes, refresher courses, in-service training programmes, dissemination of new ideas and popularisation of tested good practices, encouraging experiments and other innovations.

(13) **Role as Development Generalist and Planner** : This implies adequate training and capability in co-operating and collaborating with other departments in the overall development planning of the district, formulating, implementing and evaluating educational plans at the district, regional level; guiding and promoting programmes at the institutional level.
(14) Role as a Bridge Builder Between the School and the Community: A supervisor should be adept in fostering good public relations; securing community participation for improving and developing educational institutions; making institutions conscious of the need to serve the community better.

To sum up the qualities of an inspector, it may be stated that he should a man of learning, faith, pains taking with life and energy and imbued with a spirit of progress and experimentation and above prejudices of all petty personal affiliations.

Did u know? The expenses incurred on inspection in all the States are very meagre. The Study Group (referred to above) found that the expenditure on inspection and direction varies from 0.6 to 3.0 per cent of total expenditure on education from State to State, with the all-India average of 2.2 per cent.

20.4 Selection of Inspectors

In view of the multifarious functions an inspection is expected to perform, it is very essential that sufficient care is taken in the selection of the inspecting personnel. It is suggested by the Secondary Education Commission that a person to be chosen as an Inspector should possess high academic qualifications (an Honours or Master’s degree with teacher’s training) and should have had teaching experience in schools for at least ten years, or should have been a Headmaster of a High School for a minimum period of three years. In addition to direct recruitment the Inspector should also be drawn from:

(i) Teachers of ten year’s experience.
(ii) Experienced Headmasters of High Schools,
(iii) Qualified staff of Training Colleges.

The Commission further recommends that suitable persons from any of three categories may be appointed as Inspectors for a period of three to five years after which they may revert to their original posts. This will enable them to appreciate the position of the Inspector and to approach the problems of the schools with greater appreciation of the realities from their own experience.

The Zakir Hussain Committee has substituted the word ‘Supervisor’s for inspectors. According to this report an efficient and supervisory staff is almost as important for the new schools as well trained teaching personnel. Supervision is a fairly supervised work and we would recommend that provision should be made for the training of supervisor to meet the ever-growing needs of an expanding school system. The minimum qualification for a supervisor. According to the Zakir Hussain Committee, should be complete training as a basic school teacher together with at least two year’s experience of successful teaching and a year of special training in the work of supervision and administration Supervision should not be mere inspection, it should mean personal co-operation and help offered by one who knows more to a less experienced or less resourceful colleague. Supervisors should indeed be able to play the role of leaders and guides in the educational experiment. In order that the more important obligations of helpful guidance and leadership may be properly fulfilled. It is necessary that the load of unavoidable and administrative routine should be as light as possible. Therefore there should be an adequate number of supervisors and the supervisory districts should not be un-manageably large. This will mean greater expense but economy here will be a bad economy.
20.5 Recommendations of the Education Commission

Recommendations of the Education Commission (1964-66,) on the Strengthening of the Inspectorate: The Kothari Commission writes about his role: "Is hardly necessary to emphasize the importance of the District Education Officer and his establishment at the district level. He is charged with the leadership function in relation to the district as the Director is in relation to the State. He supervises the educational institutions at the school level and is assisted by one or more deputy inspectors and a number of assistants or sub-deputy inspectors who are responsible for the inspection of primary schools. In some districts, he belongs to class I of the State service; but in a large number of other districts, he is still in Class II. In our opinion, neither status is adequate for the purpose."

"All things considered, the future of development and reform lies in strengthening the district offices of the Department, and making them service and supervision centres of all schools, and relating the State level Directorates only for general co-ordination and policy-making. This is the only way in which the weaknesses of the present departmental administration-rigidity, distance from schools, lack of contact with the local communities, emphasis on control rather than on service, etc.-can be remedied."

(1) The District Education Officer should be given adequate status. This can most conveniently be done by including this post in the proposed Indian Educational Service when it is created.

(2) There should be adequate delegation of authority to the direct level so that the district office can function with effectiveness and efficiency. In our opinion, the district office should virtually be the Directorate in so far as the schools are concerned, and the need for schools to go to the higher levels in administrative matters should be reduced to the minimum.

(3) With regard to the inspectorial staff at the district level. There are three are three main weaknesses at present; inadequacy of number; comparatively poor quality of personnel because of the inadequate scales of pay; and lack of specialization because most inspecting officers are ‘generalists’. All these limitations will have to be overcome. It is, therefore, recommended that an upgrading of the scales of pay and recruitment of a higher quality of officers should be done immediately. The Commission also recommends that there should be an adequate specialized staff at the district levels, e.g., in evaluation, curriculum improvement, guidance or special areas like physical education.

(4) It is also necessary to increase the strength of the district staff to cope with all the new responsibilities delegated to it. In particular, there is need to provide a small statistical cell in each district office. In is the absence of this staff that is mainly responsible for the inordinate delays that now occur in collection and publication of educational data.

(5) Similarly, a fair proportion of the staff at this level should consist of women officers, especially with a view to encouraging the education of girls.

20.6 Inspection and Supervision

Inspection refers to a specific occasion when a school is examined and evaluated as a ‘centre of learning’ in such a manner that suggestions may be given for its improvement and those suggestions are reported in a report.

It is an area of school organization, where we want on the one hand, to develop active and independent thinking and imagination and on the other we want the general conformity to roles and regulations also. Inspection is more or less authoritarian and rigid in nature. The inspection officers supervise classroom instruction because of their official position and supposed official skill. Such inspection does not help in the professional improvement of the teachers and improvement of instruction. At the time of visit the inspectors confine their attention to the inspection of departmental
Educational Management

Notes

rules and regulations, condition of building and equipments, position of staff, registers, records, accounts, government grants etc. Even then it is one of the several methods employed for inspection, the Sadler Commission (1919) said, “Inspection in most cases is hurried and lacking in the friendly suggestions as to method of teaching and organization which are the most valuable functions of school functions or school functions or school inspection”.

According to the report of the Hartog Committee (1929), “We have referred many times to the absence of an adequate number of well-qualified staff and ineffectiveness in the system of education, which we believe to be due in large part to that inadequacy.” The Secondary Education Commission (1952-53) remarked, “Inspections were perfunctory in that the time spent by the inspector at any particular place was insufficient, that the greater part of his time was taken up with routine work ‘Realising the defects of inspection, the Indian Education Commission (1964-66) emphasized on supervision and stated, that it was ‘one to the major programmes in the reform of school education’.

Supervision, on the other hand is a constant and continuous process of more personnel guidance based on frequent visits when attention is directed, to one or more aspects of the school and its organisation. It is a ‘Procedure of giving direction to and providing critical evaluation of the instructional process’. It is to coordinate, stimulate and direct the growth of the teachers. It gradually moves from the improvement of instruction to the improvement of learning. In a word we may say that supervision aims at the development of the teacher, the growth of the student and the improvement of the teaching-learning process.

**Task**

What is principle of integration?

### Self Assessment

*Fill in the blanks:*

1. _____ should contribute to the general efficiency of the school and to the ______ growth of the teacher.

2. The inspector should try to assess the spirit of a school in addition to its______.

3. An able inspector selects forward looking schools where the teachers and the headmasters have a ______ on education.

4. A good inspector must be an _____.

### 20.7 Summary

*• Meaning of inspection is to give test and test meant is to probe with easy and critical view. In the area of education also this sort of test is reflected from the inspection of school with activities related to education and conditions. The school with activities related to education and conditions.*

• Principles of Good Inspection

• Inspection, in order to be effective and fruitful, should be conducted according to certain principles which may be listed as:

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(iii) Principle of Scientific Attitude: inspection implies the impartial observation of facts.

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(ix) Principle of Reality: The inspecting staff should not expect impossibility.

(x) Principle of Integration: The written work of the students should be carefully assessed.

• Qualities of a Good Inspector

(i) Man of Educational Vision: He should be aware of new trends in education, latest techniques in education and recent problems in the field.

(ii) Man of Faith: There is no use of being impatient, for growth and improvement always take time.

(iii) Man of Experiments: He must be an experimenter. An able inspector will select forward-looking schools where the teachers and the headmasters have a progressive outlook on education and are imbued with the spirit of experimentation and will turn these schools into nurseries wherein the seeds of educational reform and progress are sown, cared for and their progress carefully watched and the message carried to other schools.

(iv) Man of Planning: The inspector should plan his work thoroughly and should not undertake it at random.

(v) Man of Sympathy: He should always show respect for the teacher’s personality. A good inspector in one who can inspire and enthuse the teachers without domination over them like a harsh task master.

(vi) Constructive Mind: An inspector should possess a constructive mind rather than a destructive one. He should never undertake a visit to a school with the pure objective of fault-finding.

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(viii) Expert in Various Subjects: An inspector should be a specialist in many languages and subjects.

(ix) A Liaison Officer: An inspector should be a friendly liaison officer between the department and the field workers, a mediator linking up scattered educational experiences and experiments.

• Selection of Inspectors:

• In view of the multifarious functions an inspection is expected to perform, it is very essential that sufficient care is taken in the selection of the inspecting personnel. It is suggested by the Secondary Education Commission that a person to be chosen as an Inspector should possess high academic qualifications (an Honours or Master’s degree with teacher’s training) and should
have had teaching experience in schools for at least ten years, or should have been a Headmaster of a High School for a minimum period of three years. In addition to direct recruitment the Inspector should also be drawn from:

- Recommendations of the Education Commission (1964-66,) on the Strengthening of the Inspectorate: The Kothari Commission writes about his role: “Is hardly necessary to emphasize the importance of the District Education Officer and his establishment at the district level. He is charged with the leadership function in relation to the district as the Director is in relation to the State.

- “All things considered, the future of development and reform lies in strengthening the district offices of the Department, and making them service and supervision centres of all schools, and relating the State level Directorates only for general co-ordination and policy-making.

- Inspection refers to a specific occasion when a school is examined and evaluated as a ‘centre of learning’ in such a manner that suggestions may be given for its improvement and those suggestions are reported in a report. It is an area of school organization, where we want on the one hand, to develop active and independent thinking and imagination and on the other we want the general conformity to roles and regulations also.

- Supervision, on the other hand is a constant and continuous process of more personnel guidance based on frequent visits when attention is directed to one or more aspects of the school and its organisation.

20.8 Keywords

- Dominant: more important, powerful or noticeable than other things.
- Exception: a person or a thing that is not included in general statement.
- Inspection: do check that everything is satisfactory.

20.9 Review Questions

1. What do you understand by school inspection?
2. Explain the principles of good inspection.
3. What are the qualities of good inspector?
4. Discuss the recommendations of education commission, on the strengthening ot the inspectorate.

Answers: Self Assessment

1. (i) Inspection, professional (ii) Instructional work
   (iii) progressive outlook (iv) experimentor

20.10 Further Readings

Unit 21: Application of Educational Management in Academic Areas

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21.2 Dimensions of Classroom Management
21.3 Sociometry of Institution
21.4 Programmes of Staff Development
21.5 Curriculum Development
21.6 Summary
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Objectives
The objectives of this unit can be summarized as below
• To explain about the Meaning of Classroom Management
• To discuss about Dimensions of Classroom Management
• To describe about the Sociometry of Institution
• To discuss about the Programmes of Staff Development
• To describe about the Curriculum Development

Introduction
The academic areas, like, student’s curriculum, classroom activities, teacher learning processes are back bone of any school, and management of these things are very important.

The Educational Management play a vital role in school academic areas.

Classroom Management is an integral part of school management, curriculum development is also necessary for children and teachers. We will discuss about these things in school management.

21.1 Meaning of Classroom Management
Classroom management is viewed as an organisational function in which tasks are performed in a variety of settings, resulting in the inculcation of certain values such as human respect, personal integrity, self direction, group cohesion, etc. When tasks are performed tensions are to be generated and these have to be solved. Tensions are related to or have a braining on certain situational factors and ideological in stances of schools and teachers (Johanson and Brooks, 1979).

In viewing classroom management from the conceptual point, one recognizes some of the recent approaches to management, such as management by objectives (MBO), behaviour modification,
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(positive and negative reinforcement), transactional analysis (TA) and contingency management. A comprehensive theory of classroom management is as elusive as a theory of instruction.

A distinction between tasks and activities may be indicated. The concept of activities refers to distinctive patterns of overt behaviour of teachers and students in classrooms. A task is defined as the way in which information-processing demands of an environment are structured and experienced. It is expressed in terms of a goal, and a set of operations designed to achieve the goals. A task gives meaning to an activity by linking various elements within an activity to a purpose or goal. In terms of classroom management, teachers perform various tasks such as planning, organising, coordinating, directing, controlling and communicating. Behaviour, therefore, can be understood in terms of tasks accomplished.

Teacher process is organized through classroom management. ‘Classroom management’ is defined operationally.

“A system of actions and activities are managed in classroom to induce learning through teacher-taught relationship or interaction.”

This definition of classroom management is very comprehensive which includes the major components of teaching in classroom. Teacher and students are the basic components for managing classroom activities. The mode of relationship between them depends in several factors. The action of teacher means non-verbal behaviour or use of body language which creates the emotional climate of classroom. The activities of teacher means verbal interaction or verbal communication, skills and competencies. The focus of classroom management is to facilitate student learning. Learning ranges from conditioning to problem solving.

The definition of classroom management indicate is the wide variation of its components. The following are the main approaches which are used in managing classroom activities. The concept of classroom management and principles of classroom management have been given at page 270 of the book.

The Approaches to Classroom Management

The following are the main approaches to manageing classroom activities.

(a) Herbartian approach — Herbart

(b) Evaluation approach — B.S. Bloom

(c) Managing Teaching learning — I.K. Devies

(d) Organizing teaching — Memory Understanding and Reflective levels

(a) Herbartian Approach : It is very old and classical approach. It has five steps- preparation, presentation, comparison, obstruction and generalization. It is content-centred approach to classroom management. It employs teacher controlled instruction (TCI). All the classroom activities are managed and controlled by the teacher and students are the passive listeners. It stresses on the memorization of content. It is known as thoughtless teaching.

(b) Evaluation Approach : B.S. Bloom has developed this approach to classroom teaching. It considers that teaching is tripolar process (1) Educational objectives, (2) Learning experiences and (3) Change in behaviour. The classroom management is to realize the educational objectives. The purpose of managing classroom activities is to provide learning experiences the students and objectives are measured with the help of change of behaviours. The classroom management is objective-centred. The classroom activities are managed for realizing the objectives.

(c) Managing Teaching Learning : I.K. Devies has given the management approach to teaching learning. A teacher has to play the role of manager and he has to manage classroom activities. This approach is based on the modern theory of human organization and relationships. Devies has given four steps for managing teaching (1) Planning (2) Organizing (3) Leading and (4) Controlling. The organizing and leading steps are related to classroom management. The
controlling steps provide the feedback to classroom management. According to Devies five learning structures are generated through classroom management from primary to higher stage. There is continuum and great variation in classroom management.

(d) **Organizing Teaching** : This approach assumes that teaching is a continuum from more thoughtless to most thoughtful i.e., memory to reflective level i.e., (1) Memory level, (2) Understanding level and (3) Reflective level. At memory level classroom management is controlled and dominated by the teacher. At understanding level classroom management is controlled by both teacher and the learners. At reflective level, the learners dominate, in managing classroom activities it is a problem solving stage of teaching. The classroom activities are managed in seminar and conference hall.

(e) **Modular Approach of Teaching** : Teaching models are used in managing classroom activities. There are various families of teaching models each family has own classroom management. A model consists of four fundamental elements - focus, syntax, social system and support system. The format of classroom management can be studies and analysed with the help of these elements. The syntax of managing classroom activities indicates the structure of learning. The variation of classroom management can be identified with this modular approach of teaching.

(f) **Operations of Classroom Teaching** : It is also known as phases or stages of teaching in classroom. A general format of classroom management requires three stages of managing classroom activities. (1) Pre-active stage (2) Interactive stage and (3) Post active stage. The interactive stage relates to managing classroom operations and activities, the pre-active stage activities are planned before the classroom. Thus, there is flexibility in managing classroom activities. This concept of operations of classroom is given by Karl Open Shaw.

### 21.2 Dimensions of Classroom Management

The approaches of teaching and classroom management reveal the great variation in the structure. These approaches provide the general format of classroom management. The classroom management consists of four dimensions.

1. Physical dimensions or environment.
2. Social and cultural dimensions.
3. Psychological dimensions and
4. Ethical considerations and value dimensions.

In managing classroom activities, a teacher has to consider these four dimensions. A brief description of these dimensions have been provided in the following paras.

1. **Physical Dimension or Environment** : A classroom is a functional unit of an educational institution. The location buildings lawns and classroom are designed by the manager or founder of the institution. The classroom management concerns with seating arrangement, light air arrangement and black board facilities. A teacher as manager has to look into these facilities of classroom physical setting which should be conducive to learning.

2. **Social and Cultural Dimension** : A classroom is a miniatures of the society as well as of an institution. A classroom management involves relationship social and cultural environment which depends on following.
   
   *(a)* Teacher and taught relation.
   *(b)* Relationship among students.
   *(c)* Relation between teacher and principal and
   *(d)* Relationship among teachers.

   It is a very classical phrase - *John and Latin.* 'Here John means students and Latin means content or subject mother. A teacher must know the background of his students and their entering
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behaviour and learning abilities and interest. Education is the creature and creator of the society. The new society is shaped in the classroom of an educational institution through a desirable social and cultural environment.

(3) **Psychological Dimension**: It is said that no learning without motivation. The main focus of classroom management is to facilitate learning. Teacher motivates his students verbally and through his actions (non-verbally). He also reinforces their desirable behaviours. In higher classroom teacher raises the level of aspiration of students. Teacher involvement in classroom management encourages the students participation. The psychological dimension plays a significant role in the students participation and their learning. It is a criterion for an effective classroom management.

(4) **Ethical Consideration or Value Dimension**: It is the most important dimension of classroom management. A teacher role in classroom management is more than a manager. Teacher is leader of the class and ideal to his students. He influences the students behaviour. He should look like a teacher and behave like teacher. He has to maintain classroom code and conduct which should be value based. This dimension of classroom management concerns with feeling, attitudes and values aspect of the students.

(a) **Intervening Components or Variables**: Teacher and students interaction in classroom depends on several components variables. These are known as intervening components or variables. The following are the main intervening variables of classroom management.

(1) Subject-content includes, terms, concept, facts, principles theories verbal language, problem solving and creativity.

(2) Teaching objectives cognitive affective and psychomotor.

(3) Strategies or methods of teaching are of teacher controlled instruction (TCI), Learner controlled instruction (LCI) action oriented instruction and group controlled instruction (GCI).

(4) Techniques and maxims of teaching.

(5) Teaching aids or audio-visual aids of teaching.

(6) Motivational techniques.

(7) Teaching skills and social skills.

(8) Communication competency and skills.

(9) Instructional procedure.

(10) Supporting devices of teaching.

All these teaching variables are taken into consideration while managing classroom activities.

**21.3 Sociometry of Institution**

An educational institution does not exist in a vacuum. The learners and the teachers reveal in their attitude and behaviour, the influences of the experiences they have had in their homes and community. As such, educational institutions—schools and colleges form part of society. They reflect its characteristics in many forms. Student-faculty members, both teaching and non-teaching, and administrators constitute the nucleus for the interactions that originate out of academic, psychological, and social situations of educational institutions. The quality of the interactions that lead to human relations within the institution and between the institution and the community is determined by the social and psychological structure of the students body and the faculty, the organisation and administration of the institution, the impact of learning experiences of the students and the institutional climate. The strength of the relationship in terms of mutual understanding, friendliness spirit of given and take, cooperative undertaking, democratic leadership and emotional stability envisages effective functioning of the educational institutions.
(1) **Teacher as the Focus** : The teacher is the significant figure in any educational institution in communicating with the learners in the classrooms and holding joint responsibility with the parents in the welfare of the learner’s education. Actually, two-way communication is desired—A teacher understand to the learners better by means of the knowledge of their home background and the parents getting to know the programmes in an educational institution and the part played by their offsprings in them. The teacher, the parents and the community generate manifold waves of inter-relationships which call for the understanding of the nature of the services they render and the points of view they hold. The teacher, the pivotal point in this educational enterprise needs to develop himself professionally and maintain a wholesome personality and a mature mind in order to strengthen the bonds of relationships.

(2) **Human Relations** : Human relations indicates the process by which individuals conceptualise and relate to each other as human beings and in turn, relate to others in their society, in specific contexts, such as educational institutions, medical institutions, industries, legal institutions, social institutions, etc.

Human relations in an educational institution is related to the interactions and inter-relationships generated by the personnel, directly and indirectly involved in the various activities of the institution. Some of the significant grouping of personnel whose human relations relate to the effective and efficient functioning of the institutions are—(i) Teacher-Learner relations, (ii) Learner-Learner relations, (iii) Teacher-Teacher relations, (iv) Teacher-Administrators relations, and (v) Teacher-Community relations.

Some authors have divided the ‘relationship’ as academic, social and constitutional but opinion differs in regard to this division as it is difficult to accept any clear demarcation between social and academic relationships.

(3) **Teacher-Learner Relations** : The learner’s behaviour as an individual, and especially as an individual interacting with the teacher and the other learners, depends to a great extent on the kind of teacher the learner has. If the teacher can satisfy the social and psychological needs of the students, favourable, attitudes are developed in the classroom. This may be carried out by the teacher in such activities as listening to the learners, responding to their suggestions, accepting their feelings, involving them in the teaching and learning processes and encouraging their efforts. Thus creating a warm, supportive and positive emotional climate in the classroom. Such a climate enhances emotional security, motivates learning and leads to a high standard of achievement. Being and understanding and considerate person is thus, one of the hall marks of an efficient teacher. Some of the components of human relationship which exist inside a classroom are open channels of communication, participatory decision-making, flexibility of the syllabus, ‘we’ feeling in groups, integrity, friendliness, student leadership, etc.

(4) **Learner-Learner Relations** : The human relationships among the learners/students can either stimulate or thwart the growth of each other in many ways. It is necessary for the teacher to understand the relationships operating among the students. The learners need a period in which they relate to each other as equals and so learn to stand on their own. A great amount of emotion is usually stimulated in peer group in regard to friendship relations during adolescence.

In the peer group, there is a gradual shift from activity-orientation to thought, feeling and personality orientation. The learners by exchanging ideas and feelings with peers, clarify interpersonal relationships. Conversation in peer groups is a medium through which social sensitivity and skills are developed.

The influences and the impact of the peer groups extend far beyond the outcomes of simple interactions and interrelations. In his field theory’ approach, Kurt Lewin, further of the group dynamics movement, has referred to the effects of “the group atmosphere”, which indicates that behaviour depends on the total field of forces in operation. The sociometric movement has refined techniques for measuring the influence peers have on each other, who influences whom,
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in what ways and on what occasions. Sensitivity education, which is a group process by which people attempt to know one another better, uses sensitivity to another’s needs, interests and values. Learners are undoubtedly affected and influenced by their peer groups. Research is yet to find with certainty, the conditions of such influence on learners and how exactly they are influenced.

(5) Teacher-Teacher Relations: The teacher as an individual has great potential for professional improvement outside the classroom. One such situation is the working relationship among the teachers. The faculty of teachers differ widely in terms of moral or group cohesiveness. But whatever the nature of the group, the teacher has to find a place in it. He has to learn to relate and communicate adequately to his surroundings within the faculty group. As a member of this professional group, the teacher’s different roles are responsible for his professional effectiveness and personal satisfaction within the institutional climate. There are many common areas for cooperation and mutual help such as marking, promotion, reporting of activities of students, inter-disciplinary topics, community and social service, etc. In fact an attitude of mutual helpfulness is contagious and favourable affects, teacher-learner and teacher-teacher relationships in especially decreasing staff conflicts and promoting harmony among them. Teacher education programmes should, therefore, lay stress on the importance of working with other teachers and developing skills necessary to work successfully with teaching peers, stressing on the need to communicate adequately and appropriately.

(6) Teacher-Administrator Relations: Teacher get opportunities to come in contact with administrators in their daily routine of work and develop harmonious relations with them, as long as administrators do not indulge in authoritarianism and the teachers are aware of their role within a democratic set-up. However, when interpersonal difficulties are encountered it is natural for one of the persons to project the problem on the other. Instead of blaming the other, good human relations can be retained if each thinks in terms of the weakness on this part which could have been responsible for the problems created in working with the other. Self-assessment helps in eliminating many of the weaknesses and problems and develops interpersonal skills. Each becomes tolerant of the other as he is acquainted with the other’s point of view. Further, the administrator should exhibit a belief in the worth of all his faculty members, respect them and see to it that all live and work in harmony. He should have special skills to work with individual as well as groups in such a way that a good relationship is maintained.

(7) Teacher and Community Relations: Teacher not only have to establish good rapport with learners, other teachers and administrators but have also to create sound relationships with parents and other community members. This sort of relationship will have considerable effect on the success of the students’ efforts and on the effectiveness of the teacher. The teacher’s community relations extend beyond the parents group and enables them to participate as good citizens of the community. Since interacting with a community involves a number of interpersonal relationships caution should be the watchword. Realizing his major responsibilities in the educational institution, the teachers relationship with the community should be cordial, understanding and cooperative. An inter-play of a chain of relationship is anticipated in such situations and it is necessary for the teacher to avoid over-committing himself with the community activities.

(8) Student’s Involvement and Students Participation: The colleges can pursue several courses of action to direct student discontent and dissatisfaction into constructive channels. If students can be involved in daily activities, in annual functions and in co-curricular activities they will work within the college system rather than feel compelled to attack it. The following are some of the suggested programmes:

(i) Colleges should provide two-way communication channels. There should be regular opportunities for dialogue among students, teachers and administrators.
(ii) Each college should design its own programme of student involvement and this will entail, more than giving a new life to student government. Students should be given an opportunity to lead group discussions, to participate in departmental faculty meetings, to evaluate the academic progress of their peers and the class instructional programme. The mere knowledge of the availability of such opportunities encourages the student body to work in close collaboration with the teachers and the administrators rather than to stand against them.

(iii) College should offer courses on adolescent behaviour, understanding a college environment and how to bring about institutional changes. The widespread student unrest definitely indicates that there is something wrong with the system and that changes and reforms are necessary. Administrators and teachers must meet the challenges of the youth and solve their problems. They must help the students with non-violent and constructive programmes.

(iv) Some of the students’ demands may be anti-educational. Colleges can reform but it should follow its educative function. Colleges should stand firm on their professional prerogatives but at the same time concede to students demands if they follow the general principles and purposes of education. Colleges should try to find a balance between responsiveness with responsibility.

21.3.1 Supporting Devices of Classroom Management

Classroom management is not sufficient enough to realize the objectives of education. Therefore, supporting devices of classroom management are used in this context. The following are the common supporting devices of classroom management.

(1) Laboratory experimentation (2) Field work (3) Library study (4) Educational excursion or field trips (5) Home assignment (6) Self study or Assimilation (7) Tutorials for remedial teaching (8) Action research and (9) Guidance services.

These supporting devices are required in different school subjects. The laboratory experimentation is needed in science subjects physics, chemistry, botany and zoology. The field work is done in agriculture science and geography subjects. Educational excursions are organized for historical places, geographical and religious places. The home assignment, self-study and library study are done for assimilation process. Tutorials classes are arranged for remedial teaching for weak students. The classroom management is for normal students and tutorials are organized as supporting device for remedial teaching. It is individualized teaching activities of students and problems of teaching-learning are solved by using action research and guidance services.

21.3.2 Teacher Role in Classroom Management

Teacher is the principal component of classroom management. He has to play the several roles as manager, philosopher, guide and friend. He has the authority, responsibility, accountability and leadership in managing classroom activities. He has to employ an appropriate model of discipline, strategies and techniques of teaching. He has to maintain rapport with students and social relation with his colleagues and principal. Some of the important roles have been discussed here.

(1) **Role As Teacher**: Teaching is a noble profession. Teacher is an ideal for his students as well as to society. He should look like a teacher and behave like a teacher. The important role which influences most to students. How he dresses in classroom and how addresses to his students? He must know his students i.e. entering behaviours and social and cultural back ground.

(2) **Role as Philosopher**: The main job of a teacher is impart knowledge of his subject content. He must have the mastery of subject and latest development of his subject. He should have the interest in his subject. Research studies have found that mastery of the subject in a powerful predictor of teacher-effectiveness.

(3) **Role as Guide**: Teachers job is to help students in their personal and learning problems. He has to deal the students problems scientifically for providing the awareness of causes of the problem. The remedial teaching is arranged for weak students.
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(4) **Role as Researcher**: Teacher should have the ability to deal with the problems of classroom management. He should have the knowledge and skill for using action research. Classroom management problems can be solved with the help of action research project.

(5) **Role as Manager**: Teacher should know the functions, authorities, and responsibilities of a manager. The main functions of a manager are planning, organizing, supervising, directing, coordinating and controlling the teaching process. Now a teacher has a very wide area of responsibilities.

(6) **Role as Leader**: A manager should have leadership quality. A teacher functions as a leader of his class. Academic leadership is the most important function of a teacher. The knowledge of teaching, training, and instruction can be effectively used by a teacher in managing classroom activities.

In the modern era, a teacher has enumerable responsibilities as our society becomes very complex. Teacher has to play the several roles in classroom management. The most important qualities of teacher are sincerity, honesty and involvement in teaching. He enjoys his classroom teaching. It brings excellence in classroom management.

21.3.3 Evaluation of Classroom Management

The controlling is an important function of classroom management. It provides the basis evaluation and improving the classroom management. The classroom management is the process as well as product, therefore, two criteria—process and product are used for evaluating classroom management. The following techniques of evaluation are used for classroom management.

(1) Techniques used for Process Criteria

(a) Classroom observation.

(b) Interaction Analysis Technique.

(i) Verbal interaction analysis technique.

(ii) Non-verbal interaction analysis teaching.

(c) Observation of content analysis.

(d) Teaching skills and competency and

(e) Instructional procedure for classroom teaching.

(2) Techniques used for Product Criteria

(a) Learning outcomes or achievement of the students.

(b) Attitude of the students.

(c) Opinions of the learners.

(d) Teacher rapport with his students.

21.4 Programmes of Staff Development

In planning the programmes for the professional growth of college and university teachers, specific objectives of the programme should be created in mind for effective organisation. Some of the major objectives of the programmes are as follows:

1. To enable the new college teacher to understand the needs, interests and behaviour patterns of students who are in their late adolescence period.
2. To develop teaching skills that would help the teacher to improve his teaching effectiveness, in addition to employ several teaching techniques to cater to the needs of students at large, medium and small groups.

3. To help the teacher improve his ability to communicate effectively in the classroom through the use of educational technology devices and to ensure better student participation in the teaching learning situation.

4. To enable the teacher to provide guidance to his students in their learning problems such as library reading and reference work, self-study, and preparing for examination, and in developing the all-round personality of the students.

5. To understand ‘the problems that arise in management of the students in the classes and work out strategies to solve them.

6. To give special assistance to those students who are not upto the mark in their studies by diagnosing because for the drawbacks and providing remedial teaching as per their needs.

7. To introduce the fresh teacher to the techniques of action research and small-scale experimentation so that he can handle effectively the particular problems that may arise in his own classes and follow procedures to manage these by his own efforts so that he can find the effectiveness of his own teaching techniques.

The in-service education programme can take up several forms and patterns depending on the purpose for which it is conducted, the resources and infrastructure available and the duration of the courses. Some of the more common types are as follows:

(1) Content Course.
(2) Refresher Courses.
(3) Summer Institute.
(4) Short Term Course.
(5) Conference Technique.
(6) Seminar Techniques.
(7) Workshop Technique, and
(8) Symposium Technique.
(9) Panel Discussion.

The details of these programme and techniques have been given in the following paragraphs:

1) Content Courses

Content Courses are conducted to upgrade the teachers in their specialisation in terms of knowledge of the latest developments, current issues and trends, their application and their relevance to college teaching. These courses are organized with the help of competent resource persons in a particular area of discipline, as the competency of the resource persons to a great extent, contributes to the success of the programme. During summer holidays content courses are organised for a longer duration of 4 to 6 weeks and this gives time to really upgrade the teachers in subject content.

2) Refresher Courses

Refresher Courses are generally organized to give an opportunity to teachers to refresh and improve their knowledge of the subjects they teach and widen their experience in the methodology of teaching. These courses enable the teachers to keep abreast of progress in educational theories and practices. The duration of the refresher course is generally three to four or five days.
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(3) Summer Institutes

The pattern of summer institutes, generally follow that of content courses but the purpose need not be mainly to upgrade the teachers in their fields of specialisation. Summer Institutes can be on one specific topic or area, covering invariable all aspects of teaching learning process, such as content, methodology, educational technology, and evaluation including practical aspects of laboratory work, field trips and experimentation. Summer Institutes sponsored by the University Grants Commission for three or four weeks are the most popular programmes at the collegiate level as these institutions receive financial support from the U.G.C. and strict adherence to certain academic and administrative procedures are to be followed. College teachers greatly benefit from these institutes. There are other agencies such as ICSSR, ICMR, etc. that also provide financial assistance to conduct summer institutes.

(4) Short Term Courses

Some of the short-term courses could be for orientation purposes or upgrading of subject knowledge or improving pedagogical skills. The duration is invariably for three to five days.

(5) Conference Technique

In the area of higher teaching-learning, the conference is one of the most important technique. It is used to create higher learning situations by using appropriate instructional technique. The higher cognitive and affective objectives of education are achieved by employing the conference technique.

During 1920 the technique was encouraged and it was used to discuss the major problems of social sciences, behavioural sciences, and anthropology.

The conferences were organized during 1930 to discuss the problems of interdisciplinary nature. An interdisciplinary approach of research was introduced as the result of these conferences.

During 1940, the conferences were organized to discuss the contemporary problems in the different areas. The new direction was given for research activities as the result of this technique. The new concepts were evaluated and determine their utility in our situation. During 1950, subjects conference were encouraged.

The conference technique has acquired important place in different areas to discuss and solve the problems: Social, Political, Health, Religious education.

It is becoming increasingly true as conference and workshop tend to involve ever wider cross-section of educators. These new kind of technique provide rich experiences upon which to build this type of programme and techniques.

Did you know? The conference technique is a meeting of large or small group of people. The participants make up a close-knit group which considers certain problems in normal and serious fashion. A conference of Non-Align Moment (NAM) was organized in 1983 to consider the measures of International Peace. The specific problems of International Peace was discussed by representative of hundred countries of NAM.

(6) Seminar Technique

Teaching is continuum from conditioning to indoctrination. It is organized from memory level to reflective level. Our teaching is confined upto memory level even at college and university level. At the most teaching can be organized at but understanding level, instructional situations should be organized in such way so that teaching may be done at reflective level. Higher objectives of cognitive and reflective domains are achieved by creating such conditions of learning. As the development of higher cognitive and affective abilities is essential at the higher
stage of education. Several instructional techniques have been evolved with human interaction as underlying pedagogical principles, viz, a discussion, seminar, debate, panel discussion, buzz session, role-planning, brain storming, etc. Description here is however confined to the seminar technique.

**Meaning and Definition of Seminar Technique**
A seminar as an instructional technique involves generating a situation for group to have guided interaction among themselves on a theme which is generally presented to the group by one or more members. The person who presents the theme should have studied the theme thoroughly before hand. This would mean selection of relevant material at its organization. The collected material is put in the form of paper which is circulated among the participants in advance or before the paper reading. It provides the structure of the theme, to facilities its communication.

Thus, seminar is an instructional technique of higher learning which involves paper reading on a theme and followed by the group discussion to clarify the complex aspects of the theme.

(7) **Workshop Technique**

Education process has two aspects: theoretical and practical. The instructional techniques are used to develop the theoretical aspects of the students. The conference and seminars are organized for achieving higher cognitive and affective objectives. The psychomotor aspect is developed through training. Teaching is a continuum from conditioning to indoctrination and training is also inclusive in it. The new innovations and practices of education are introduced by organizing workshop in which persons are trained to use new practices in their teaching learning process. The workshops are organized to develop the psychomotor aspects of the learner regarding practices of new innovations in area of education. Under this technique participants have to do some practical work to produce instructional, teaching and testing material.

**Workshops and Seminars**
The more recent terms used in this context are task force, study group, working group, etc. but they all convey the same meaning of working in groups to complete a specified task within a specified time. Workshops are not talk shop and there is considerable output from the participants in a workshop. The major concern of the workshops is to provide opportunities that are to be challenged by one’s peers. The essential features of the workshop are the intensive consideration of practical problems of classroom teaching, informal working conditions, sharing of experiences with the peer group and the availability of a range of resources such as resource persons, books, journals, learning aids and equipment and apparatus for laboratory work. The participants have a full share in the planning of the workshop and all the activities are related to the goals of the participants. The core of the workshop in the area of group thinking and joint planning. Further, a workshop does not evaluate its members. The participants evaluate the workshop and themselves. Evaluation is a cooperative process. The goal of the workshop is the professional growth of the participants as well as the development of the programme.

(8) **Symposium Techniques**

Symposium technique is also one of the techniques of higher learning. It is also an instructional technique which is used to achieve higher cognitive and affective objectives.

The word ‘symposium’ has several dictionary meanings. Firstly, Plato has used this term for ‘good dialogue’ to present the views towards God. Another meaning of the term is the intellectual recreation of enjoyment.

The recent meaning of the term is a meeting of persons to discuss a problem or theme. The views on a theme are presented in a sequence. The specific aspect of a theme is presented by an expert of the theme. The definition of the term symposium is as follows:

“The symposium technique/forum serves as an excellent device for informing an audience, crystallizing opinion and general preparing the listeners for arriving at decision, policies, value, judgement or understanding.”
The main purpose of the symposium is to provide the understanding to the students or listener on theme or problem specifically to develop certain values and feelings.

(9) **Panel Discussion Technique**

All techniques of higher learning require the discussion among the participants. The discussion provides the equal opportunities in the instructional situation to every participant.

The discussion technique of learning is based on the modern theory of organization. The assumption of this theory is that every member of the organization has the capacity to initiate and solve the problem and brings certain attitude and value to the organization. Thus, interactional technique is the most appropriate in democratic way of life.

This technique at the first time was used by *Herry A Ober Street* in 1929. He organized a discussion for small group to definite period for the audience. At the end of the discussion audience had also participate. The important questions were put by the audiences on the topic. The experts tried and answer the questions and certain points were clarified, which were not included in the discussion.

Generally this type of panel discussion are organized on television and radio. The current topic are considered for such programme.

(10) **Teacher’s Behaviour**

Teacher’s Behaviour is another important element of the situation. His activities are very complex and difficult to analyse. It has been rightly said that “teaching can be best understood not a single activity but as a whole family of activities.” Some people are on the opinion that teaching is creative and, therefore, immeasurable. But still, the supervisor should observe the teacher in action. More and more efforts are being made to define the elements of teaching. One such efforts is the Flander’s System of Interaction Analysis the categories of the teacher’s talk are: (1) accepts feeling, (2) praises or encourages, accepts or uses ideas of student, (4) asks questions, (5) lectures, (6) gives directions, (7) criticises or justifies authority; and the categories student’s talk are (8) student response, (9) student initiation, and (10) period of silence or confusion. In this system, verbal behaviour is recorded every three seconds over a specific period of time. The record shows the pattern of behaviour and pattern of sequence. Interaction Analysis is a descriptive and not an evaluative system and hat been found specially useful in teacher training.

The supervisor should carefully observe whether the teacher encourages independence of action and good relationships of courtesy, kindness and consideration. The following outline can help the supervisor develop a check-list for observing a teacher’s lesson:

1. **Physical Environment**, whether neat and clear classroom, well-lighted and decorated, proper seating arrangement, etc.

2. **Social Environment**, whether stimulating security, good relationships, friendliness, orderliness, cheerfulness, pupils working together, etc.

3. **Layout Teaching Lesson**
   1. **Introduction**, whether based on previous knowledge, and naturally connected with the present lesson.
   2. **Development**, aims and objectives, whether realistic and appropriate, realised or not.
   3. **Subject-matter**, whether suitable and sufficient in quality and quantity.
   4. **Methods and techniques**, whether questioning suitable, standard, interesting and well-distributed, whether promotes spirit of inquiry, self thinking, observation, and remembering.
   5. **Illustrative Aids**, whether interesting, informative, relevant and appropriate in quality and quantity. Other techniques, whether properly planned and used. Important points, whether properly timed and emphasised. Pupils’ responses whether intelligent, spontaneous, relevant and correct.
6. Interaction, whether teacher encouraged the pupils independence, critical thinking creative self-expression, proper manners and democratic behaviour, whether pupils were attentive, enthusiastic, cooperative, well-behaved and learning together.

7. Recapitulation, whether summaries development with pupils’ helps to facilitate remembering.

8. Assignments, where provided sufficient drill, whether supplemented by additional material, whether promoted transfer of learning and integrated or correlated with other subjects and with life.

(4) Promotion Research: Another important function of supervision is to promote the experimental approach to problems. Quite often the teachers and the supervisor launch a research project in which teachers are entrusted with particular activities and phases for the explicit purpose of the collection, analysis and interpretation of data. Either on invitation and form the teacher or of his own accord the supervisor visits the classroom and observes whether work on the project is proceeding on the right lines which were previously decided upon by the participants. Whenever necessary the supervisory assist the teachers and puts them on these right track.

21.5 Curriculum Development

The fifth important element of the teaching-learning situation is the curriculum interpreted in its widest possible sense. It consists of all the activities and experiences planned for the child’s development. It is an important contributing factor for it determines the quality of learning experiences and their inter-relatedness. The planning and the roles of the teacher and pupils in curriculum development are significant. The supervisor, during his observation, should analyse these.

What is symposium technique?

Self Assessment

1. **Fill in the blanks:**

   (i) ______ is an organizational function in which tasks are performed in a variety of settings.

   (ii) ______ is content centered approach.

   (iii) ______ are used in managing classroom activities.

   (iv) ______ is the principal component of classroom management.

   (v) ______ are conducted to upgrade the teacher in their specialisation in terms of knowledge of the latest development.

   (vi) ______ are generally organized to give an opportunity to teachers to refresh and improve their knowledge of the subjects.

   (vii) The ______ aspect is developed through training.

21.6 Summary

- Classroom management is viewed as an organisational function in which tasks are performed in a variety of settings, resulting in the inculcation of certain values such as human respect, personal integrity, self direction, group cohesion, etc.

- Teacher process is organized through classroom management. ‘Classroom management’ is defined operationally.
The Approaches to Classroom Management

The following are the main approaches to managing classroom activities.

- Herbartian approach — Herbart
- Evaluation approach — B.S. Bloom
- Managing Teaching learning — I.K. Devies
- Organizing teaching — Memory Understanding and Reflective levels

The approaches of teaching and classroom management reveal the great variation in the structure. These approaches provide the general format of classroom management. The classroom management consists of four dimensions.

- Physical dimensions or environment.
- Social and cultural dimensions.
- Psychological dimensions and
- Ethical considerations and value dimensions.

In managing classroom activities, a teacher has to consider these four dimensions.

- Physical Dimension or Environment: A classroom is a functional unit of an educational institution. The location, buildings, lawns, and classroom are designed by the manager or founder of the institution. The classroom management concerns with seating arrangement, light, air arrangement, and blackboard facilities.
- Social and Cultural Dimension: A classroom is a miniature of the society as well as of an institution. A classroom management involves relationship social and cultural environment.
- Psychological Dimension: It is said that no learning without motivation. The main focus of classroom management is to facilitate learning. The teacher motivates his students verbally and through actions (non-verbally).
- Ethical Consideration or Value Dimension: It is the most important dimension of classroom management. The teacher role in classroom management is more than a manager.

An educational institution does not exist in a vacuum. The learners and the teachers reveal in their attitude and behaviour, the influences of the experiences they have had in their homes and community.

- Teacher as the Focus: The teacher is the significant figure in any educational institution in communicating with the learners in the classrooms and holding joint responsibility with the parents in the welfare of the learner’s education.
- Human Relations: Human relations indicate the process by which individuals conceptualise and relate to each other as human beings and in turn, relate to others in their society, in specific contexts, such as educational institutions.
- Teacher-Learner Relations: The learner’s behaviour as an individual, and especially as an individual interacting with the teacher and the other learners, depends to a great extent on the kind of teacher the learner has.
- Learner-Learner Relations: The human relationships among the learners/students can either stimulate or thwart the growth of each other in many ways.
- Teacher-Teacher Relations: The teacher as an individual has great potential for professional improvement outside the classroom. One such situation is the working relationship among the teachers.
- Teacher-Administrator Relations: The teacher get opportunities to come in contact with administrators in their daily routine of work and develop harmonious relations with them,
as long as administrators do not indulge in authoritarianism and the teachers are aware of their role within a democratic set-up.

(vii) Teacher and Community Relations: Teacher not only have to establish good rapport with learners, other teachers and administrators but have also to create sound relationships with parents and other community members.

(viii) Student’s Involvement and Students Participation: The colleges can pursue several courses of action to direct student discontent and dissatisfaction into constructive channels.

• The following are some of the suggested programmes:

(i) Colleges should provide two-way communication channels. There should be regular opportunities for dialogue among students, teachers and administrators.

(ii) Each college should design its own programme of student involvement and this will entail, more than giving a new life to student government. Students should be given an opportunity to lead group discussions, to participate in departmental faculty meetings, to evaluate the academic progress of their peers and the class instructional programme.

• Supporting Devices of Classroom Management

• Classroom management is not sufficient enough to realize the objectives of education. Therefore, supporting devices of classroom management are used in this context. The following are the common supporting devices of classroom management.

(1) Laboratory experimentation (2) Field work (3) Library study (4) Educational excursion or field trips (5) Home assignment (6) Self study or Assimilation (7) Tutorials for remedial teaching (8) Action research and (9) Guidance services.

• These supporting devices are required in different school subjects. The laboratory experimentation is needed in science subjects physics, chemistry, botany and zoology.

• Teacher Role in Classroom Management

• Teacher is the principal component of classroom management. He has to play the several roles—manager, philosopher, guide, and friend. He has the authority, responsibility, accountability, and leadership in managing classroom activities.

• Evaluation of Classroom Management

• The controlling is an important function of classroom management. It provides the basis evaluation and improving the classroom management. The classroom management is the process as well as product, therefore, two criteria—process and product are used for evaluating classroom management.

• In planning the programmes for the professional growth of college and university teachers, specific objectives of the programme should be created in mind for effective organisation. Some of the major objectives of the programmes are as follows:

(i) To enable the new college teacher to understand the needs, interests, and behaviour patterns of students who are in their late adolescence period.

(ii) To develop teaching skills that would help the teacher to improve his teaching effectiveness, in addition to employ several teaching techniques to cater to the needs of students at large, medium, and small groups.

3. To help the teacher improve his ability to communicate effectively in the classroom through the use of educational technology devices and to ensure better student participation in the teaching learning situation.

• The in-service education programme can take up several forms and patterns depending on the purpose for which it is conducted, the resources and infrastructure available and the duration of the courses. Some of the more common types are as follows:

(i) Content Course.
Notes

(ii) Refresher Courses.
(iii) Summer Institute.
(iv) Short Term Course.
(v) Conference Technique.
(vi) Seminar Techniques.
(vii) Workshop Technique, and
(viii) Symposium Technique.
(ix) Panel Discussion.

• The details of these programmes and techniques have been given in the following paragraphs:

(i) Content Courses
Content Courses are conducted to upgrade the teachers in their specialisation in terms of knowledge of the latest developments, current issues and trends, their application and their relevance to college teaching.

(ii) Refresher Courses
Refresher Courses are generally organized to give an opportunity to teachers to refresh and improve their knowledge of the subjects they teach and widen their experience in the methodology of teaching.

(iii) Summer Institutes
The pattern of summer institutes, generally follow that of content courses but the purpose need not be mainly to upgrade the teachers in their fields of specialisation.

(iv) Short Term Courses
Some of the short-term courses could be for orientation purposes or upgrading of subject knowledge or improving pedagogical skills.

(v) Conference Technique
In the area of higher teaching-learning, the conference is one of the most important techniques. It is used to create higher learning situations by using appropriate instructional technique.

(vi) Seminar Technique
Teaching is continuum from conditioning to indoctrination. It is organized from memory level to reflective level. Our teaching is confined up to memory level even at college and university level.

Meaning and Definition of Seminar Technique: A seminar as an instructional technique involves generating a situation for group to have guided interaction among themselves on a theme which is generally presented to the group by one or more members.

(vii) Workshop Technique
• Education process has two aspects: theoretical and practical. The instructional techniques are used to develop the theoretical aspects of the students.
• Workshops and Seminars: The more recent terms used in this context are task force, study group, working group, etc. but they all convey the same meaning of working in groups to complete a specified task within a specified time. Workshops are not talk shop and there is considerable output from the participants in a workshop.

(viii) Symposium Techniques
Symposium technique is also one of the techniques of higher learning. It is also an instructional technique which is used to achieve higher cognitive and affective objectives.
The word ‘symposium’ has several dictionary meanings. Firstly, Plato has used this term for ‘good dialogue’ to present the views towards God. Another meaning of the term is the intellectual recreation of enjoyment.

(ix) Panel Discussion Technique
All techniques of higher learning require the discussion among the participants. The discussion provides the equal opportunities in the instructional situation to every participant. The discussion technique of learning is based on the modern theory of organization.

21.7 Keywords
• Optimum : The best possible
• Utilize : To use something especially for a practical house.
• Infrastructure : The basic systems and services that are necessary for a country or an organization.

21.8 Review Questions
1. What do you understand by Classroom Management?
2. Explain the Sociometry of Institution.
3. Describe Staff Development Programmes?
4. What is Curriculum Development?

Answers : Self Assessment
1. (i) Classroom Management (ii) Herbartian Approach
   (iii) Teaching models (iv) Teacher
   (v) Content Courses (vi) Refresher Courses.
   (vii) Psychomotor

21.9 Further Readings

Unit 22: Application of Educational Management in Administrative Areas

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Objectives
The objectives of this unit can be summarised as below:
- To explain about Areas of Educational Administration
- To describe about the Scope of Aspects
- To discuss about the Maintenance Discipline
- To explain about Co-ordination in Management
- To discuss about Growth and Development
- To describe about School Records

Introduction
The School planning, different kinds of records of school, discipline, coordination are the administrative areas of school. These areas need educational management. Management of these things can not without proper strategies, planning. Head master/principal is the key or central power of any school. He is responsible for all the activities in a school. We will discuss about all these things in descriptive manner.

It is a prime need of a democracy that the heads of schools are given an opportunity to have their due say in educational matters. They are not granted the freedom in dealing with these matters, they would not be able to make use of their initiative and would only be following the line dictated by higher authorities. Therefore when India has chosen the path of democracy, it becomes desirable that the schools should be allowed some autonomy in regard to the selection of text-book and teaching methods. A democratic outlook should be brought to bear on the internal management of the school so that not only educationists, administrators and teacher but the students as well be held equally accountable for the administration of the school in balanced coordination established between their activities and functions.
22.1 Areas of Educational Administration

Ordway Tead has laid down the scope of general administration under five areas, viz. Production, Assuring Public Use, Finance and Accounting, Personnel and Coordination. Applying these five areas to the field of education, we get the following scope of educational administration:

1. **Production**: It refers to the social activity of work for which an organisation is set up. In education, it means realization of the goals of education which have been set up by society. Educational administration has, therefore, to interpret the aims of education to the educational workers so that they may scope the final product of education (the achievement of the pupils) in the desired form and shape.

2. **Assuring Public Use**: It means that the activity and the product, of the efforts of the organisation, the goals and services are produced, must be such that they are acceptable to the public and of use and benefit, because it is for this that the public has set up the organisation. It is the business of educational administration to define the operations needed, to make them known and to promote them so that the final educational product is good for public use.

3. **Finance and Accounting**: It refers to the receipt and disbursement of money invested in the activities of the organisation. Educational administration is also concerned with receiving and spending money necessary for the operation and activities of the educational machinery. It should record and measure the monetary and other resources invested in the educational enterprise and also evaluate the inputs and outputs.

4. **Personnel**: It is the framing and operation of policies and procedures for recruitment of workers and maintenance of goodwill and personal relationship among them in order to ensure fullest interest, cooperation, morale and loyalty of all the persons working in the organisation. This is specially important for the educational enterprise where the whole work is centred round the impact of one type of human beings, the teachers, upon another type of human beings, the students. The scope of educational administration, therefore, spreads over the personnel.

5. **Coordination**: It is an important activity of educational administration. It ensures the close inter-relation and integration of all the functional activities of the organisation such as personnel, finance and production of desired results. Such integration has to be brought about not only of the structure of the organisation but also of the attitudes and efforts of the workers, so that all of them pull together in the direction of the desired goals and achieve them.

**Notes**

Application of educational management in administrative area internal administration is the system under which the headmaster of a school manages and directs the day-to-day programmes and activities with the help of his colleagues and students in accordance with the general rules and regulations laid down by the Education Department.

22.2 Scope of Aspects

1. **Legal Structure**: It refers to the laws that have to be passed and rules and regulations that have to be framed in order to determine the agencies of education, their types, powers and standards of educational institutions to be run by them, to prescribe authority and control to fix up responsibility and obligations, to decide the question of decentralisation of management and to set up organisational and administrative machinery.

2. **Pupils**: These are the centre of the educational enterprise. It is for them that the entire process of education and its constituents exist. It is, therefore, necessary determine the individual and social purposes and procedures of their education is accordance with their needs, interests and...
capacities and the demands of society. Rules for their admission, promotion, discipline, etc., have to be framed and implemented.

(3) Personnel: Man power has to be found and engaged to run educational activities necessary. Personnel play the key role in education. This is the fly-wheel or the driving force of the educational machinery. Proper attention has to be paid to the workers. Men and women have to be selected, recruited and trained and their qualifications and standards have to be prescribed. Good service conditions, attractive salaries, security of tenure, welfare service and retirement benefits have to be offered to bring in the best available talent. Schemes for their direction, guidance and supervision have to be drawn up. Last but not least, a good and effective programme for the worker, continuous development and professional progress through reorientation and in-service education has to be launched.

(4) Finance: It includes problems of income and expenditure and their accounting and auditing. Decisions have to be taken about the sharing of the cost of education among the centre, and the States and the Local Bodies. The policy of taxation and prescribing fees, etc., has to be formulated. Rules and regulations have to be framed for budgeting, spending and controlling of funds and resources.

(5) Curriculum: It is the means of achieving the goals of education. Educational administration has to deal with the problems of curriculum construction and its day to day development. It has also to look after the continuous evaluation and progressive improvement of the educational programme which are urgently called for in view of the constantly going on scientific, technological and social changes. Administration has also to pay close attention to the teaching-learning programme and process and to matters of preparation, selection and supply of textbooks and other instructional material. Important pupil services, such as health and recreation and psychological services of testing and records, guidance and counselling and Co-curricular activities, etc. have to be organized and administered for the benefit of the young.

(6) Physical Facilities: It comprises of the area dealing with the problem of provision and maintenance of the school, plant, equipment and supplies, etc., their production, purchase upkeep and accounting.

(7) Public Relations: Education is a social enterprise run with the cooperation of students, teachers, parents and the community. Educational administration has to make each of them contribute its due share to the success of the enterprise. It should, therefore, maintain effective public relations. This involves maintenance of records, issuing periodical reports, information and bulletins about past achievement and future proposals.

Administration should encourage community visitation and secure its participation and cooperation by a process of give and take, i.e., by utilizing community resources and rendering useful services for its welfare.

22.3 Maintenance of Discipline

The world “Discipline” is supposed form the Latin word “Disciplina” which means management, rule, education, practice, teaching and trained condition. The derivation of English word “Disciple” is supposed form the Latin world “Discipulum” which means pupil. This is expected form the pupils that he should obey his teachers respectfully and according to him, he should develop necessary and required qualities in himself for successful life. In this way, the meaning of discipline is to create regularity in conduct. Lot of words are used in Hindi for discipline, for example, control regulation, self-restraint, courtesy and discipline etc. The use of the word “control” would be appropriate at the place where someone is to be kept forcibly in possession. Where according to some fixed rules, the man is asked to do work, there “regulation” would be used. Where the child obeys his elders with courtesy and respect, there the word “Courtesy” would be proper to use. But,
“discipline” is the word which covers all those of which mentioned above. The use of this word “Discipline” is more prevalent. In this book, the word discipline has been used.

**Modern Concept of Discipline**

According to modern educational thinking the meaning of discipline is taken in widespread form. Today, where the objective of education has been understood to develop qualities of successful citizenship and sociability in child, at the same place, school discipline is meant internal and external discipline which should develop physical, mental, social and ethical values.

Modern concept of school discipline in which self-discipline and social discipline are stressed especially or particularly. The great Educationist John Dewey has influenced it sufficiently. John Dewey is of the opinion, “The much and commonly lamented separation in school between intellectual and moral training, between the acquiring of information and growth of character, is simply one expression of the failure to conceive and construct the school as a social institution having social life and value within itself.” Each experience of life of child, it may be mental or moral leaves its impression on his personal development. Thus, the school should be imagined in the form of such a place where other kinds of development, are also achieved for equal objective along with mental development, through cocurricular activity. Dewy says, “Out of doing things that are to produce result, and out of doing these in a social and cooperative way, there is a born discipline of its own kind and type.” This is the self-discipline which is based on the recognition of the society. This kind of discipline would need moral or characteristics training. Thus according to John Dewey’s opinion the discipline lies in social conditions of school.

In the end, we can say that according to maximum modern thoughts, the meaning of discipline is to prepare boys girls for life in democratic society. Meaning thereby, to provide help to man in achieving knowledge, strength, habits, interests and ideals which are envisaged for the amelioration of self, his companions and whole of the society.

**Discipline in School**

Discipline is schools generally means “orders and system in doing things, regularity and obedience to commands.” But discipline is not synonymous with class-order. It should not be identified with orderly behaviour in the classroom and other forms of school activities. Outward show of order can also be maintained by force or fear. That is not real discipline. Real discipline implies persuasion while order implies compulsion. It is, therefore, that school discipline should be “the result of a gradual building up of habits of self control and co-operation and carried out pupils, not because it is imposed from above, but because of the recognition of its necessity and value” Ultimately school discipline should imply the cultivation of certain desirable attitudes, habits and values in individual pupils.

**Importance of Discipline**

Discipline is very much important in the life. In want of it man cannot utilise powers properly given by nature (God). Through discipline only, man can attain good power, and by this power he becomes capable in developing of his natural tendencies with personal viewpoint, discipline is very important. Along with it, the discipline is also very much important with social viewpoint. The great philosopher Aristotle said, “A nation is not built by mountains and trees, notwithstanding it is built by character of its citizens.” This statement is completely true. When the citizens of some country would be disciplined, they could be capable to take their country on the path of progress. A disciplined person is of good character, and pious by mind, words, and actions. In this way, it is clear that for nation or entire society discipline is very important. This fact can be made clear with the help of history also. The history is the witness that, when some country became prey of indiscipline, it had to accept slavery of external powers. Through discipline, a man and entire society or nations are created alertness among them. In want of it, this power perishes which result severely that is, its consequences are very terrible. In this way, what a man, what a nation and what a society personality of all is made the great by discipline.
(1) **The Headmaster** : ‘As the headmaster, so the school,” is well-known saying. In fact success of failure of any school system depends upon the personality or the headmaster. He must possess some philosophy of discipline and see that school. He must have some well-grounded fundamental principles to guide him in his treatment of the general and to serve as the background, against which to set each individual case of discipline as it comes before him. As a successful disciplinarian, he should given an adequate share to the pupils i.e, the management or school affairs. He should organise the corporate life of the school in such a manner that it may provide ample opportunities for the expression of pupils impulses and a flow of their superfluous energy into worthy and fruitful channels. Such measures will surely help him in the smooth-functioning of school as a whole and in maintaining the desirable discipline and order in all school activities.

(2) **The Teacher** : In fact, teacher the fountain-head in of all good discipline and characters formation. With good teacher, half the problem of school discipline disappears. Besides his cleverness and originality, every teacher should be a good disciplinarian himself. This will depend on his keen insight, patience, sympathy, love, justice and impartiality. These factors survey weight in maintaining discipline and in awakening respect for the teacher’s personality. In the words of Humayun Kabir, “Without good teachers, even the best of systems is bound to fall. With good teachers, even the defects of a system can be largely overcome.”

(3) **Teaching Methods** : If appropriate methods of teaching are employed, the chances of pupils getting indisciplined or going astray, will be few and far between, classroom methods should be directed towards producing well-adjusted and self-disciplined individuals and towards the building up of a high morale. The utilization of modern progressive methods in which pupil’s activity is brought into play and harnessed for educative purposes, eliminates the possibility of any type of indiscipline.

(4) **A Good School Environment** : Every school should prepare its calendar in the beginning of new school session, giving a clear idea of the aims, the courses of study administrative rules and regulations, as well as the plans of curricular and co-curricular activities of the institution. Along with this the school environment should be made as conductive to learning and studies as possible. Besides a spacious building and well-maintained play fields, the schools should also be provided with adequate library and reading-room facilities. In fact, good school premises and a proper school atmosphere, contribute greatly to shape the education which our children receive and to the maintenance of genuine discipline and adjustment, so essential in a democracy.

(5) **Co-curricular Activities** : Sports, scouting, N.C.C., social service and community activities of the type, develop in pupils a sense of self-control and self-confidence, which is the cornerstone and good discipline. Such activities give our pupils practical lessons in subjugation of their will. Social co-operation, respect for authority and leadership training can pave the right way of instructing them in the fundamental of true discipline. In addition to these moral values, co-curricular activities also appeal to the tastes and temperaments of our pupils and help them in releasing their superfluous energies on the playground or in the clubs instead of the classrooms.

(6) **Self-Government in Schools** : In every secondary school, pupils be properly associated with the administration of discipline as well as with the health, sports dramatic and other school activities, such an association will make obedience rules and regulations far more real meaningful and willing than when the same is imposed form above. This sharing of authority and responsibility with sympathetic and friendly teachers, will provide first-hand practical training in democratic citizenship, which is the real aim of modern education.

(7) **Effective Team-Workers** : A sense of unity, co-operation and fellow-feeling, prevailing among the school-staff is sure to reflect upon the pupils. The young pupils in schools watch very minutely the activities of their teachers and try to imitate them for good or evil, as the case may be. It is therefore that is we want to promote discipline among pupils, it must first be established and maintained among the members of school-staff. The headmaster should further try to coordinate the efforts of different individuals and groups, in the best interest of the school. This is the only way of securing effective team-work in the schools.
(8) **Building up Traditions**: As we have already stated, school discipline is closely connected with school traditions. The higher and nobler the traditions, built-up by a school, the greater the efforts on the parts of pupils and teachers to maintain those traditions. Traditions descend from one generation of pupils to the other and as such, if properly guided, pupils would never try to lower the noble traditions built by those who have gone before them. The problem of discipline—like school work, is a continuous process and, therefore it is quite comfortable to work in a school with a tradition of good discipline.

(9) **Judicious use of Rewards and Punishments**: Meritorious and successful efforts on the part of pupils, must be recognised and rewarded. But rewards must not encourage unhealthy competition among pupils. These should be very few and administered, in a manner that may appeal to the should be done for making their status high in the eyes of public. In this regard government of India has taken up a step which can help in raising the status various programmes are organised in the President House by the President of India for the reception of teachers of primary schools. Such festivals should be organised in each state by chief minister. Besides it they should be provided facilities for increasing their education qualifications. Along with it, traditions of private tuitions should be banned.

For eradicating indiscipline G. K. Bhonsley started “National Discipline Scheme” in (1964). According to this scheme the stress was laid on the physical development of children. This scheme is being run in schools of several states of Indian Union-Punjab Gujrat, Maharashtra, Uttar Pradesh, Delhi and Madhya Pradesh etc., but it is not encouraging.

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**Did you know?**

Discipline is derived from the Latin word “discipulus” which means to lean. It is the same root form which the word disciple is taken. Literally, discipline is a mode of life in accordance with certain rules and regulations. It is a sort of self-control, reflected in public actions.

### 22.4 Co-ordination in Management

It is the process of putting things together in a harmonious relationship so that they may function more effectively. The administrator has to reckon with many physical, social and economic forces. He has to carry on a wide variety of activities. Coordination is necessary to attune all these factors and forces to forge an unity in diversity of relationship to produce a unified and integrated total effect. For this, deliberate efforts have to be made. Co-ordination is required in all the fields of administration, such as planning, organisation, etc. It is also needed in respect of purpose, time and place of the various activities; like laying down policies, preparing the budget, selection of staff and development of the curriculum, etc. Coordination depends upon the nature of the particular problem, circumstances, and availability of resources and the final goal. The administrator should possess a good skill for harmonising all these diverse relationships.

**Co-ordination of Co-curricular Activities**

Before an activity is lunched it should be approved democratically by the staff. Before approving a new activity the following things should be kept in mind:

1. Does the activity proposed meet the needs of the schools?
2. Are the students sufficiently interested in it?
3. Are the teachers in the school who are qualified, has time, and is willing to direct the proposed activity?

All the members should be democratically taken into confidence before introducing any activity in the school. Coaches or sponsors of school activities should be the members of the staff and not outsiders.
The introduction of programme of co-curricular activities should be gradual. An activity should be introduced only when the school has a need for it and when its students are interested in it. For example, when there is a fully developed department of History in the school a History Club may be started.

The number and type of activities to be developed in any school should be determined by the size of enrolment and the needs of the school. Activities should not be over-organised even in a large school. Smaller schools should not waste time and energy and squander away money in an attempt to ape the larger ones.

Activities that are organised in the school should, as far as possible, aim for achieving civil, social, moral and other worthwhile values as indicated in a previous section. Activities for enjoyment are useless though they may be harmless.

The number of activities which as students should be allowed to take part in during an academic year should be according to his needs. A limitation on participation is required because it will check the over ambitious form overloading himself with activities to the possible detriment to his health and regular studies and because a larger number of students will be able to participate in the activities organised in the school.

Since it is desired that the maximum possible number of students shall participate, each activity should be open to all. It does not mean that there should be no consideration for reasonable standards of achievement, or for eligibility to take part in it.

In order that each students should have a well-rounded development in both curricular and co-curricular activities, the plan of education guidance of the school should consider both types of activities in advising students regarding their total school programme.

For democratic organisation the following some points should be kept in mind.
1. An activity should be organised in school time as far as possible. If there is no provision for such facilities as are required for an organisation of the activity in a single shift school, it may be organised after school hours or on holidays.
2. Regular time should be given to an activity.
3. The teacher should not play the role of a dominant person but that of an adviser.
4. The activity should not be too expensive, and time consuming.
5. There should be a close supervision of all co-curricular activities, funds and accounts. Student funds should not be misappropriated or squandered.

Control of Co-ordination

All co-curricular activities should be supervised by the school. They should be amenable to school control and discipline. Too much supervision is of course not required, nor is it desirable, because it stifles spontaneity and makes it difficult for students to develop initiative, leadership and fellowship.

The amount of supervision will depend upon the type of the activity and the maturity level of students. For example, you will need a greater quantum of supervision of athletics and dramas. Similarly in lower classes, the work will have to be closely supervised. But there supervision will have to be of the motherly type. In higher secondary schools and colleges where students are quite mature and grown-up, the supervision will have to be of the brotherly type. But the essence of supervision should be democratic.

To plan the activity programme the school administrator will have to delegate powers to the director to co-ordinate the various activities to be organised in the school. The teaching load of the co-ordinator shall have to be kept to the minimum. If an ambitious plan of organising co-curricular activities, the co-ordinator will be required to devote sufficient time to the planning and execution of various activities in the school. His duties will be to plan the schedule of the year. Activities, to select those which relate to school curriculum and satisfy school needs, to think of the ways and
means to finance activities, to conduct research on the values of all curricular as well as cocurricular activities, to organise transportation services to take students to various places of interest, and to evaluate students performance in these activities.

Factors of Co-ordination
Coordination has the following three factors:
1. There are the parts and the aspect of the programme, such as the staff, students, parents, curriculum, etc.
2. There are the means of coordination, such as the rules, regulations, customs, etc.
3. There are the climate, the environment and the powers of coordination. The administrator, for each particular situation, has to decide which parts, which methods and what powers he is going to use.

Stages of Co-ordination
Coordination is required at two stages:
1. In the beginning of the administrative process, coordination is used to prevent the breakdown of the organisation.
2. During the process it is used to remedy the conflicts and maladjustment. It starts with establishing a unity and restores this unity whenever the purpose, the structure and the process in threatened. Thus, it is both a preventive and a curative measure.

22.5 Growth and Development
Education is process of development. Educational institutions are established for human development education creature and creator of the society. Education creates an ideal society. Kothari Commission has stated that destiny of India is being shaped in her classroom. The schools and classroom are responsible for social national and personal development.

It is the role of principal and teachers to create conducive environment for the growth and development of children. The main focus of school management to bring desirable behavioural change among children. The growth and development are made the following areas:
1. Growth and development of children.
2. Growth and development of teachers and
3. Growth and development school.

The term ‘growth and development’ is psychological in nature, but the process of growth and development is implemented by school management. It is also the responsibility of a principal which are oriented towards the growth of development of students, teachers and the institution. It is essential to understand the concept of growth and development. In teaching, learning process the term is limited to students only but in school management this term has wide area i.e., school climate and school health. In the following paras growth and development have been explained.

Meaning and Definition of Growth
Growth means increase in size, health and climate of a school. It concerns growth of size of enrolment, staff, faculties, equipment and infrastructure of the school. It can be easily observed and educated.

Growth is a function of a school or institution rather then of the achievement or school results as such. The climate of a school functions the foil and million for the manifestations of development but these are organized by inherent organisation of the school.

Programme Planning and Actualization: According to the oxford English Dictionary, Planning is “to design some action to be done before hand”. Philips regards it is “the process of setting in advance a pattern of action to bring about overall national policies by the closest possible means and
Thus we can say that planning is the process of preparing a set of decisions for action in the future and directed towards realising some goals by the best possible means. The essence of planning is an appraisal of a many operational alternatives as possible and then selecting the best for launching action. “Planning selects among alternatives, explores routes before travel begins and identifies possible or probable outcomes of action before the executive and the organisation is committed to any.”

Organization: Organization has been a major problem in the field of education. The debate has over and again raised the salient issue of how educational machinery should be best organized, politically, professionally and administratively. Here too, as in several other vital areas, education is handicapped by tradition. If conventional biases and prejudices can be replaced by decisions made logically and scientifically, with the achievement of objectives as the only consideration modern principles and techniques of organization will provide as basis for effective distribution and coordination of functions.

Practical Measure for School Management

The practical measure for school management are given in the follow: (1) Staff Council (2) Student’s Council, (3) Staff Meetings, (4) Special Committee of Pupils, (5) Social Service Squads, and Practical Measures.

These details have been following paragraphs:

(1) Staff Council: The aim of the staff council is to plan all important matters of the school. The staff council may be further split up into committees to plan and execute specific tasks. Meetings of the staff council should be held frequently to discuss all important issues. Senior members of the staff should constitute the staff council.

(2) Student’s Council: A student council consisting of Secretaries form different houses, associations and clubs should form a student’s council with the aim of giving the students training in self-government. The student councils can be guided and assisted by a staff adviser.

(3) Staff Meetings: Meetings of the staff should be called fortnightly to discuss the different matters and the staff should have the idea that whatever has been decided upon is mainly their work.

(4) Special Committee of Pupils: In addition to the student council, special committees should be formed, duly elected by the pupils to carry out specific duties and organise special activities for maintaining discipline, organising debates, dramatics, exhibitions, flower shows, literary societies, music concerts etc.

(5) Social Service Squads: Such type of squads can render service in the form of laying roads, arranging committee functions, cleanliness campaigns in the neighbourhood, literary campaigns, helping the sick, looking after the families of the jawans, collection of national defence fund, etc.

(6) Practical Measures: Practical measures are to be adopted for democratic educational administration and staff council, students’ council, staff, meetings, special committees of pupils, social services squads, etc.

22.6 School Records

Every school has keep records and registers which facilitate to know its origin, its growth and development, its progress and efficiency at different periods, its achievements and usefulness. Therefore maintenance of school records and registers are very important in educational management.

Need of School Records

The records of a school essential for its management, administration and organization. A school head to provide, marks sheets and certificates to students when they complete the education of the
school. These certificates are issued to the students by the school head on the basis of school records. The school records are required for the following purposes.

(1) The work distribution of teaching is done by preparing classwise and teacherwise time-table. It indicates the work load of teachers and for the functioning of the school. Teaches leave record is maintained by teachers attendance register.

(2) The students attendance register is needed for students attendance and fee account and to realize fine of students. The students are required 75 percent attendance for appearing final board examinations. The students try to reach in the school in right time before the school time.

(3) Teacher diary indicates the courses assigned and completed before the examinations and also the students performance record. Teacher work is recorded.

(4) The students admission and their enrolment and cumulative records are maintained for issuing the certificate to them. The leaving certificates or withdrawal transfer certificates are issued on the basis of their records in the schools.

(5) The N.C.C. incharge of the school also maintains the attendance and there participation in the programmes for issuing the N.C.C. certificate or N.S.S. certificate.

(6) The sport officer also maintains the record of students participation for issuing games certificate.

(7) The library maintains daily issuing books and return of books of each and every student and teacher.

(8) The stock register of a school maintains record of furniture books approtus and other equipments for the school.

(9) The correspondence made to state and district education authorities is essential for reminding and replying the quires.

(10) The cashbook register is maintained dail income and expenditure. The salary register and finances are maintain for school budget etc.

**Objectives of School Records**

The objectives of school records have given in the following paragraphs:

(a) **To help the School**

1. To locate each pupil quickly.
2. To have available the facts significant about each pupil.
3. To explain and remove undesirable conditions.
4. To find if all legal requirements are met.
5. To make important investigation and case studies possible.
6. To find if school funds are adequate and wisely expended, and maintained
7. To reduce retardation and failure to the minimum.

(b) **To help the Class-room Teacher**

1. To known pupils when the school year begins.
2. To determine what work a pupil is capable of doing.
3. To provide learning activities suitable to each pupil.
4. To formulate a basis for the intelligent to each pupil.
5. To explain the behaviour characteristic or unhappy conditions of any pupil.
6. To make possible the development of unusual capacities or exceptional talents.
7. To make proper provisions for mentally slow.
Notes

8. To make assignment to committee work and monitory positions.
9. To make periodic reports correctly and in time.
10. To be properly informed when conferring with parents and others about pupils.

(e) To help the Pupil
1. To receive fair consideration in his classification.
2. To do his best in making a good record.
3. To make a progress in accordance with his ability.
4. To secure development of his natural capabilities.
5. To secure transfer of correct information to other schools when desired.
6. To receive proper adjustment and guidance.

Types of School Records and Registers

School records may be classified under the following heads:

(1) The General Records
   (a) Calendar
   (b) Log Book
   (c) Visitors Book
   (d) Service Registers of the Employees
   (e) Admission Register
   (f) Personal Record of the Teachers
   (g) Transfer certificate File
   (h) Duty Registers of the Teachers
   (i) Other books etc.

(2) The Financial Records
   (a) Acquittance Roll
   (b) Contingency Register
   (c) Bill Register
   (d) Register or Scholarship
   (e) Register of Donation
   (f) Student’s Fund Register
   (g) Cash Book
   (h) Trunk-call Register
   (i) Fee Collection Register etc.

3. The Correspondence Records
   (a) Register for Despatch and Receipts
   (b) Order Circulation File of the Department
   (c) Casual Leave Register
   (d) Register of D.O. Letters
   (e) Examination File etc.
4. The Educational Records

(a) General Timetables
(b) Teacher’s Timetables
(c) Workload statement of the teachers
(d) Teacher’s Diary
(f) Terminal Examination Register
(g) Register for Maintaining Cumulative Record Card
(h) Inspection Report of the Headmaster
(i) Order Book of the Headmaster
(j) Health Cards of the Students
(k) Register of Private Tuition
(i) Register of Punishment etc.

5. The Equipment Records

(a) Stock Book of Furniture and School Appliances
(b) Issue Register of Furniture
(c) Library Catalogue
(d) Library Issue Register
(e) Stock and Issue Register
(f) Stock Register of Crafts Articles
(g) Stationery Register
(h) Register for Newspapers and Magazines

Main School Records

The details of some important record have been given in the following paragraphs:

(1) The School Calendar

The school calendar is a mirror where the probable dates of various events’ and activities to be done during the coming session are provided. It is usually prepared at the beginning of each academic session. It should contain the following items of information.

1. Informations about the general, local and gazetted holidays
2. Dates for the submission of monthly, quarterly, holidays and annual reports and returns.
3. Dates of monthly, quarterly and annual examinations.
4. Dates of the meetings of the school and faculty committees, Teachers’ Associations, different societies, school excursions and educational tours, school tournaments etc.
5. Dates of important school functions like the annual prize day, the parents day, the U.N.O Day, Independency Day, Republic Day Birthday of eminent persons etc.

Thus the school calendar provides important information about various activities to be carried out throughout the academic session.

(2) Log Book

The Log Book is specifically designed for the purpose of containing remarks of the school inspector or other important officers of the education department, who pay an official visit to the school. But it should not be confined to the remarks of the inspecting officers only. It should contain a complete record of the important events that occur during the session. It should also contain the history of the school in a particular year. Information like the introduction of new
textbooks or apparatus, visits of the inspecting officers, changes in etc., should be written in the Log Book. The headmaster is the only authority to make entries in this book.

Every school should keep a Log Book. At present only the inspecting officers are entitled to put down their remarks in it. But it should contain a complete record of events and furnish material for a history of the school. It should mention special events, the introduction of new text-books, apparatus or courses of instructions, any plan of lessons approved by the inspector, the visits of the inspecting officers and other distinguished persons interested in education, absence and illness of any of the school staff and any failure in duty on their part, changes in the working hours of school, some special circumstances affecting the school that may deserve to be recorded for future reference or any other reason.

(3) Admission Register

A record of all the pupils who are admitted to the school. The Admission Register contains the date of admission, the serial number of the pupil, the age and name of the pupil, the father’s name, caste, occupation and address, the class to which the pupil is admitted and the date on which he leaves the school. An admission register has to be preserved permanently and is often required by some superior authority in a court of law as evidence for the date of birth of a pupil. Authority in a count of law as evidence for the date of birth of a pupil. Special care should be taken in keeping the register so that there are no mistakes whatsoever, especially in the column of the date of birth of the pupil when he is admitted to the school. Fresh entries have to be made when pupils move from one department to another in the school.

It is record of all the students who are admitted to a school. According to departmental rules, the admission register is to be preserved permanently in the school. Therefore, it is essential that it should be got specially bound and kept in safe custody. It is to be free from mistakes because this register is at times required by superior authorities in a court of law as an evidence for the date of birth of the students. The admission register should contain the following items.

1. The serial number and name of the student.
2. Father’s name, caste, occupation and address.
3. Date of birth
4. Date of admission to the school
5. The class to which he is admitted
6. Date of withdrawal or migration from the school.

(4) Student’s Attendance Register

This is another important register which is maintained in each class and section, showing the names of the students on the roll of the class or section, during a month. The attendance is marked in the beginning of the school hour. Entries should be made in ink. Blanks should not be left. Students who remain absent from the school without leave for fifteen consecutive days are struck off from the rolls. Holidays are marked in red ink. Monthly fees and fines are collected from the students in this register.

Only one attendance register should be kept by one teacher. Exceptions may be made, however, in those cases where classes are small. As the attendance registers provide a separate column for each session of the school day, attendance has to be marked for both the morning and the afternoon sessions, as soon as the class assembles at the prescribed time. Holidays and their nature should be shown in the attendance register. It should show the absences, tardiness, entrances, withdrawals, promotions failures and other information which may be desired by the administrators.

(5) Teacher’s Attendance Register

To record the daily attendance of the teachers, schools maintain the teacher’s attendance register.
This shows the time of arrival and departure of the teachers on each day. The teachers are to sign regularly in the morning and afternoon everyday. Time of arrival of the latecomers should be indicated. Leave taken by the teachers during the month, holidays etc., are to be written on it. It should be kept outside the room of the headmaster. When the first period starts, it should go to the headmaster for verification.

It records the daily attendance of the teachers in a school showing the time of arrival and the time of departure of the teacher each day. It should be regularly filled in and signed by all teachers, morning and afternoon, every day. Late comers should indicate the time at which they arrive. The principal should also mark his own attendance and check the attendance of his assistants at the commencement of each school session. Holidays and their nature should also be indicated in for Leave and nature of the leave should be shown and all application for leave should be filed in the school office. The number of days of casual leave of other leave taken by each teacher during the month, should be noted in the register by the principal at the end of the month.

(6) Cash Book

Cash book is a record of all money transactions occurring from day-to-day in the school. Money received by the school from different sources like fees, fines, donations, stipends, scholarships, grant-in-aid are entered on the credit side. On the debit side the payments like the salaries of the teachers, stipends, scholarships, contingent office are shown. Balance is shown in red ink. It should be regularly written and the day’s business should be closed with the signature of the headmaster. It should be an up-to-date record.

(7) Cumulative Record Cards

It is documents in which the relevant information about a particular student at one educational institution is recorded cumulatively. This gives a complete and growing picture of the individual student, which helps him during his long stay at the school and the time of leaving it, in the solution of his manifold problems of educational, vocational, personal and social. It follows the student from class to class and from school. It provides an opportunity to have a comprehensive picture of the all-round development of the personality of the child. It is a very important record which should be maintained in every school. Therefore, the Secondary Education Commission (1953) opines “these should be a common feature all over the country”.

Nature of Cumulative Record Card

It is a fact of experience that every child grows and develops as an entity. We can understand his behaviour or personality make-up at a given time, if we can collect information about him in light of his past activities, and take the help of a cumulative record card. The most important characteristics of such information is comprehensiveness and continuity. These two may be considered as the unique natures of the cumulative record card.

Use of the Cumulative Record Card

1. It helps teachers and counsellors to identify the needs of the individual students and understand their manifold problems.
2. It helps counsellors to know the strengths and weakness of individual students and deal with them.
3. It aids teachers and counsellors to discover special abilities in students which should be developed.
4. It furnishes suggestions and reasons as to why certain students are adjusted to the school situation.
5. It contains data which may be useful in conferring with certain students about behaviour problems.
6. It provides information, which is helpful while taking with students about their achievements in school.
7. It contains data of use in conferring with teachers about individual students.
8. It furnishes assistance to counsellors in adding students to plan their high school and post high school courses to study intelligently.
9. It is valuable in assessing the students occupational insight and in aiding them to become realistic in their vocational planning.
10. It provides much of the raw material which is used in making of case studies of certain problem students.
11. It is of use in conferences with parents about the achievement and school adjustment of their children.
12. It forms an excellent basis for reports to colleges, school and prospective employers.

(8) Stock Register of Equipments

This register keeps information of all the movable property of the school. While purchasing equipment or furniture, it must be duly entered in this property register. The head of the institution should check this register physically at least once in a year. Verification report should be recorded in the stock register. It can show which articles are missing and which need immediate repairs. The register should contain the following information:

(i) Name of the article.
(ii) Quantity and cost of the articles.
(iii) Date of purchase.
(iv) Name of the firm which supplied the articles.
(v) The authority ordering purchase.
(vi) Signature of the authority.

(9) Reports to the Parents

To get cooperation from the parents, reports containing various informations about the child sent to the parents periodically. It should contain informations like the academic progress of the child, his health condition, participation in curricular and co-curricular activities and other important information. As a result, the parents can know the physical, intellectual, social, moral and emotional growth of their children. Parents are also requested to guide their children according to the informations given in the report.

(10) Service Book

The service book contains the service history of the employees. Information like the employee’s date of appointment, his date of birth, educational qualifications, identification marks, permanent home address, transfer, leave accounts, date of increments, reversion if any of reinstatement etc., are carefully written in this book. The original service book is kept in the custody of the headmaster in the secondary school. The authorities should duly verify the service book and make necessary entries. The first page of the service book contains the following information:

1. Name
2. Residence
3. Date of birth by Christian era as nearly as can be ascertained
4. Educational qualifications
5. Exact height by measurement
6. Personal mark for identification
7. Father’s name and residence
8. Left hand thumb and finger impression
9. Signature of the teacher
10. Date of entry into service
11. Signature of the Headmaster

From the next page the name of the post, temporary or permanent, monthly pay, date of increment, details of leave account etc. are neatly written. The entries of the first page should be renewed or reattested at least every five years except in the case of finger prints.

What is Counter Signing?

(11) Teacher’s Diary

A teacher diary is issued by the school for every teacher in the beginning of an academic session. It consists various types of proforma which are to filled by teachers regularly and continuously through out a session. The following informations are filled by the teacher.

1. In the beginning teacher has to provide his personal identification such, name of teacher, teaching subjects, class teacher, his address and telephone number etc.
2. The blank proforma of personal time-table and time table of his class is to be copied down.
3. The subjects and their courses for the assigned classes are to be written in the diary.
4. The amount of content of subjects taught in last weak is recorded regularly and continuously. If no content could be taught, in a week he has to mention reason. The school remain close due to holiday or some other reasons.
5. The students internal assessment marks record is also maintained in the teacher diary.
6. The principal has to sign every month, the teacher has to put his signature on every record.
7. The teacher has to manage his teaching activities according to school calendar.
8. The courses are to be completed before the half yearly and annual examinations.
9. The teacher has to mention his participation in other school programmes and activities.
10. It is the responsibility of the teacher to make his diary up-to-date.

Advantages of Teacher Diary:

1. It provides the teaching record of a teachers and other activities performed by him.
2. It guides the teacher for completing the courses of different classes assigned to him.
3. It brings the relevance of teachers work and completing responsibilities.
4. It helps in the classroom management and preparing instructional procedure.
5. It provides the basis to the principal to supervise and to chack teachers working.

Limitations of Teacher Diary:

Theoretically it appears to very useful for teachers and for the school head but practically it has the following limitations:

1. Practically it is difficult and additional work for a teacher to maintain teacher diary and keep it up-to-date.
2. Every week record of teaching has to be recorded for every subject of each class assigned to him. It is not the easy task.
3. Teacher try to complete it when principal asks for submitting his diary. Any how they complete it.
4. Most of the teachers are not very serious in completing his diary. Change of subject and class creates problems to maintain it regularly.

(12) Withdrawal Register

The students records are maintained in the registers – Admission register, Enrolment register, students attendance register and withdrawal register. The withdrawal register are used for students who are leaving the school. They have to full fill the withdrawal form and they have to seek the no-dues certificates from different sections of the school such as, library incharge, games incharge and class teacher etc.

The withdrawal form is duly completed by the student and submit in the school office. The office has to examine the fram entries from admission and enrolment register after that school head has to sign on the withdrawal form. The name of students and his particulars are mentioned in the withdrawal register. The office has to issue a transfer certificate or migration certificate to him. The details of the certificate are also recorded in withdrawal register of school.

The admission register and withdrawal register complete the profile of student school life. It has the legal evidence for his date of birth, work and conduct. These register are maintained carefully in the school records for future use.

(13) Data Entry of Students Records in Computer

The use computer is now being used in our school management. The school maintains the various types records in school, prior to the computer this process was very time consuming while the students require their results and certificates as early as possible for their use in further education and for seeking jobs. The students data entry is made usually at four stage.

(a) Admission of the students.

(b) Students profile for the students performance.

(c) Format of marks sheet of their terminal or final records and unit plan/terms.

(d) Format of the certificates.

The details for these data entry in computer have been discussed in the following paragraphs.

(a) Admissions of the Students: Every student has to complete the admission form before taking admission in a school and college. Now format of admission form is designed according to the use in computer for the data entry. The format of admission includes all the required informations about the students. After granting admission an enrolment number is assigned to each student at the time of admission. A file is prepared in computer for every students to maintain the record or profile of the students. Now-a-days the admission record or enrollment of students are maintained in the computer data entry file.

(b) Students Profile for the students performance & Participation in School Programme: After admission the students participate in various school social, cultural and co-curricular activities: N.C.C Scouting and N.S.S. programmes. The students participation their level of performance and awards are also recorded in the computer file referring to their enrollment numbers. The provision is made in the format of students file. The format of computer performa has the columns of these data entry. In this way computer prepares students profile for each students simultaneously.

(c) Format of Marks Sheet and Terminal/Final Result: The main task of a school is to organize teaching and conduct examination, first, second and final/ terminal examination. Before examination, students have to complete examination form which includes the admission card. The format of examination form is prepared according to use of computer data entry. Every students is allotted examination number to maintain examination records in computer. After examination obtained marks of the students are entered in the computer. The computer prepares the marks sheet of each students and the consolidated result of the examination. In
the home examination first, second and terminal marks are also entered and students results prepared very quickly and students marks sheets also prepared simulatously. The result are given on computer internet service before publishing in the newspaper.

**Importance of School Records**

The following are the Importance of School Records:

1. Schools keeps an account of each student on its roll and submits periodic reports, which contain all the necessary information about the students.
2. The school records help to submit to the Department of Education the budgetary statement of financial needs at the beginning of the session.
3. School records help to judge the progress of the student on rolls, their strength and weakness and help the teachers and parents to bring about desirable changes.
4. The records also help to know the educational achievements of a particular locality and even of the state.
5. School records help in the development of healthy relationship between the school and home. From the progress report, both the teachers and parents evaluate the student’s achievement and progress.
6. School records help in undertaking educational research. Research scholars get a complete picture on student progress, instructional materials, physical development promotion practices, different tests etc. The research findings also help the school authorities to introduce new educational reforms.

**Maintenance of School Records**

1. **Stock List**: In every institution, a stock list of register should be prepared.
2. **Particulars**: On the outer cover of each register, the following particulars should be written:
   - (i) The name of the school,
   - (ii) The Serial No. of the register,
   - (iii) The name of the register,
   - (iv) Number of the volume.
   - (v) The number of page in the volume and dates on which the volume was opened as closed.
3. **Pages**: When a register is opened, the page should be numbered consecutively, either in red ink or with a numbering machine.
4. **Registration**: Registration should be kept tidy. Writing and figuring should be such as will give a neat appearance to the entries. Figures must not be joined. Registers should not be folded or the page crumpled. Over-writing should not be permitted.
5. **Countersigning**: Entries should be countersigned by the principal. A new volume of a register should not be opened every year, if the previous volume contains some blank pages. Whenever a fresh book is put into use, a remark on the flysheet of the book that the previous volume has been fully used and lodged in the records should be recorded and the date from which the new register is used and the number of pages it contains should also be noted therein.

**Self Assessment**

1. **State whether the following statements are ‘true’ or ‘false’**.
   - (i) Coordination ensures the close interrelation and integration of all the functional activities of the organisation.
**Notes**

(ii) Discipline in school means ‘order and system’ in doing things, regularity and obedience to
commands.

(iii) All Co-curricular activities should be supervised by the students.

(iv) Practical measures are to be adopted for democratic educational administration.

(v) The admission register contains all records related to students.

(vi) Service book contains the school activity records.

(vii) The withdrawal form is duly completed by the students and submit in the school office.

### 22.7 Summary

- Ordway Tead has laid down the scope of general administration under five areas, viz. Production,
  Assuring Public Use, Finance and Accounting, Personnel and Coordination. Applying these
  five areas to the field of education, we get the following scope of educational administration:

  (i) Production: It refers to the social activity of work for which an organisation is set up.

  (ii) Assuring Public Use: It means that the activity and the product, of the efforts of the
  organisation, the goals and services are produced, must be such that they are acceptable to
  the public and of use and benefit, because it is for this that the public has set up the
  organisation.

  (iii) Finance and Accounting: It refers to the receipt and disbursement of money invested in the
  activities of the organisation. Educational administration is also concerned with receiving
  and spending money necessary for the operation and activities of the educational machinery.

  (iv) Personnel: It is the framing and operation of policies and procedures for recruitment of
  workers and maintenance of goodwill and personal relationship among them in order to
  ensure fullest interest, cooperation, morale and loyalty of all the persons working in the
  organisation.

  (v) Coordination: It is an important activity of educational administration. It ensures the close
  inter-relation and integration of all the functional activities of the organisation such as
  personnel, finance and production of desired results.

- Application of educational management in administrative area internal administration is the
  system under which the headmaster of a school manages and directs the day-to-day programmes
  and activities with the help of his colleagues and students in accordance with the general rules
  and regulations laid down by the Education Department.

- Legal Structure: It refers to the laws that have to be passed and rules and regulations that have
  to be framed in order to determine the agencies of education, their types, powers and standards
  of educational institutions to be run by them.

- Pupils: These are the centre of the educational enterprise. It is for them that the entire process
  of education and its constituents exist. It is, therefore, necessary determine the individual and
  social purposes and procedures of their education is accordance with their needs, interests and
  capacities and the demands of society.

- Personnel: Man power has to be found and engaged to run educational activities necessary.
  Personnel play the key role in education.

- Finance: It includes problems of income and expenditure and their accounting and auditing.

- Curriculum: It is the means of achieving the goals of education. Educational administration
  has to deal with the problems of curriculum construction and its day to day development. It has
  also to look after the continuous evaluation and progressive improvement of the educational
  programme which are urgently called for in view of the constantly going on scientific,
  technological and social changes.
• Physical Facilities: It comprises of the area dealing with the problem of provision and maintenance of the school, plant, equipment and supplies, etc., their production, purchase upkeep and accounting.

• Public Relations: Education is a social enterprise run with the cooperation of students, teachers, parents and the community.

• According to modern educational thinking the meaning of discipline is taken in widespread form. Today, where the objective of education has been understood to develop qualities of successful citizenship and sociability in child, at the same place, school discipline is meant internal and external discipline which should develop physical, mental, social and ethical values.

• Discipline is schools generally means “orders and system in doing things, regularity and obedience to commands.” But discipline is not synonymous with class-order. It should not be identified with orderly behaviour in the classroom and other forms of school activities.

• Discipline is very much important in the life. In want of it man cannot utilise powers properly given by nature (God). Through discipline only, man can attain good power, and by this power he becomes capable in developing of his natural tendencies with personal viewpoint, discipline is very important.

• The Headmaster: ‘As the headmaster, so the school,” is well-known saying. In fact success of failure of any school system depends upon the personality or the headmaster. He must possess some philosophy of discipline and see that school.

• The Teacher: In fact, teacher the fountain-head in of all good discipline and charactors formation. With good teacher, half the problem of school discipline disappears.

• Teaching Methods: If appropriate methods of teaching are employed, the chances of pupils getting indisciplined or going astray, will be few and far between, classroom methods should be directed towards producing well-adjusted and self-disciplined individuals and towards the building up of a high morale.

• A Good School Environment: Every school should prepare its calendar in the beginning of new school session, giving a clear idea of the aims, the courses of study administrative rules and regulations.

• Co-curricular Activities: Sports, scouting, N.C.C., social service and community activities of the type, develop in pupils a sense of self-control and self-confidence, which is the cornerstone and good discipline. Such activities give our pupils practical lessons in subjugation of their will.

• Self-Government in Schools: In every secondary school, pupils be properly associated with the administration of discipline as well as with the health, sports dramatic and other school activities, such an association will make obedience rules and regulations far more real meaningful and willing than when the same is imposed form above.

• Effective Team-Workers: A sense of unity, co-operation and fellow-feeling, prevailing among the school-staff is sure to reflect upon the pupils.

• Building up Traditions: As we have already stated, school discipline is closely connected with school traditions. The higher and nobler the traditions, built-up by a school, the greater the efforts on the parts of pupils and teachers to maintain those traditions.

• Judicious use of Rewards and Punishments: Meritorious and successful efforts on the part of pupils, must be recognised and rewarded.

• It is the process of putting things together in a harmonious relationship so that they may function more effectively. The administrator has to reckon with many physical, social and economic forces.
Notes

- Co-ordination of Co-curricular Activities
  - Before an activity is lunched it should be approved democratically by the staff. Before approving a new activity the following things should be kept in mind:
  - All the members should be democratically taken into confidence before introducing any activity in the school. Coaches or sponsors of school activities should be the members of the staff and not outsiders.
  - The number of activities which as students should be allowed to take part in during an academic year should be according to his needs. A limitation on participation is required because it will check the over ambitious form overloading himself with activities to the possible detriment to his health and regular studies and because a larger number of students will be able to participate in the activities organised in the school.

- Control of Co-ordination
  - All co-curricular activities should be supervised by the school. They should be amenable to school control and discipline. Too much supervision is of course not required, nor is it desirable, because it stifles spontaneity and makes it difficult for students to develop initiative, leadership and fellowship.

- Factors of Co-ordination
  - Coordination has the following three factors:
    (i) There are the parts and the aspect of the programme, such as the staff, students, parents, curriculum, etc.
    (ii) There are the means of coordination, such as the rules, regulations, customs, etc.
    (iii) There are the climate, the environment and the powers of coordination. The administrator, for each particular situation, has to decide which parts, which methods and what powers he is going to use.

- Education is process of development. Educational institutions are established for human development education creature and creator of the society.

- The term ‘growth and development’ is psychological in nature, but the process of growth and development is implemented by school management. It is also the responsibility of a principal which are oriented towards the growth of development of students, teachers and the institution. It is essential to understand the concept of growth and development.

- Organization has been a major problem in the field of education.

- Practical Measure for School Management
  - The practical measure for school management are given in the follow: (1) Staff Council (2) Student’s Council, (3) Staff Meetings, (4) Special Committee of Pupils, (5) Social Service Squads, and Practical Measures.
  - These details have been following paragraphs:
    - Staff Council: The aim of the staff council is to plan all important matters of the school. The staff council may be further split up into committees to plan and execute specific tasks.
    - Student’s Council: A student council consisting of Secretaries form different houses, associations and clubs should form a student’s council with the aim of giving the students training in self-government.
    - Staff Meetings: Meetings of the staff should be called fortnightly to discuss the different matters and the staff should have the idea that whatever has been decided upon is mainly their work.
    - Special Committee of Pupils: In addition to the student council, special committees should be formed, duly elected by the pupils to carry out specific duties and organise special activities for maintaining discipline.
• Social Service Squads: Such type of squads can render service in the form of laying roads, arranging committee functions, cleanliness campaigns in the neighbourhood, literary campaigns, helping the sick, looking after the families of the jawans, collection of national defence fund, etc.

• Practical Measures: Practical measures are to be adopted for democratic educational administration and staff council, students' council, staff meetings, special committees of pupils, social services squads, etc.

• School Records: Every school has keep records and registers which facilitate to know its origin, its growth and development its progress and efficiency at different periods, its achievements and usefulness.

• The records of a school essential for its management, administration and organization. A school head to provide, marks sheets and certificates to students when they complete the education of the school. These certificates are issued to the students by the school head on the basis of school records.

• The objectives of school records have given in the following paragraphs:

  (a) To help the School

    (i) To locate each pupil quickly.

    (ii) To have available the facts significant about each pupil.

    (iii) To explain and remove undesirable conditions.

    (iv) To find if all legal requirements are met.

    (v) To make important investigation and case studies possible.

  (b) To help the Class-room Teacher

    (i) To known pupils when the school year begins.

    (ii) To determine what work a pupil is capable of doing.

    (iii) To provide learning activities suitable to each pupil.

    (iv) To formulate a basis for the intelligent to each pupil.

  (c) To help the Pupil

    (i) To receive fair consideration in his classification.

    (ii) To do his best in making a good record.

    (iii) To make a progress in accordance with his ability.

• Types of School Records & Registers

• School records may be classified under the following heads:

• The General Records

  (a) Calendar

  (b) Log Book

  (c) Visitors Book

  (d) Service Registers of the Employees

• The Financial Records

  (a) Acquittance Roll

  (b) Contingency Register

  (c) Bill Register

  (d) Register or Scholarship

  (e) Register of Donation
Notes

- The Correspondence Records
  (a) Register for Despatch and Receipts
  (b) Order Circulation File of the Department
  (c) Casual Leave Register

- The Educational Records
  (a) General Timetables
  (b) Teacher’s Timetables
  (c) Workload statement of the teachers
  (d) Teacher’s Diary
  (f) Terminal Examination Register

- The Equipment Records
  (a) Stock Book of Furniture and School Appliances
  (b) Issue Register of Furniture
  (c) Library Catalogue
  (d) Library Issue Register
  (e) Stock and Issue Register

- Main School Records
  (i) The School Calendar
      The school calendar is a mirror where the probable dates of various events’ and activities to be done during the coming session are provided. It is usually prepared at the beginning of each academic session. It should contain the following items of information.
  (ii) Log Book
      The Log Book is specifically designed for the purpose of containing remarks of the school inspector or other important officers of the education department, who pay an official visit to the school.
  (iii) Admission Register
      A record of all the pupils who are admitted to the school. The Admission Register contains the date of admission, the serial number of the pupil, the age and name of the pupil, the father’s name, caste, occupation and address, the class to which the pupil is admitted and the date on which he leaves the school.
      It is record of all the students who are admitted to a school. According to departmental rules, the admission register is to be preserved permanently in the school.
  (iv) Student’s Attendance Register
      This is another important register which is maintained in each class and section, showing the names of the students on the roll of the class or section, during a month.
      Only one attendance register should be kept by one teacher.
  (v) Teacher’s Attendance Register
      To record the daily attendance of the teachers, schools maintain the teacher’s attendance register. This shows the time of arrival and departure of the teachers on each day.
  (vi) Cash Book
      Cash book is a record of all money transactions occurring from day-to-day in the school. Money received by the school from different sources like fees, fines, donations, stipends, scholarships, grant-in-aid are entered on the credit side.
Cumulative Record Cards

It is documents in which the relevant information about a particular student at one educational institution is recorded cumulatively. This gives a complete and growing picture of the individual student, which helps him during his long stay at the school and the time of leaving it, in the solution of his manifold problems of educational, vocational, personal and social.

- Use of the Cumulative Record Card
  (i) It helps teachers and counsellors to identify the needs of the individual students and understand their manifold problems.
  (ii) It helps counsellors to know the strengths and weakness of individual students and deal with them.
  (iii) It aids teachers and counsellors to discover special abilities in students which should be developed.
  (iv) It furnishes suggestions and reasons as to why certain students are adjusted to the school situation.

Stock Register of Equipments

This register keeps information of all the movable property of the school. While purchasing equipment or furniture, it must be duly entered in this property register.

Reports to the Parents

To get cooperation from the parents, reports containing various informations about the child sent to the parents periodically. It should contain informations like the academic progress of the child, his health condition, participation in curricular and co-curricular activities and other important information.

Service Book

The service book contains the service history of the employees. Information like the employee’s date of appointment, his date of birth, educational qualifications, identification marks, permanent home address, transfer, leave accounts, date of increments, reversion if any of reinstatement etc., are carefully written in this book.

Teacher’s Diary

A teacher diary is issued by the school for every teacher in the beginning of an academic session.

Withdrawal Register

The students records are maintained in the registers – Admission register, Enrolment register students attendance register and withdrawal register. The withdrawal register are used for students who are leaving the school.

Data Entry of Students Records in Computer

- Admissions of the Students : Every student has to complete the admission form before taking admission in a school and college.

Importance of School Records

- The following are the Importance of School Records :
  (i) Schools keeps an account of each student on its roll and submits periodic reports, which contain all the necessary information about the students.
  (ii) The school records help to submit to the Department of Education the budgetary statement of financial needs at the beginning of the session.
Notes

(iii) School records help to judge the progress of the student on rolls, their strength and weakness and help the teachers and parents to bring about desirable changes.

22.8 Keywords

• Intervention : process to became involved in a situation in order to improve or help.
• Statutory : fix by law, that must be done by law.

22.9 Review Questions

1. What are the areas of Educational administration ?
2. What is the importance of discipline in school ?
3. Explain the Co-ordination of Co-curricular activities.
4. Describe the following.
   (i) Student’s admission register
   (ii) Teacher’s diary
   (iii) Service book.
   (iv) What is the use of Cumulative record Card ?

Answers : Self Assessment

1. (i) T (ii) T (iii) F (iv) T
   (v) T (vi) F (vii) T

22.10 Further Readings

Objectives

The objectives of this unit can be summarised as below:

• To explain about Quality Management in Education
• To discuss about Objectives of Education and Quality
• To describe about Challenges of Quality Management in Education

Introduction

Education is no doubt goal and market oriented accordingly quality of education has been seen with reference to the concepts like; fitness of educational outcomes and experience for use defect avoidance in education process excellence in educational process, conformance of education output to planned goals, specifications and requirements value addition in education and meeting or exceeding customers’ expectations of education.

Meeting or exceeding customer needs, continuous improvement, leadership and human resource development in the system, fear reduction, recognition and reward, teamwork, measurement and systematic problem solving are the quality principles in higher education. He lays emphasis upon processes.

Quality in education is a multidimensional concept, which includes all related function and activities that form the part of academic life in a university system. Therefore, any framework for assessment of quality should take into account the quality of students, teachers, infrastructure student support services, curricula assessment and resources.

The real test of quality in education lies with the results. Quality must be viewed in terms of outcomes. The educated person should display specific competencies in specific areas. The list of specific competencies regarding quality comprised of, to be literate and have a world view, to appreciate the contribution of civilization, to value freedom and justice, to appreciate aesthetics, to have a commitment to the common good, to be critical and analytic, to have empathy, and to participate politically, economically, and socially in society. A well-educated person is a wise consumer, a caring and competent person, and he is able to achieve a balance between individual freedom and
responsibility to society, he has developed a talent that is fully translatable into a self-satisfying career, and has a sense of self-worth and strong respect of other people and culture. Such standards help to define the content of quality education.

Education must undergo a paradigm shift. Old norms and beliefs must be challenged. Institutions must learn to work with fewer resources. Educational professionals must help students develop the skills they need to compete in a global economy. The quality of education will improve when administrators, teachers, staff, and school board members develop new attitudes that focus on leadership, teamwork, cooperation, accountability and recognition. Therefore, quality is vital for education for improving existing set up, internal systems and procedure and teaching learning environment.

23.1 Quality Management in Education

Total quality management is recognized as an important management philosophy and is widely used in development and acquisition of education. It recognizes the need for continuous development of the education system, whether students, faculty, or administration. TQM involves principles applicable to classroom teaching, administration, examination system, curriculum development, and faculty development, which mean changing the culture of organization.

It is generally viewed that quality lies in business organizations, but due to rapid change in social needs, it has become prime agenda of the countries worldwide. In the changing context marked by expansion of education and globalisation of economic activities, education has become a national concern with an international dimension. To cope with this changing context, countries have been pressurized to ensure and assure quality of education at a nationally comparable and internationally acceptable standard. Consequently, many countries initiated “national quality assurance mechanisms” and many more are in the process of evolving suitable strategy. Most of the quality assurance bodies were established in nineties and after a few years of practical experience, they have started rethinking many issues of quality assurance.

23.2 Objectives of Education and Quality

The quality management framework of any institution is derived from its broad objectives. Therefore, the right objectives of education must be set, both at the national as well as institution levels, before implementing the total quality management. The objective may broadly be classified in the following three categories:

(a) **Social Excellence**: Social norms are the foundation of a country’s culture and provide longevity to its social values. Many religions and/or polities systems attempt to provide such norms. Different groups/counties have chosen different models for their community affairs and ethics, e.g. Islamic ethics, Christian ethics, Hindu ethics, socialism, etc. the believers of these religions derive their social norms from their religions.

(b) **National Excellence**: Unity and integrity among the countrymen cannot be taken for granted. It must be designed, developed and groomed through the educational processes. It can easily be lost with unplanned and borrowed literature of other counties. For this to be a strong objective, every mean must be used, including education, media, and the law. The subject of Social Studies
taught in schools is specifically designed to achieve this goal. These values are also normally imbedded in many other subjects, like Literature. Similarly, many extra-curricular activities are also designed to achieve this goal, e.g. the morning assembly in schools, the national anthem in all public functions, national integrity in classes, defence training in schools and colleges, etc.

(c) **Academic Excellence**: This focuses around academic outcome, i.e. results of academic learning. This is creation of the right capabilities of the subject matter/discipline, e.g. engineering, medicine, chemistry etc. Its quality is usually measured also include Industry Feedbacks, Employability, Career Progression, Job Retention Rate, Accessibility. Affordability, and fulfil of National Economic and Defence Priorities, etc. Total quality Management: Assurance function for the objective of Academic Excellence includes activities like: employers needs analysis, designing needs-based courses and academic standards focusing on “Application”, practical orientations in schools, research in colleges/universities that leads to the development of industrial and national requirements, systems which measure the quality and performance of education (both at an institution and the country levels), process control of the teaching and learning activities to ensure the quality of faculty, curriculum students, teaching environment, and learning activities to ensure the quality of faculty, curriculum, students, teaching environment, and placing a system of customer satisfaction, etc.

### 23.2.1 Changes in the Vision of Quality

The vision of quality of education is very much a function of the mission of the education system, educational training, social insertion, preparation for work, and for citizenship. These are occurring in particular, historical, ideological and in political context. Additional missions are expected from the education system, thus altering our vision of quality, four major trends of relevance of the topic are dealt with the following:

#### 23.2.2 Globalization of Societies

Globalization of societies will require a common share of an international system of values: account has to be taken of local and national cultural identities, as well as universal moral and ethical consideration of tolerance, solidarity and human rights. In this situation the education system has changed the goals of education system along with vision of quality of education.

**Did you know?** Due to globalisation of economies, the tasks for different skill development and the priorities attached to the different skills development significantly change the vision educational quality.

#### 23.2.3 Shifts in the Tasks Distributed among Protagonists System

One of the major trends in recent years is that state is losing its monopolistic responsibility for education and its role is changing. The consequences of the vision of quality are, needless to say, multifarious.

#### 23.2.4 Fast Scientific and Technological Development

The combination and parallelism of the fast evolution and progress of science and technology, and of the massive and universal development of information and communication, have numerous consequences on the vision of quality of education. It is vital to remind ourselves of the humanistic or moral ideal of quality of education which is to elevate the mind and personality, as that ideal remains consistent with, and will ultimately condition, the future development of contemporary societies.

One response to the twenty-first century challenges to traditional higher education, from globalisation, from an increasingly competitive higher education sector, and from perceived initiatives of
information technology and media companies, has been launched in 1997 of Universities 21. Universities 21 are an association of major research-intensive international universities. Its objective is to assist its members to become global universities and to advance their plans for internationalisation.

23.2.5 Quality in Education

The first and foremost crisis in education is of quality. This crisis is far from uniform, and even where it is most severe, pockets of excellence still exist the midst of mediocrity. On the whole, however, universities in developing countries face an urgent qualitative challenge as higher education has become an international system, with the “gold standard” largely being set by the leading American research universities.

23.3 Challenges of Quality Management in Education

An indicator is that which points out or direct attention to something (Oxford Dictionary). Indicators may be defined as tool that should make it possible both to have a sense of the state of an education system, and also to report on that state to whole of the education community, in other words to the whole of the country.

Fry et al (1999) view that in both technical and popular sense, achieving high quality and high standards depend on many components. These components create a system, which can be subdivided into inputs, processes and outputs/ outcomes, as shown in table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components for Quality Indicators</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Inputs</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualification of staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education experience of students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range of learning resources</td>
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The lower pupil teacher ratios, improved qualification of teaching staff, and the constant or improved retention rates are positive indicators. However, contrary evidence is the declining access to foreign journals in libraries and dissatisfaction with research facilities. Perhaps, it would not be unreasonable to accept the assumption of a constant quality of educational services and conclude that the data do confirm the existence of scale in university expenditure.

The purpose of quality assessment is more difficult to discern. In many countries, there is a concern that the quality of higher education has fallen due to the lack of financial resources and rise in students’ number. In some countries, quality assessment- particularly with respect to the external use of performance indicators has been used to target research funding, and in some instances to penalize poor performance. Other countries intended to use quality assessment to lift institutional performance and to reward best practice. In several places, the emphasis on quality assessment is tied to a rising expectation in society for effective and efficient public expenditure.

23.3.1 Quality Management

In addition to setting the right educational processes, it is equally important to build management capabilities and practices within universities, colleges and schools. There are four aspects of management, which affect the overall quality of institutions.
(a) **Institutional leadership**: This includes the abilities of teacher and academicians to conceive the vision of quality. This aspect is not just for the principals and/or vice chancellors or deans to practice, but also needful for teachers in order to assume leadership in their classrooms. It is an attribute and way of working regarding teachers and administrators who make long terms goals for improving quality of their institutions/classes, measure their process and are committed to their quality goals. Every teacher and head of institution must be made accountable to the quality of his/her work. This sort of leadership cannot be developed or sustained by teacher and administrators without teamwork, long-term quality goals, concerted efforts, appropriate training, right policies, and strong commitment.

(b) **Quality Administration**: Administration function is important at two levels; i.e. institutional and classroom. The principals or registrars manage the institutional administration whereas teachers do the classroom administration. Administration quality includes:

- Size of classroom 20 is usually considered good-but depends on way of teaching and teaching skills of the teacher also
  - (a) Cleanliness of classrooms, building, bathrooms, playground, desks, etc.
  - (b) Maintenance of the institution building, desks, library, labs, etc.
  - (c) Discipline and code of ethics of both the teachers as well as students
  - (d) Conformance to teaching schedule
  - (e) Documentation of standard operating procedures and institutions’ policies

(c) **Quality Assurance (QA) Framework**: This revolves around three basic functions: Quality planning, measuring quality and quality control, and initiatives for improving quality. Main activities in educational institutions include: establishing indicators for performance measurement, collecting such data and analyzing it, collecting and analyzing the root-cause of quality problems, setting processes to rectify root-causes, changing/upgrading and revising procedures to improve quality, peer reviews and internal quality auditing, producing academic standards, documentation of systems, human resource management (including teachers and institutional staff) and reward/award programs. The following three types of quality models are globally popular:

### 23.3.2 Quality of Faculty

A highly qualified teacher does not mean high quality teacher. Highly qualified refers to high level of degrees (e.g. MS or Ph D, etc.). Whereas, this seldom means he/she can teach the subject matter effectively. For a teacher to be a good one, he/she will have to build capabilities in many other fields, in addition to the subject matter.

As regards the world of work, the chief wealth of leading edge enterprises lies in the qualities of their human capital, this is all the more true for higher education establishment, so complex and demanding are the tasks (education, research and services) required of them. On the part of teachers and researcher they demand not only great ability but also involvement and ethical values meeting the requirements of quality directed at social relevance. The quality of the staff implies, acceptable social and financial status, a will to reduce inequalities such as those relating to gender; a concern to manage staff in accordance with the merit principle and provide them with the in-service training they need, in order to fulfil their role in a changing society the establishment of incentives and structures to encourage researchers to work in multi disciplinary teams on thematic projects, thus breaking with the habit of exclusively solitary scientific work (UNESCO, 1998).

There are basically four dimensions of an effective (quality) teacher. These are: (1) Academic Competence (2) Teaching skills for the relevant subject (Pedagogy), (3) Good understanding of student psychology, and (4) Commitment and motivational skills. Usually teachers are only measured from their academic credentials, which is by no means sufficient. Excellence is required to be built...
in all the four dimensions. Figure shows a chart where the performance of two teachers is plotted on a chart. Their selection, training, and performance evaluation criteria need to be broadened to include all the four dimensions. Academic competence should be based on the Bloom’s Taxonomy, i.e. the knowledge, comprehension, skills, analysis, and synthesis capabilities in the particular subject that one is or would be teaching. Similarly they (teachers) have to be restricted to the subjects in which they are competent. It is a usual malpractice by many universities, colleges and schools to allow teachers to teach the subject in which he/she is not qualified. A teacher who is good in one subject is not necessary good in others. As a result, the same teacher is teaching one subject effectively and is doing a poor quality of work in the other (s).

![Diagram of Teacher Capabilities]

**Figure : 1 Four Capabilities of Teacher**

### 23.3.3 Quality of Examination and Assessment

The quality of education and schooling is linked with the qualification of teachers, curriculum, and educational material, teaching methodologies, equipment and physical facilities. It is well understood that the real impact of these factors on quality of education can be determined through valid and reliable examination. The performance measure of the students and teacher is based on their examination results only.

There are four main aspects of exams, which affect their quality:

1. **Planning**: ensure compatibility with the lesson plans, independence, language, confidentiality, etc.
2. **Reliability and validity**: ensure that exams measure what they are supposed to measure keeping in view the bloom’s taxonomy
3. **Management**: ensure that it is conducted effectively, and
4. **Analysis of results**: with appropriate statistical techniques and understanding.

It is usually taken for granted that teachers know to make exams. It is not true in most cases. Quality problems are seen in almost all the four aspects.

Every society has certain explicit or implicit measures or status indicators of educational quality. In general, these indicators can be divided into tree classes: educational inputs, educational outputs, and educational processes. Inputs include financial measures, physical measures, and manpower measures associated with the resources that are provided for students at each educational level. Financial measures are generally summarized by educational expenditures per student. Physical measures include the age, condition, and comprehensiveness of such facilities as classrooms, laboratories, and libraries and the provision and use of international materials and equipment.
Manpower or human resources measures include the number of personal of different types, often expressed as ratios in relation to student numbers at each level. They also include background information about these personal such as educational qualifications, experience, and perhaps knowledge competencies and attitudes.

Educational outputs refer to the consequences of the educational process as reflected in measures such as the levels of knowledge, skills and values acquired by students, and the later careers of graduating students in terms of, for example, educational accomplishments assessed by the proportion of students participating in post-secondary education.

There is abundant empirical evidence to demonstrate that these inputs, outputs, and processes are related in the sense that the use of different inputs and processes should affect the outputs of the educational system. But, while we acknowledge that these important causal linkages exist, it is important to recognize that the availability on information describing these three areas is no guarantee that we will be able to improve the quality of education that is, the availability of information by itself often restricts our knowledge of the education system to an assessment of current status.

For this reason, educational status indicators constitute a passive information system rather one that leads directly to a strategy for raising the quality of education. At one's best, one might use the information generated by such a system to develop hypotheses that may be explored for their utility in improving the quality of education.

The testing of such hypotheses might even draw upon some of the input process measures in explaining outcomes. But, even this extension of a system of educational status indicators requires some assumptions about the connections between the use of information and strategies to raise quality; educational status indicators are, therefore, best used for their heuristic value rather than their deterministic implications for improving quality.

In order for information to be used to improve the quality of education through better decision-making, there must exists a sound theoretical or conceptual framework that ties decisions that use this information to higher quality. Such theories need to go beyond description to the realm of prescriptive or predictive relations that will guide that adoption of strategic actions. That is, one needs to tie the various policies, processes, and inputs to the outputs that are being produced. Only in this way can one convert information into sound strategies for raising the quality of education.

Unfortunately, more than twenty-five years of work on educational production functions has revealed just how elusive these relations can be. They seem to vary from study to study and to depend upon the sample of schools, the specification measures of inputs, and the techniques of estimation. This is not to argue that such relations do not exist, but that they are difficult to measure and use a basis for a strategy that will improve quality in a predictable manner (Heyneman. 1983).

The problem seems to be that many measures of inputs and processes are extremely difficult to measure in a reliable and valid fashion. For example, calculating the number of library books that are available per student might make input measures of “access to school library facilities”. However, this measure would not address the issue of precisely how many books, of which kind, of what level of excellence, etc, are being used by each student. Some schools with very large libraries may have low levels of library access because of a very poor selection of books, or they may have restrictive borrowing rules, or there may be little encouragement given to students to use the library facilities. Similarly, a range of “teacher behavior” variables may be measured on the basis of observations gathered for a few hours of teaching. These observations may be unreliable and/or invalid because the few hours selected for measurement may not be representative of the general of the teacher’s behaviors.

Despite the lack of a solid knowledge base that would permit the use of educational information to set out strategies of manipulating inputs and processes in order to improve educational outcomes, the production function framework is the dominant conceptual one for building educational information systems. While experience with this approach has yielded some guidelines for
consideration, they do not always provide findings that permit a straightforward translation of available information into precise strategies for improving educational quality. At best, they suggest directions that are likely to yield better results than other directions. This means that even at central levels the use of formal theory and empirical studies based on those theories are likely to have only limited applicability linking information to quality. Although the evidence form such studies may at times be used to formulate guidelines for translating educational information into strategic decisions, one should not be limited to this approach because there are other ways to make those connections.

A much more direct connection between educational information and educational decisions for raising quality can be established through “self-evident” links. These refer to links between various educational inputs and processes that are “logically” related to educational quality. The availability of information can strengthen policy development of self-evident links have been presented (Lumsden, 1974).

It is reasonable to believe that at least minimum levels of instructional materials such as paper, writing instruments, blackboards, chalk, and textbooks, are necessary to support the learning process. In many developing countries, such materials are in short supply, particular by rural areas. Indeed, there are classrooms where none of these are present. In such a situation the instructional processes is handicapped considerably on prima facie grounds. Accordingly, it is important to collect information on the presence of such materials at the school site. Where material availability is inadequate, it should be made possible to raise quality through increasing these inputs. Even without a complete understanding of the effects of such classroom materials on learning, it is reasonable to use information on their availability to make decisions that can be linked to quality (Liston, 1999).

23.3.4 Quality of Out Put (Students)

If there is any desire to pull out their nations from marshes of decline, decay and degradation, education must be completely revamped and an important step in this direction is to introduce clean and honest entry examinations to all professional educational institutions at provincial and national levels.

The quality of the students who constitute the raw material of higher education requires special attention to their problems of access in the light of criteria related to merit (abilities and motivation); proactive policies for the benefit of disadvantaged; exchanges with secondary education and with the bodies involved in the transition from secondary to higher education, to ensure that education is an unbroken chain.

Student capability is developed as much by learning experiences as by specific content of courses. If students are to develop justified confidence in their ability to take purposive and sensible action, and to develop the unseemly characteristics of confidence in their ability to learn, belief in their power to perform and proven power of judgment in unfamiliar situations, they need real, experiment of being responsible and accountable for their own learning, with the rigorous, interactive, supportive and, for them, unfamiliar environment of higher education. If, as a consequence of being responsible for their own learning they bring about significant changes in their personal, academic, vocational or professional circumstances they will also have justified confidence in their ability to take effective and appropriate action, to explain what they are about, to live and work effectively with other people, and to continue to learn from their own experiences (Stephensop and Yorke, 1998).

| Task | What is quality of faculty? |

The quality of education and research assumes the existence of an adequate physical infrastructure that matches needs. It also assumes, however, that such infrastructure is maintained and managed
in the best possible way in the institution, interests and not mainly for the convenience of the managers. These conditions are far from being met in too many higher education institutions. In some institutions in developing countries, the libraries are no more than book deposits dating back more than ten years, laboratories are rooms with out of date equipment which is particularly useless because the basic items for experiments are lacking, lecture halls are designed for half or one third of the numbers using them. Paper is a rare commodity, which it requires long, costly and often fruitless effort to obtain. The quality of infrastructure of the internal and external environment, not forgetting the infrastructure connected with the use and development of information technology without which networking, distance education facilities and the possibility of virtual university could not be envisaged (UNESCO, 1998). Investment in development the physical facilities of institution go a long way in improving the quality of education while the Asian Model developed by UNESCO recommended one third of the educational budget for capital outlay (Natarajan, 1990).

Self Assessment

Fill in the blanks

(i) ............ is an important management philosophy.

(ii) ............ are the foundation of a country’s culture and provide longevity to its social values.

(iii) The focus around ............ results of academic learning.

(iv) One of the major trend in recent years is that state is losing its ............ for education and its role is changing.

23.4 Summary

• Institutions must learn to work with fewer resources. Educational professionals must help students develop the skills they need to compete in a global economy. The quality of education will improve when administrators, teachers, staff, and school board members develop new attitudes that focus on leadership, teamwork, cooperation, accountability and recognition.

• In the changing context marked by expansion of education and globalisation of economic activities, education has become a national concern with an international dimension. To cope with this changing context, countries have been pressurized to ensure and assure quality of education at a nationally comparable and internationally acceptable standard.

• Quality management framework of any institution is derived from its broad objectives. Therefore, the right objectives of education must be set, both at the national as well as institution levels, before implementing the total quality management.

(a) Social Excellence : Social norms are the foundation of a country’s culture and provide longevity to its social values.

(b) National Excellence : Unity and integrity among the countrymen cannot be taken for granted. It must be designed, developed and groomed through the educational processes. It can easily be lost with unplanned and borrowed literature of other counties.

(c) Academic Excellence : This focuses around academic outcome, i.e. results of academic learning. This is creation of the right capabilities of the subject matter/discipline, e.g. engineering, medicine, chemistry etc. Its quality is usually measured also include Industry Feedbacks, Employability, Career Progression, Job Retention Rate, Accessibility, Affordability, and fulfil of National Economic and Defence Priorities, etc.

• Changes in the Vision of Quality

• The vision of quality of education is very much a function of the mission of the education system, educational training, social insertion, preparation for work, and for citizenship. These are occurring in particular, historical, ideological and in political context.

• Globalization of Societies
Globalization of societies will require a common share of an international system of values: account has to be taken of local and national cultural identities, as well as universal moral and ethical consideration of tolerance, solidarity and human rights.

The combination and parallelism of the fast evolution and progress of science and technology, and of the massive and universal development of information and communication, have numerous consequences on the vision of quality of education.

In addition to setting the right educational processes, it is equally important to build management capabilities and practices within universities, colleges and schools. There are four aspects of management, which affect the overall quality of institutions.

(a) Institutional leadership: This includes the abilities of teacher and academicians to conceive the vision of quality. This aspect is not just for the principals and/or vice chancellors or deans to practice, but also needful for teachers in order to assume leadership in their classrooms.

(b) Quality Administration: Administration function is important at two levels; i.e. institutional and classroom. The principals or registrars manage the institutional administration. Administration quality includes:

(c) Quality Assurance (QA) Framework: This revolves around three basic functions: Quality planning, measuring quality and quality control, and initiatives for improving quality. Main activities in educational institutions include: establishing indicators for performance measurement, collecting such data and analyzing it, collecting and analyzing the root-cause of quality problems.

A highly qualified teacher does not mean high quality teacher. Highly qualified refers to high level of degrees (e.g. MS or Ph D, etc.). Whereas, this seldom means he/she can teach the subject matter effectively. For a teacher to be a good one, he/she will have to build capabilities in many other fields, in addition to the subject matter.

The chief wealth of leading edge enterprises lies in the qualities of their human capital, this is all the more true for higher education establishment, so complex and demanding are the tasks (education, research and services) required of them. On the part of teachers and researcher they demand not only great ability but also involvement and ethical values meeting the requirements of quality directed at social relevance. The quality of the staff implies, acceptable social and financial status, a will to reduce inequalities such as those relating to gender; a concern to manage staff in accordance with the merit principle and provide them with the in-service training they need, in order to fulful their role in a changing society.

The quality of education and schooling is linked with the qualification of teachers, curriculum, and educational material, teaching methodologies, equipment and physical facilities. It is well understood that the real impact of these factors on quality of education can be determined through valid and reliable examination. The performance measure of the students and teacher is based on their examination results only.

There are four main aspects of exams, which affect their quality:

(i) Planning: ensure compatibility with the lesson plans, independence, language, confidentiality, etc.

(ii) Reliability and validity, ensure that exams measure what they are supposed to measure keeping in view the bloom’s taxonomy

(iii) Management, ensure that it is conducted effectively, and

(iv) Analysis of results with appropriate statistical techniques and understanding.

If there is any desire to pull out their nations from marshes of decline, decay and degradation, education must be completely revamped and an important step in this direction is to introduce
clean and honest entry examinations to all professional educational institutions at provincial and national levels.

- The quality of the students who constitute the raw material of higher education requires special attention to their problems of access in the light of criteria related to merit (abilities and motivation); proactive policies for the benefit of disadvantaged; exchanges with secondary education and with the bodies involved in the transition from secondary to higher education, to ensure that education is an unbroken chain.

- Student capability is developed as much by learning experiences as by specific content of courses. If students are to develop justified confidence in their ability to take purposive and sensible action, and to develop the unseemly characteristics of confidence in their ability to learn, belief in their power to perform and proven power of judgment in unfamiliar situations, they need real, experiment of being responsible and accountable for their own learning, with the rigorous, interactive, supportive and, for them, unfamiliar environment of higher education.

- The quality of education and research assumes the existence of an adequate physical infrastructure that matches needs. It also assumes, however, that such infrastructure is maintained and managed in the best possible way in the institution, interests and not mainly for the convenience of the managers.

23.5 Keywords

- Elementary: The most basic.
- Framework: The structure of a particular system.
- Institutional: Connected with an institution.
- Regulatory: The fact that the same thing happens again and again.

23.6 Review Questions

1. What is quality management in Education?
2. Write the objectives of Education and quality.
3. Explain the challenges of quality management in education.
4. Describe the quality of Examination and assessment.

Answers: Self Assessment

(i) Total Quality Management (ii) Social norms
(iii) academic outcome (iv) monolithic responsibility

23.7 Further Readings

Books

Objectives
The objectives of this unit can be summarised as below:

- To explain about the principles of Total Quality Management
- To discuss about the Deming’s 14 Points of Total Quality Management
- To describe about the Applications of 14 Point’s of Total Quality Management in Education

Introduction
Total Quality Management (TQM) is a powerful tool in the educational setting even though it was developed with manufacturing processes in mind. The key elements to a successful implementation are (1) gain the support of everyone in the chain of supervision, (2) identify your customers, (3) focus on refining the process, and (4) use Deming’s 14 Points as a guide and checklist during the implementation effort. The final result will be a more efficient operation and a teamwork attitude rather than an ‘us versus them’ attitude between faculty and students.

24.1 Total Quality Management
Total Quality Management (TQM) was first espoused by Dr. W. Edwards Deming in the late 1950’s. His ideas were not accepted by US industry but were heartily endorsed by Japan in their recovery from World War II. Largely as a result of the implementation of TQM, ‘Made in Japan’ has changed from a derogatory term to high praise.

In the 1980’s, US industry began to see the value of a TQM approach. Such companies as Motorola and Federal Express have turned failing companies into world leaders. Motorola now does a good deal of business selling to Japan. Universities, however, have been slower to see the value of using TQM in their business, although several schools are now using TQM to improve the administration of the university.
24.2 Principles of Total Quality Management

The one factor that is the most influential in the success or failure of a TQM implementation effort is universal endorsement, in particular at the top. If management is not completely sold on TQM, it is unlikely that an implementation effort will be successful. Endorsing TQM represents a fundamental change in the way one does business. Less than full support by anyone in the chain of authority essentially condemns the effort to failure.

In our case at the Air Force Academy, we had the support of everyone above us in the chain of command, from our department head, through the dean, all the way to the Secretary of Defense. That is not to say that there were no opponents on the faculty. Faculty members are a very independent group of people, and consensus on any issue is unlikely. Because those who opposed TQM implementation were not in our chain of command, they did not prevent us from implementing TQM; however, if one of the opponents happened to be in our chain of command, we would have had a much more difficult time.

It was also very important to get the endorsement of the students as well as those up the chain. To earn the student’s endorsement, we had to make them part of the solution. TQM is a participative management philosophy, and the students had to participate throughout the effort. We therefore had to teach them about TQM and then show them how we were changing things in the course. Without that education process, we would not have had the support of the students that we enjoyed.

Once the commitment is made to implement TQM one of the first steps is to identify the ‘customers’ or stakeholders. To do this, you must treat the educational process as a system; all elements and the interactions between those elements must be addressed. Process improvement should begin and end with the customer.

A systems approach to industrial process improvement is relatively common now. In an Industrial application, the customers will include the purchaser of the product or service, suppliers, subcontractors, etc. A careful identification of the customers in the university setting needs to be accomplished. It can rightly be argued that there are many customers of the university including the students, the employers of the school’s graduates, the parents of the students, the taxpayers, the whole of society, the Board of Regents, the State Legislature, etc. We have found that by identifying our students and the employers of our graduates (the Air Force) as our primary customers, we would end up satisfying all of the other customers. On the other hand, by focusing on a customer that is too far removed from the operation, it is very easy to overlook the needs of the more immediate customers.

It is not uncommon for universities to address the needs of industry in curriculum development; however, students are usually treated more as a product than a customer. It is likely that many of the problems that plague some universities stem from an effort to make a remote body happy while inadvertently ignoring the students. This is a classic case of improperly defining the system. All relevant participants must be included in the educational system. Once all participants are identified, the relative importance of each participant can be established. Taking a systems approach to education can be a very useful endeavor.

If the student is identified as one of your customers, you must try to satisfy that customer, but you must be very sure you know what that customer really wants. An Air Force general may say he wants a fighter that can turn inside a football field at four times the speed of sound, but he really does not want that—even if it was technologically possible, he couldn’t afford it. Customers must make an informed decision in deciding what they want, taking into account costs, performance needed, legal issues, etc. Students may say they want an easy ‘A’ in every class, but what they really want is an education. If high grades were passed out with no learning taking place, prospective employers would quickly learn to avoid hiring the graduates of that university. The perspective we should take is that the students are, at least in principle, paying for the services we provide. We must be sure that we are satisfying their real long-term needs, not simply short-term desires.
24.3 Deming’s 14 Points of Total Quality Management

The 14 points of Dr. W. Edwards Deming form a framework for the implementation of TQM. We have used this list as a checklist of sorts in our effort. These 14 points are general enough that an implementation at one school would probably look considerably different from one at another school. The way that these 14 points should be used is to come to a consensus as to the application of each point to the particular situation at hand.

In the following paragraphs, we will present some suggestions on how each point might be applied to the university setting in the administration of the university and in the curriculum. Realize that these are just suggestions, many of which will be totally inappropriate at a particular university. Our purpose here is to give some food for thought and suggest by comparison a methodology one could use to apply TQM to a unique situation.

1. Create constancy of purpose

Develop a mission statement as your corporate purpose or aim. For example, the mission statement for a university might be, ‘To develop the skills, attitudes, and motivation in our students so they will become responsible citizens and be capable of making positive contributions to society.’ The mission statement for a college of engineering might be, ‘To develop the skills, attitudes, and motivation in our students so they will perform in a technically competent, socially responsible, and ethical manner as engineers entrusted with the safety and comfort of their clients.

Once the mission statement is developed, everyone (not just the faculty and administration, but everyone employed by the University) must know how they contribute to the mission. The analysis suggested here is to assess the value added by a process. If a process or a position does not add value, that is, does not contribute to the mission, it should be eliminated.

2. Adopt a new philosophy

Insist on quality in everything—classroom instruction, bookstore service, campus policing, restroom cleaning, interactions with the legislature—everything. To achieve this quality, an atmosphere of cooperation as opposed to competition must be instilled. This is particularly true in the classroom; management must ensure that the processes put in force encourage cooperation at every level student to student and faculty to student. Do away with the ‘us versus them’ attitude. Instead ask questions like, ‘What can we, the faculty and staff, do to make the learning experience in this classroom better?’ or ‘What can we, the teacher and the students, do to ensure every student has the best opportunity to learn this material?’ It is a completely different approach than most of us experienced in school as students.

3. Cease dependence on mass inspection

Focus on the product or service process. Don’t depend on audits, tests, or inspections to build quality. Inspections will only keep bad products from hitting the market, but there are large costs incurred with each bad piece. The analogy in education is that the failed student is scrap that must be either reworked (take the course again or get extra tutoring) or discarded. We need to develop processes in which there is less testing but more focus on progress in learning. For example, ask yourself why you are giving a particular test. If the answer is to evaluate your students, then ask yourself if you need this extra piece of evaluative information. There is...
evidence that we test far more than is needed to evaluate our students. On the administrative side of the university, are there too many checks and balances? Can a process be changed to make inspections unnecessary or at least to reduce the need for inspections? Statistical process control can be an important tool in developing processes that do not require much inspection.

4. End the practice of conducting business on cost alone

The lowest bid usually does not result in the lowest life-cycle cost. In all our processes, we need to focus on long-term costs and benefits. That may mean that the trendy new course not be offered if it means the failure of a course with more long-term value. Awarding the printing contract to an off-campus vendor may have lower first cost, but the inability to get adequate turn-around time or poorer quality may make the overall cost of that decision very high. University professors often complain about the poor job the high schools are doing in preparing students for college. The long-term costs of supplying educated people to society may be less if some of the resources of the university were spent on improving high and junior high schools.

5. Constantly improve processes

Are your customers (the students and their future employers) more satisfied than they were last semester? Are the faculty members happier? Are the secretaries happier? Are the suppliers of the University happier? If the answer to a question is no, find out why and fix the situation immediately. If the answer is yes, determine what it was in the process that made it so. In any case, analyze the process to determine what changes can be made to make it better. Incremental improvements must be made every semester. This is essentially the Kaizen philosophy encourage innovation, but insist upon incremental improvements, especially after the innovation. the phrase, ‘if it’s not broke, don’t fix it,’ does not apply. To help decide where to look for thing to improve, use course grades, student performance on ‘anchor’ problems, student critiques, faculty and staff organizational climate surveys, inputs to suggestion boxes, summaries of complaints, etc. Carefully designed questions on anonymous surveys can be very valuable, but talking directly to the customer is still the best way to find out what the barriers are. There is a side benefit to talking directly to the students about their problems—they appreciate it and make the ‘us versus them’ attitude much less likely.

6. Institute training

Everyone needs to know their job. The faculty is certainly well educated in their disciplines but may be not in the art of teaching. Faculty development programs help teachers know their jobs. Word processing classes help secretaries do their job better. Money spent on faculty and staff training has long-term payback. In addition, you should teach TQM to everyone—faculty, staff, and especially students. The more everyone knows about the management principles used on a daily basis, the easier it is for everyone to buy into the idea.

7. Institute leadership

Emphasize leadership instead of management. Everyone at the university has leadership role of some sort. Each person in a supervisory role (including the faculty) should try to be a coach and teacher, not a judge and overseer. As put by Senge, the leader should be a designer, a creator of an environment. Effective leaders will search for barriers to communication and productivity and remove them. A poorly lit classroom can have a significant effect on student performance. A teacher who is an effective leader will see to it that the lighting problems are fixed. A teacher who will adjust the due date on a project based on special student situations, will probably increase the learning of his students.

8. Drive out fear

In the academic setting, fear is often a big factor in student and faculty performance. For students, any steps that can be taken to reduce the fear involved in taking a test will pay large benefits in students performance and attitudes. Allowing for a make-up exam; points for reworking missed
problems on an exam, and dropping a low grade are examples of little things that can be done to reduce student fear. Teachers must balance their roles as educators versus evaluators. When asked, most professors will readily say that their job is to educate their students; however, the amount of time they spend on evaluation tends to contradict this view. On the faculty and staff side, fear can also play an important role. If a high price must be paid for failure, few people will be willing to risk experimenting with a promising new innovation, thus keeping a process improvement out of the system. If a teacher would like to try an innovative teaching technique, the effort should be applauded even if it is a failure. Certainly something of value will have come from the experiment. Researchers must have the opportunity to fail without the fear of demotion or lack of promotion opportunity. Fear is a powerful emotion and can have very negative effects on the performance of an organization.

9. Break down barriers
Encourage cooperation, not competition. Encourage the forming of cross-function teams to address problems and process improvements. A team made up of faculty, start, and students (perhaps from more than one department) will have a broader perspective in addressing issues than a more narrowly composed committee. When addressing a problem in the registration process, address it with a team consisting of representatives from every involved organization—faculty, advisors, students, registrar, computer services, etc. A solution devised by only one organization will usually have a negative impact on some other organizations. Bringing everyone in on the decision process will usually result in a better solution, and certainly one that is easier to accept.

10. Avoid obsession with goals and slogans
Just telling someone to do good is meaningless without the means to achieve that goal. Management must improve the processes so that the goals can be achieved. Stating that 80% is the minimum acceptable score on an exam will not by itself achieve that goal. Stating that goal and then providing excellent instruction, arranging for study teams, giving extra help where needed, etc., will give the students a much better chance for success.

11. Eliminate numerical quotas
It is often said that numbers are the crutches of poor supervision. On the assembly line, this principle is easy to see; in the academic setting, it is not as obvious but just as true. If there are quotas established for \( x \) number of papers per year or \( y \) number of majors enrolled, quality will decrease. The number one priority should be quality. Only after the process is designed so that quality is assured should the questions of quantity be addressed.

12. Remove barriers to pride of workmanship
Pride is a strong motivator. In the academic setting, pride certainly flows from personal and group achievements, but there is also a good deal of pride in the institution as well. Often this institutional pride is a result of having survived the program, but it can also stem from having had a part in the development of that program. If the students are included in some of the decision making processes, they will develop a strong pride of ownership that can have a significant impact on their attitudes. A step as simple as talking to student representatives about their concerns can change an antagonistic faculty/student relationship into a cooperative relationship.
one. Using some of the elements of cooperative learning also empowers the students by sharing some of the teaching role with the faculty. A secretary who is allowed to choose how the work is to be done and has a voice in some of the administrative decisions that affect secretarial work will be a much more productive and happy worker. Barriers between departments and colleges should be dismantled; each professor can learn a lot by studying the operation of another department.

13. **Organization-wide involvement**

Everyone in the institution must be included in the education process and be aware of and concerned for their immediate ‘customer’. Lab technicians who sit in on the courses that they support will have a much better idea of how their work contributes to the mission. Secretaries who learn about new techniques and technologies for use in the office are much more likely to suggest improvements to the processes they are exposed to. Professors should audit courses in other departments, particularly those courses that are prerequisites for their own courses. Faculty members who learn about TQM are much more likely to endorse the concept and to suggest new ways to implement TQM in their jobs. One cannot predict just what piece of knowledge will spark the idea that will lead to a significant process improvement.

![Figure 1: Relative customer importance](image)

**14. Define management’s responsibilities to make it happen**

Management, at every level but particularly at the very top, must take and show pride in adopting the TQM philosophy. The meaning of each of the 14 points as related to the mission must be clear to all involved. This is not a trivial process; a good deal of time must be spent in analyzing the various processes and discussing how the 14 points relate to those processes. The time spent in this effort forms the foundation for all of the TQM implementation.

**24.4 Applications of 14 Points of Total Quality Management**

The above 14 points are very general. When TQM is successfully applied, it is a result of a careful study of each point and a clear determination of how each applies to the situation at hand. No two applications of TQM will be the same. The form that a particular implementation takes is dependent on many factors such as the size of the institution, whether the institution is private or public, and the strengths of the people involved, but the most important variables are the maturity of the students and the involvement of the employer. Careful consideration of all aspects of the educational system will help determine just how the TQM implementation will ultimately look.

The principles of TQM can also be applied to high school, middle school, and elementary school educational processes as well as to training situations. The principle differences in the implementation of TQM will be the result of the relative weight assigned to each of the customers at the different levels of education. The weighting that is applied is primarily the result of the maturity of the students, but there are other considerations as well. For example, in elementary schools the most important customers, listed in order of importance, are the parents of the students, the students
themselves, and the middle school to which the students are headed. As the maturity of the students increases, the students replace the parents as the most important customer. In a training situation, the most important customer is the organization that needs the individuals trained. Regardless who your primary customer is, it is essential that the students be included in the list of customers. Figure 1 shows a qualitative assessment of the relative importance of various customers in different educational environments. Please keep in mind that only a few of the potential customers have been presented, but students must be considered in each case.

**Self Assessment**

1. **Fill in the blanks:**
   
   (i) Total Quality Management is a ______ management philosophy.
   
   (ii) The 14 points of ______ form a framework for the implementation of TQM.
   
   (iii) In the academic setting, fear is often a big factor in ______ and faculty performance.
   
   (iv) The principles of TQM can be applied to all types of ______.

24.5 **Summary**

- Total Quality Management (TQM) was first espoused by Dr. W. Edwards Deming in the late 1950’s. His ideas were not accepted by US industry but were heartily endorsed by Japan in their recovery from World War II.

- The one factor that is the most influential in the success or failure of a TQM implementation effort is universal endorsement, in particular at the top.

- It was also very important to get the endorsement of the students as well as those up the chain. To earn the student’s endorsement, we had to make them part of the solution. TQM is a participative management philosophy, and the students had to participate throughout the effort. Once the commitment is made to implement TQM one of the first steps is to identify the ‘customers’ or stakeholders. To do this, you must treat the educational process as a system; all elements and the interactions between those elements must be addressed.

- A systems approach to industrial process improvement is relatively common now. In an Industrial application, the customers will include the purchaser of the product or service, suppliers, subcontractors, etc.

- The 14 points of Dr. W. Edwards Deming form a framework for the implementation of TQM.

- Our purpose here is to give some food for thought and suggest by comparison a methodology one could use to apply TQM to a unique situation.

   (i) Create constancy of purpose

   Develop a mission statement as your corporate purpose or aim. For example, the mission statement for a university might be, ‘To develop the skills, attitudes, and motivation in our students so they will become responsible citizens and be capable of making positive contributions to society.’

   (ii) Adopt a new philosophy

   Insist on quality in everything—classroom instruction, bookstore service, campus policing, restroom cleaning, interactions with the legislature—everything.
(iii) Cease dependence on mass inspection
Focus on the product or service process. Don’t depend on audits, tests, or inspections to build quality.

(iv) End the practice of conducting business on cost alone
The lowest bid usually does not result in the lowest life-cycle cost. In all our processes, we need to focus on long-term costs and benefits. That may mean that the trendy new course not be offered if it means the failure of a course with more long-term value.

(v) Constantly improve processes
Are your customers (the students and their future employers) more satisfied than they were last semester?
This is essentially the Kaizen philosophy encourage innovation, but insist upon incremental improvements, especially after the innovation. the phrase, ‘if it’s not broke, don’t fix it,’ does not apply.

(vi) Institute training
Everyone needs to know their job. The faculty is certainly well educated in their disciplines but maybe not in the art of teaching. Faculty development programs help teachers know their jobs.

(vii) Institute leadership
Emphasize leadership instead of management. Everyone at the university has leadership role of some sort. Each person in a supervisory role (including the faculty) should try to be a coach and teacher, not a judge and overseer.

(viii) Drive out fear
In the academic setting, fear is often a big factor in student and faculty performance. For students, any steps that can be taken to reduce the fear involved in taking a test will pay large benefits in students performance and attitudes.

(ix) Break down barriers
Encourage cooperation, not competition. Encourage the forming of cross-function teams to address problems and process improvements. A team made up of faculty, start, and students (perhaps from more than one department) will have a broader perspective in addressing issues than a more narrowly composed committee.

(x) Avoid obsession with goals and slogans
Just telling someone to do good is meaningless without the means to achieve that goal.

(xi) Eliminate numerical quotas
It is often said that numbers are the crutches of poor supervision. On the assembly line, this principle is easy to see; in the academic setting, it is not as obvious but just as true.

(xii) Remove barriers to pride of workmanship
Pride is a strong motivator. In the academic setting, pride certainly flows from personal and group achievements, but there is also a good deal of pride in the institution as well.

(xiii) Organization-wide involvement
Everyone in the institution must be included in the education process and be aware of and concerned for their immediate ‘customer’. Lab technicians who sit in on the courses that they support will have a much better, idea of how their work contributes to the mission.

(xiv) Define management’s responsibilities to make it happen
Management, at every level but particularly at the very top, must take and show pride in adopting the TQM philosophy.
The above 14 points are very general. When TQM is successfully applied, it is a result of a careful study of each point and a clear determination of how each applies to the situation at hand.

The principles of TQM can also be applied to high school, middle school, and elementary school educational processes as well as to training situations.

24.6 Keywords

- **Quality**: the standard of something what it is compared to other things like it.
- **Scenario**: A description of how things might happen in the future.
- **Constancy**: The quality of staying the same and not changing.
- **Practice**: a thing that is done regularly.

24.7 Review Questions

1. What is Total Quality Management?
2. Explain the Principles of Total Quality Management.
3. What are 14 points of Deming’s of Total Quality Management?

**Answers: Self Assessment**

1. (i) participative  (ii) Dr. W. Edward Deming
   (iii) student  (iv) School Educational processes.

24.8 Further Readings

Unit 25: Time Management

**Objectives**

The objectives of this unit can be summarised as below:

- To explain about the Meaning of School Time-Table
- To discuss about the Need of a School Time-Table
- To describe about the Principles of Good Time-Table
- To discuss about Types of Time-Table
- To describe about the Procedure for Preparing School Time-Table
- To explain about Time-Table in Single or Double Teacher School
- To discuss about the Problems in Preparing School Time-Table
- To describe about the Role of Teacher in School Time-Table

**Introduction**

The school time-management is the plan school showing the daily allotment of time among the several subjects, activities and classes. What a school stands for and how it functions can be assessed from the school time-management. It is a mirror that reflects the entire educational programme followed in the school. It is the ‘spark plug’ of the school which sets its various activities and programmes into motion. It determines how the time and other facilities of the school will be allocated among different users to secure the objectives of education. It is a medium through which is reflected the philosophy of the school as well as time professional competence of the Headmaster. School time-table is the tool to manage time in school. We will discuss about it.
It prevents waste of time and energy by directing the teachers’ attention to one thing at a time and saving him from degression, confusion and unnecessary repetition. It gives each subject and activity the place, attention and emphasis that it deserves. It ensures the most effective use of the time at the disposal of the school. It regulates the distribution of work. It makes it possible to fix courses wanted by each pupil. It secures the adjustment of the school work to the pupils with regard to the demands it makes on their energy and their capacity to meet them. A very important element in the internal economy of the school, it is indispensable from the pupils’, teachers’ and principal’s point of view. Hence, it is called the “second school clock.”

25.1 Meaning of School Time-Table

“A time-table is said to be the second school clock. It shows the hours during which school work is done, what work is to be done during each period of the school-day and in each class, the room in which the work is to be done, and the teacher to be incharge of that work.” —Mohiyuddin

“The time-table is an outline of the day’s work which indicates (i) Time of beginning and ending of school day; (ii) Time of beginning and ending of each class period, activities period, and home work period; (iii) Subjects and activities offered; (iv) Days on which each class and each activity; (v) Room in which class or activity be held; and (vi) Time, length and number of intermissions.” —Edmonson

“The schedule is the spark plug of the school which sets into motion its various activities and programmes.” —Jaswant Singh

“It is the time-table that supplies the frame work within which the work of the school proceeds. It is the instrument through which the purpose of the school is to function.” —H.G. Stead

25.2 Need of a School Time-Table

School time-table is a necessary tool for its efficient working. Its primary objective is to provide time for suitable and varied learning experiences for all the children. It prevents waste of time and guide by directing the teachers’ attention to one thing at a time and saving him from degression, confusion and unnecessary repetition. It gives each subject and activity the place, attention and emphasis that it deserves. It ensures the most effective use of the time at the disposal of the school. It regulates the distribution of work. It makes it possible to fix courses wanted by each pupil. It secures the adjustment of their energy and their capacity to meet them. A very important element in the internal economy of the school, it indispensable from the pupils’, teachers’ and principal’s point of view. Hence, it is called the “Second School Clock.”

25.3 Principles of Good Time-Table

The main principles of time table have been given in the following paras :

1. **Flexibility**: The time-table should be flexible enough to suit the changing needs and requirements of the pupils, environment, season, other internal school circumstances and latest treads of education.

2. **Some Periods for Recreation**: There should be periods for recreation like play and games, physical exercises, radio listening and other activities intervening between periods of serious study.

3. **Sufficient Place for Activities**: Activities must find an honourable place in the time-table.

4. **Room for Change of Posture and Place**: The time-table should admit adequate change of posture, room and seat of pupils.

5. **Suitable Duration of Period**: Duration of period should suit the age of the pupils. A period of thirty-five minutes in summer and forty minutes in winter for higher secondary school and thirty minutes for primary school will be quite justifiable for sustaining interest.
(6) **Co-ordination of Efforts**: The time-table should permit adequate co-ordination of efforts of teachers. The time should be provided for conferences and co-operative planning. It should give free hand for adopting modern methods of teaching. Teachers should not be made slaves to any static time-table. They should be entitled to make the necessary alterations.

(7) **Providing the most Appropriate Work for Each Teacher**: It allotting work to teachers, care should be taken that each teacher is assigned those subjects which he is best qualified to teach. Teaching load should be almost evenly distributed so that there may be no bickerings on that score.

(8) **According to the Needs of Every Pupil**: A good time-table should make it convenient for every pupils to take the optional subjects he desires.

(9) **Variety of Work**: Change of work is the best form of rest for both pupils and teachers. Children should not be kept for too long at a stretch at the same subject or type of subjects which are higher in fatigue-causing power. It will be better not to have the same subject for two consecutive periods excepting, however, the practical subjects as Science, handwork, art etc. Easy and difficult lessons should alternate. Physical exercises or music can be introduced between Mathematics and Reading. Singing and writing work may not follow physical exercises. This provision should apply to teachers also. For instance, a teacher of English or Mother-tongue should not have a run of oral lessons one after the other; writing and composition lesson should alternate with oral lessons.

(10) **Provision for Best room and Equipment Utilization**: The number and size of classes and classrooms also affect the school time-table. In a school where two classes are held in the same room, the time-table should be drawn up in such a way that one class may do silent work and the other may, at that time, be engaged in vocal work such as reading. The fittings and furniture available in the school also determine the time-table to some extent. Drawing and manual instruction, require specially furnished rooms. All the classes cannot have those subjects simultaneously, even though a particular time in the school days may be the most suitable for them.

(11) **Avoiding Incidence of Fatigue**: Children get fatigued at certain school hours or certain days in a week. Following are some measures that tend to minimize fatigue:

1. The length of the period should decrease with the monotony and increase with variety of the activity required in the lesson.
2. There should be alternation of intense and of easier talks, mental and of physical applications, of study and of recreation. Singing, marching or games, should interrupt sedentary work for about one hour.
3. The “hard” subject should claim the best part of the day never during the opening periods, but only after a certain momentum has been gained. The curve of power on a school day, reaches its highest point only during the second and third periods, and then declines rapidly. Similarly, in the working days of the week one is at best on Tuesdays and Wednesdays, but lethargic on Mondays and Saturdays. Mondays following a visit home on Sunday. Mondays are days of recollections. Saturdays are full of expectations, as on a Saturday, students should think of visiting their homes the next day.
4. Age, physical conditions and season be considered while fixing the duration of periods. Pupils, in lower classes, need frequent changes of occupation, with short periods to prevent incidence of fatigue. Pupils in higher classes can have longer periods of forty to forty five minutes’ duration each. During summer, pupils get tired very soon; hence shorter school periods and shorter school day.
5. The size of the classes should be almost equal. Secondary schools have generally several sections of the same class. There are also groups for optional subjects. These sections and groups should be of uniform size. Too many large and small classes are not desirable interests of the school.
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(12) **Variation to Suit Local Conditions**: The needs of the particular locality should be taken into consideration while adjusting the working hours, and the duration of summer vacation, spring recess and winter recess. The needs of a rural school are different from those of the urban school. Similarly, the needs of the school in a hilly area are different from those of the school in the plains. For example it is not inconvenient or impractical for a school in the plains to start work at 8.30 A.M. whereas for a school in a hilly area, it is not feasible to start work before 10 A.M.

(13) **Time for Teacher’s Conferences**: Some time should be provided in the school time-table for teacher’s conferences for joint planning in the interests of pupil needs. There should be provision for shortened period for conferences. The conference period should be during the day and not at its close. In this period, students can have access to teachers, teachers to students, and teachers to teachers.

(14) **Co-operative Teaching**: Provision for an opportunity for co-operative teaching in the integrated programme should be made available if and when teachers want it. Co-operative teaching implies that two or more teachers and their classes during the lengthened period may work together for one or for several days. It includes interchange of work and is based upon joint planning for the work of the classes. A good time-table should provide this.

(15) **Fluid and Dynamic**: Time-table should be fluid enough to allow variations within a broad frame whenever desired. So there should be periods of various lengths ranging from 30 minutes and assemblies, school recess, or even for revision lessons. Supervised study, co-operative planning and discussion co-curricular activities, audio-visual instruction, field trips etc. should be assigned longer periods.

(16) **Continually Revised**: Time table should never be accepted as a fact for all times. It should be examined critically in the light of the particular factors operating in the school.

25.4 **Types of Time-Table**

The main types of time-table have been given in the following points:

1. **Class time-table**: Every class should have its own time-table indicating the distribution of subjects with teachers and assignment of classrooms for each period.
2. **Home work time-table**: Every class also have its home-work time-table. For even distribution of the amount of homework to be given to the students, the class teacher should prepare a programme in consultation with subject teachers.
(3) **The master time-table**: It gives a complete picture of the programme of the entire school per day. It indicates and details of work of individual teachers. Different sheets may be used for the days in a week, or there-may be prepared a comprehensive chart showing the programme of all the working days.

(4) **Teacher’s time-table**: Every teacher should have a copy of his own programme or work showing the details of his academic and non-academic work.

(5) **Vacant period time-table**: A special time-table should also be prepared showing the vacant periods of all the teachers. It will be helpful in allotting work when some teacher is on leave. It will show the teachers vacant in a particular period. These teachers may be requested to keep the vacant class occupied when needed.

(6) **Games time-table**: It shows which particular group or house is engaged in a particular time, game at a particular time, the games being played, and the playground being utilized.

(7) **Co-curricular activities time-table**: It should be prepared in the beginning of each session showing the different types of activities in the school, the names of teacher in charge of those activities, the place where they are to be held and the time when they are to be undertaken. It will remove a lot of duplication and over-lapping and facilitate in the formation of groups of pupils, participating in the activities of their own choice.

### 25.5 Procedure of Preparing School Time-Table

A school time-table is the blue-print of school working schedule and usually two types of time table are prepared.

1. **Classwise school time-table**.
2. **Teacherwise school time-table**

The classwise school time-table is prepared first and then teacherswise time-table is prepared. Both are used in preparing school time-table. The following steps are used for the time-table.

**First Step**: Under this step required informations for preparing time-table are collected which are as follows:

1. A list of teacher also their teaching subject.
2. A list of classrooms in the schools.
3. A list of classes with sections along with subject.

The above formations are the basic elements of school time-table these informations are collected in very specific form.

**Second Step**: A list of optional subjects with classes laboratory facilities, geography, history and Art room number of students etc., informations are collected.

**Third Step**: The size of the rooms and numbers of students in the time-table for seating arrangement.

**Fourth Step**: The last year time-table can be consulted along with additional subject and class for the present year.

**Fifth Step**: With the help of above informations classwise schools time table is prepared by an experienced teacher. It is two dimensional chart. On the first raw period and time in ascending order are noted. Thus periods and classes forms the cells. In the each cell subject and name of teacher with days are written. It has been shown with example as shown here.

### 25.6 Time-table in Single or Double Teacher School

In the construction of time-table for a single or double teacher school. One teacher has to teach two, three or even four classes at the same time and in the same room. The difficulties increase in proportion
Notes
to the number of classes a teachers have to engage at a time. No efficient work can be expected in
such schools. The following principles may be helpful in framing time-table in such schools.

(1) **Monitoryal System**: Intelligent and capable students of senior classes should be trained as
monitors and asked to teach junior class. They can be of substantial help in calligraphy, dictation,
sums of arithmetic and questions of social studies and general science. During the time when
the teacher is attending to another class students may carry on.

(2) **Self-study by Pupils**: Self study under the supervision and control of the monitor. This will
help in framing the school time-table independent work or self-study by pupils, provided in the
time table itself may be done individually of collectively is small groups. When a teacher attends
is to one class, other classes will go on doing some work through self-study. Such work should
not extend to more than 40 minutes in the higher class and 20 minutes in the lower class.

(3) **Collective Classes**: While teaching the subjects like General Science, Social Studies, Physical
Training and Drawing etc. The teacher can combine classes. He will have to plan the work very
carefully and adjust the time-table accordingly.

(4) **Subject-wise Attention**: The teacher can pay special attention to important subjects like
Mathematics and Languages. He can meet different classes for each subject individually while
he can teach the other subjects collectively. He can adjust his time-table.

(5) **Double Shift System**: The teacher can introduce double shift system to make the school work
more effective. He can meet half the classes in the morning shift and the other half in the
afternoon shift.

(6) **Dismission lower classes earlier**: The first and the second primary classes may be dismissed
earlier in the day, so that the last periods are left completely for the senior classes.

25.6.1 **Guiding Principles of Making Time-Table**

*Wofford* suggests the following guiding principles in programme making:

(1) **Equitable Distribution of Teacher’s Time-Table**: The programme should be so planned that
each child and each group has an equitable distribution of the teacher’s time.

(2) **Fair allotment of time on the Basis of Subjects**: The organization of the school should be such
that a fair allotment of time is made on the basis of subjects and subject-matter. What is fair
allotment would have to be decided on the basis of the needs of children.

(3) **Time to Study and Play**: Every good programme should provide for time to study and play as
well as to recite.

(4) **To Serve Children**: It should always be kept in mind that the programme is made to serve
children, not to be served by them. It should be child-centred.

25.6.2 **Time-Table in Double Shift Schools**

Due to overcrowding of pupils and non-availability of enough school buildings double-shift system
has been introduced in a number of high and higher secondary schools. The following four types of
double-shifts have been introduced:

(1) **Ladder-wise Shift**: High and higher secondary classes attend the school in the morning shift
and middle classes in afternoon.

(2) **Section-wise Shift**: Half the sections of each class attend the school in the morning shift and
the remaining half in the afternoon.

(3) **Sex-wise shift**: Girls attend the school in the morning shift and the boys in the afternoon.

(4) **Overlapping double-shift**: Some classes attend the school in the morning shift, some in the
afternoon and some in both the shifts for certain special subjects like music, drawing, science,
sanskrit, home science, art and crafts. In this case the same teacher these subjects in-both the
shifts.
Importance of School Time-Table

The school time-table is the specified schedule of school functioning. It has the following importance.

1. It provides the span of the school working hours.
2. The time-table indicates opening time of the school so that students and teachers must reach in time.
3. It is a two-dimensional chart-horizontal dimension shows periods with its time duration, vertical dimension indicates the class with section.
4. The periods and classes form a chart. In the chart of the cells- subject and teacher’s name with days or daily are entered or noted.
5. The time-table provides teaching schedule of subjects teacher wise as well as classwise.
6. It indicates teachers work load interms teaching periods.
7. It guides the teachers, for their teaching duties and responsibilities.
8. It is used for making arrangement in the absence of teacher.
9. It helps in equalizing work load of teachers.
10. The students get informations about teaching subjects periodwise. They can prepare themselves accordingly.

25.6.3 Important Factors for School Time-Table

Keeping in view the local conditions and the needs of the students, the shifts can be decided by the head of the institution. The following factors must be considered while framing the time-table in double shifts schools.

1) Shorter Duration of Teaching Period : As compared to that of a normal high or higher secondary school in all types of double shift schools, duration of teaching periods has to he shorter as the time available is short.

2) Disadvantages to Students and Teachers : Students who attend in the morning shift have to reach in school quite early, even in the cold winter months of January and February. Similarly, those who attend the afternoon shift will have to keep quite late. In fact, students and teachers in the double shift school are in a disadvantageous and pitiable condition.

3) Difficulty in Providing Co-curricular Activities : Because of the shortage of school time, the students cannot be provided adequate opportunity of participating in game and co-curricular activities.

25.6.4 Defects in the Traditional Time-Table

The following are defect of school time-table :

1) Uniformity : The school days is broken up into uniform chunks of 35 to 50 minutes, allocating certain hours per week to the study of individual subjects. The non-academic programme of education finds no place in the daily time-table. It is a rigid time-table designed to accommodate an educational programme consisting mainly of classroom teaching and testing of small, daily fragments of knowledge is being denounced as out of data.

2) Ruthless Master : With fixed provision of time and place the time-table puts teachers and students in a kind of lock up. It tends to fix the nature of learning experience in a relatively straight Jacker. Thus instead of serving as a good servant, it becomes a ruthless master; instead of being the means, it becomes and end.

3) One Sided : It does not contribute to the total growth of the pupil’s learning experiences. It militates against the integration of various subjects. It does not permit students to work continuously for two or more consecutive periods. It presupposes that a pupil can be a
Mathematics learner at 11 A.M. and social Studies learner at 11.45 A.M. Educational activity has to stop abruptly on the sound of the bell. At time, the activity is made to case when interest is right at the peak—the peon counting the minutes on the clock determines the fate of an educational experiences, so to say. When any educational activity has to stop abruptly because of the sound of bell, it is conducive to neither physical nor mental health.

(4) Lack of Co-ordination: It does not permit adequate co-ordination of the efforts of teaches. No time is provided for conferences and co-operative planning. Hence there is no adequate provision for the in-service training of teachers in the new teachers and their classes may work together for a period of longer duration.

(5) Lack of Novelty: If the time-table is rigid the new methods such as Project Method, Dalton Plan and audio-visual education cannot be easily adopted.

(6) Lack of Guidance: It hampers attempts to make guidance and instruction an integral part of the total learning activity. Primarily concerned with instruction in subject-matter, teachers have little opportunity for conferences to discuss pupil’s interests and needs and ways and means of meeting them.

(7) Lack of Objectives: It does not reflect the aims of philosophy of the school attempting to develop a programme of education that promotes integration. It divides the school day and the educational offerings into the piecemeal bits which are the out growth of the philosophy on which the subject-curriculum is built.

(8) Rigid Planning: The Department of Education, the University, or the Board lays down the details—the number of periods to be given to each subject, the duration of period, the length of the school day and so on. This leads to rigidity in the practice. It should not be the business of any external agency to tell the school about the number or the length of the periods to be devoted to the different subjects. These are administrative details to be decided by the headmaster. The provisions regarding the time-table if any, should be only in the nature of recommendations. The principals should be left to themselves to devise the time schedule according to the requirements of their school system.

(9) No Provision for Individual Differences: A rigid time-table not allow any provision for individual differences. Each child has his own tastes, his own preference and his own rate and speed of working. Teaching and learning do not always proceed at the same rate. The rate or progress differs with individuals. Some are gifted, some slow learners, while all have to do the same work within the period and to cover the lesson whether they grasp it or not. Some pupils feel fatigue earlier than others. Some may have a greater capacity to work for long hours. Some may like to do craft work in the beginning, and then academic work, and vice versa. The ringing of the bell puts an end to the period at a time when the child’s interest in a subject is maximum. At another time the child may not be in mood to read a particular subject, but he has to read it under the present time-table. The advocates of ‘Dalton Plan’ and the ‘Project Method’ say that every child should be allowed to proceed at his own rate. He should be given freedom in learning and chalking out his own time-table. There should be no rigidity in the time-table.

(10) Problems of Adjustment: A fixed time-table creates problems of adjustment. Some emergencies crop up daily. Some teachers may on leave. Some classes may gone out on excursion along with the teachers. A visitor may have comes to delivers a lecture. It is raining during the mass drill period.

(11) Undue Check on the Teachers: A time-table usually puts and undue check upon a teacher who wants to continue his lessons as the pupils feel very much interested in that. Lady Pankhurst devised Dalton Plan where all time-table is avoided.
Did you know? Too rigid in nature the time-table tends to fix the nature of learning experience in a relatively tight jacket. As Faunce says, “It forces teaches and students in a kind of lock up.” It militates against the integration of various experiences. It hinders the total growth of the pupils’ learning experience.

25.7 Problems in Preparing School Time-Table

The preparation of school time-table is based on some psychological principles and school facilities. The difficult subjects should be in the early periods and easy subjects should be in the last periods. The students fatigue should be taken into consideration. The following informations are required in preparing school time table classwise.

1. A list of classes with sections.
2. A list of classroom and its room number.
3. The sections with group—Art, Science, Commerce.
4. A list of teachers with subject or teaching.

It is essential to prepare classwise school time table, after that teacherwise school time table should be prepared. Preparation of time-table has the following problems.

1. It is difficult to adjust the equal work load teaching periods for teachers.
2. The difficult subjects can not be adjusted in the early periods of all the section. There are one or two maths teachers in the schools.
3. It is also difficult to adjust the vacant periods of all the teachers in the middle of the schedule.
4. The continuity of teaching periods of teachers affects his efficiency due to his fatigue.
5. The shortage of classroom adjust the period for physical education or P.T. period.
6. It is also difficult to adjust the laboratory facilities for all the science sections every day.
7. There are several types of factors vary school to school which can not be adjust in the time table.
8. The problems are created while implementing the time table in school working.
9. The shortage of teachers is also the main problems.
10. The teacher of a subject is not available in school then some arrangement has to be made of non subject teacher.

Task: What is double Shift System in School?

25.8 Role of Teacher in School Time-Table

The basic purpose of preparing a school time-table is to assign duties and responsibilities for teachers. It is a guide line for teachers working. A teacher has to perform some roles in school time-table.

1. Generally a senior teacher of a school or expert teacher of time-table is the incharge of time table. He has to prepare time table and tries to satisfy all teachers as far as possible.
2. Every teacher has to note down his own time-table as well as class time-table, as he is also a class-teacher.
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3. A teacher has to note down the courses of his teaching to different classes in his diary.
4. A teacher can assess his teaching work load and can compare with other teachers.
5. Time table incharge has to make an arrangement of teachers who are on leave or absent from the school.
6. If a class is vacant, a teacher has to engage the class.
7. Time-table indicates the role, duties and responsibilities of teachers in the school.
8. Time-table helps the teacher for his class management.
9. A class is an unit of school, if class management of teachers are good. It means school management is also good.
10. A teacher has follow the schedule of time-table in completion of his courses which has been assigned to him before the examination.

Self Assessment

1. Fill in the blanks :

   (i) __________ is a necessary tool for its efficient working.
   (ii) The number and size of __________ affect the school time-table.
   (iii) The teacher can introduce __________ to make the school work more effective.
   (iv) The Preparation of school time-table is based on some __________ principles and school facilities.
   (v) The __________ gives a complete picture of the programme of the entire school per day.
   (vi) A __________ time-table creates problems of adjustment.
   (vii) __________ must find an honourable place in the time-table.

25.9 Summary

- “A time-table is said to be the second school clock. It shows the hours during which school work is done, what work is to be done during each period of the school-day and in each class, the room in which the work is to be done, and the teacher to be incharge of that work.”
- School time-table is a necessary tool for its efficient working. Its primary objective is to provide time for suitable and varied learning experiences for all the children. It prevents waste of time and guide by directing the teachers’ attention to one thing at a time and saving him from degression, confusion and unnecessary repetition.
- The main principles of time table have been given in the following paras :
  (i) Flexibility : The time-table should be flexible enough to suit the changing needs and requirements of the pupils, environment, season, other internal school circumstances and latest trends of education.
  (ii) Some Periods for Recreation : There should be periods for recreation like play and games, physical exercises, radio listening and other activities intervening between periods of serious study.
  (iii) Sufficient Place for Activities : Activities must find an honourable place in the time-table.
  (iv) Room for Change of Posture and Place : The time-table should admit adequate change of posture, room and seat of pupils.
  (v) Suitable Duration of Period : Duration of period should suit the age of the pupils.
  (vi) Co-ordination of Efforts : The time-table should permit adequate co-ordination of efforts of teachers.
Providing the most Appropriate Work for Each Teacher

According to the Needs of Every Pupil: A good time-table should make it convenient for every pupil to take the optional subjects he desires.

Variety of Work: Change of work is the best form of rest for both pupils and teachers.

Provision for Best room and Equipment Utilization: The number and size of classes and classrooms also affect the school time-table.

Avoiding Incidence of Fatigue: Children get fatigued at certain school hours or certain days in a week.

Variation to Suit Local Conditions: The needs of the particular locality should be taken into consideration while adjusting the working hours, and the duration of summer vacation, spring recess and winter recess.

Time for Teacher’s Conferences: Some time should be provided in the school time-table for teacher’s conferences for joint planning in the interests of pupil needs.

Co-operative Teaching: Provision for an opportunity for co-operative teaching in the integrated programme should be made available if and when teachers want it.

Fluid and Dynamic: Time-table should be fluid enough to allow variations within a broad frame whenever desired.

- Types of Time-Table
- The main types of time-table have been given in the following points:
  1. Class time-table.
  2. Home work time-table
  3. The master time-table
  4. Teacher’s time-table

  Class time-table: Every class should have its own time-table indicating the distribution of subjects with teachers and assignment of classrooms for each period.

  Home work time-table: Every class also have its home-work time-table. For even distribution of the amount of homework to be given to the students, the class teacher should prepare a programme in consultation with subject teachers.

  The master time-table: It gives a complete picture of the programme of the entire school per day.

  Teacher’s time-table: Every teacher should have a copy of his own programme or work showing the details of his academic and non-academic work.

  Vacant period time-table: A special time-table should also be prepared showing the vacant periods of all the teachers.

  Games time-table: It shows which particular group or house is engaged in a particular time, the games being played, and the playground being utilized.

  Co-curricular activities time-table: It should be prepared in the beginning of each session showing the different types of activities in the school, the names of teacher in charge of those activities, the place where they are to be held and the time when they are to be undertaken.

  A school time-table is the blue-print of school working schedule and usually two types of time table are prepared.

  In the construction of time-table for a single or double teacher school. One teacher has to teach two, three or even four classes at the same time and in the same room.
Notes

(i) Monitorial System: Intelligent and capable students of senior classes should be trained as monitors and asked to teach junior class.

(ii) Self-study by Pupils: Self study under the supervision and control of the monitor. This will help inframing the school time-table independent work or self-study by pupils, provided in the time table itself may be done individually or collectively is small groups.

(iii) Collective Classes: While teaching the subjects like General Science.

• Time-Table in Double Shift Schools

• The following four types of double-shifts have been introduced:

(i) Ladder-wise Shift: High and higher secondary classes attend the school in the morning shift and middle classes in afternoon.

(ii) Section-wise Shift: Half the sections of each class attend the school in the morning shift and the remaining half in the afternoon.

(iii) Sex-wise shift: Girls attend the school in the morning shift and the boys in the afternoon.

(iv) Overlapping double-shift: Some classes attend the school in the morning shift, some in the afternoon and some in both the shifts for certain special subjects like music, drawing, science, sanskrit, home science, art and crafts. In this case the same teacher these subjects in-both the shifts.

• Importance of School Time-Table

• The school time-table is the specified schedule of school functioning. It has the following importance.

(i) It provides the span of the school working hours.

(ii) The time-table indicates opening time of the school so that students and teachers must reach in time.

(iii) The periods and classes form a chart. In the chart of the cells- subject and teacher’s name with days or daily are entered or noted.

(iv) The time-table provides teaching schedule of subjects teacher wise as well as classwise.

• Important Factors for School Time-Table

• The following factors must be considered while framing the time-table in double shifts schools.

(i) Shorter Duration of Teaching Period: As compared to that of a normal high or higher secondary school in all types of double shift schools, duration of teaching periods has to he shorter as the time available is short.

(ii) Disadvantages to Students and Teachers: Students who attend in the morning shift have to reach in school quite early, even in the cold winter months of January and February.

(iii) Difficulty in Providing Co-curricular Activities: Because of the shortage of school time, the students cannot be provided adequate opportunity of participating in game and co-curricular activities.

• The following are defect of school time-table:

(i) Uniformity: The school days is broken up into uniform chunks of 35 to 50 minutes, allocating certain hours per week to the study of individual subjects.

(ii) Ruthless Master: With fixed provision of time and place the time-table puts teachers and students in a kind of lock up. It tends to fix the nature of learning experience in a relatively straight Jacker.

(iii) One Sided: It does not contribute to the total growth of the pupil’s learning experiences.
Unit 25: Time Management

Lack of Co-ordination
Lack of Novelty
Lack of Guidance
Lack of Objectives
Rigid Planning
No Provision for Individual Differences
Problems of Adjustment
Undue Check on the Teachers

Problems in Preparing School Time-Table
The students fatigue should be taken into consideration. The following informations are required in preparing school time table classwise.

A list of classes with sections.
A list of classroom and its room number.
The sections with group—Art, Science, Commerce.
A list of teachers with subject or teaching.

Preparation of time-table has the following problems.
It is difficult to adjust the equal work load teaching periods for teachers.
The difficult subjects can not be adjusted in the early periods of all the section. There are one or two maths teachers in the schools.
It is also difficult to adjust the vacant periods of all the teachers in the middle of the schedule.
The continuity of teaching periods of teachers affects his efficiency due to his fatigue.

Role of a Teacher in School Time-Table
The basic purpose of preparing a school time-table is to assign duties and responsibilities for teachers. It is a guide line for teachers working. A teacher has to perform some roles in school time-table.

Generally a senior teacher of a school or expert teacher of time-table is the incharge of time table. He has to prepare time table and tries to satisfy all teachers as far as possible.
Every teacher has to note down his own time-table as well as class time-table, as he is also a class-teacher.
A teacher has to note down the courses of his teaching to different classes in his diary.

25.10 Keywords

- Time management: Right use of time to complete a particular task or activity.
- Interruption: A time when an activity is stopped.
- Extra-curricular: Not part of the usual course of work or studies at a school or college.

25.11 Review Questions

1. Why is the Need of a School Time-Table?
2. What are the Principles of Time-Table?
3. Explain the Procedure of Preparing Time-Table
4. Describe the Time-Table in Single or Double Teacher School.
Notes

Answers : Self Assessment

1. (i) School time-table    (ii) Classrooms
   (iii) Double shift system  (iv) psychological
   (v) master time-table     (vi) fixed
   (vii) Blank

25.12 Further Readings

Books


Objectives

The objectives of this unit can be summarised as below:

- To discuss about Higher Education in India
- To describe about the Growth of Higher Education in India
- To explain about the Improvement Issues in Higher Education

Introduction

India has an age-old heritage of education but it was largely based on caste and social status rather than being equally available to all. Traditional Hindu education served the needs of the Brahmin families. Brahmin teachers would teach boys to read and write. Under the Mughals, education was similarly elitist, favouring the rich rather than those from high-caste backgrounds. These pre-existing elitist tendencies were reinforced under British rule. British colonial rule brought with it, the concept of a modern state, a modern economy and a modern education system. By linking entrance and advancement in government service to academic education, colonial rule contributed to the legacy of an education system while preserving the position and prerogatives of the more privileged. In the early 1900s, for the first time demand for technical and vocational training in education was raised by the Indian National Congress.

Pt. Jawahar Lal Nehru (the first prime minister of Independent India) envisaged India as a secular democracy with a state-led command economy. Education for all and industrial development were seen as crucial tools to achieve economic prosperity and social equity. Following independence, school curricula were, thus, imbued with the twin themes of inclusiveness and national pride. It is through the first five year plan in 1950-51, India began its programme for providing free and compulsory education to all children by transforming the elite oriented system of school education inherited from the colonial rulers to a mass education programme. The Indian Constitution resolves to provide quality education to all. In the effort to fulfill educational needs of the country, specifically for the diverse societies and cultures of the country the government has chalked out different educational categories namely, Elementary Education, Secondary Education, Higher Education, Adult Education, Technical and Vocational Education. Institutions of excellence in higher education were
formed with a view to provide subsidized quality higher education to build a self reliant and modern India. Even at present these institutions are recognized among the best in the world.

26.1 Higher Education in India

India has been a major seat of learning for thousands of years. The present format of Higher education in India was started in 1857 with the inception of universities in the three presidency towns. At present, India possesses a highly developed higher education system which offers facility of education and training in almost all aspects of human’s creative and intellectual endeavors such as arts and humanities, natural, mathematical and social sciences, engineering, medicine, dentistry, agriculture, education, law, commerce and management, music and performing arts, national and foreign languages, culture, communications etc.

26.1.1 Academic Qualification Framework

There are three principle levels of qualifications within the higher education system in the country which are as under:

**Bachelor/Undergraduate level**: Bachelor’s degree is offered after 12 years of school education. Generally it is offered in two streams: liberal and professional field of studies. The liberal studies are generally three years programme offered in arts, commerce and sciences. Some institutions offer bachelor courses with honours in liberal studies which are not necessarily longer in duration but indicate greater depth of study.

Bachelor degree in professional studies is generally a four years programme offered in agriculture, dentistry, engineering, medicine, pharmacy, technology, and veterinary. The bachelors in architecture and medicine take five and five and a half years respectively. There are other bachelor programme which are offered only after completion of first bachelor degree. These include one year bachelors in education, journalism and library and information science. Similarly a Bachelor’s degree in law can be pursued only after completion of first bachelor degree but is of three years bachelor programme. The bachelor degree in law is also offered as an integrated degree lasting five years.

**Master’s/Post-graduate level**: Master’s degree is normally of two-year duration in both the liberal and professional fields of study. It could be coursework based with or without thesis or research. Now a days to match the skill requirement, fast track programmes in professional streams such as Executive MBA are also available to those having 3 to 5 years of experience at managerial level. Some Master’s degree such as in Library and Information Science lasts for one year while in Computer Science lasts for three years.

**Pre-Doctoral/Doctoral level**: A pre-doctoral programme - Master of Philosophy (M.Phil.) is taken after completion of the Master’s Degree. This can either be completely research based or can include course work as well which is generally of one and half year duration. Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) is pursued after masters or pre-doctoral programme and generally takes two to five years to be awarded. Students are expected to write a substantial thesis based on original research with or without course work.

**Diploma**: Diploma Courses are also available at the undergraduate and postgraduate level. At the undergraduate level, it varies between one to three years in length while postgraduate diplomas are normally awarded after one year’s study.

**Distance Learning Programmes**: At all the levels, programmes in both liberal and professional field are offered through distance learning mode which normally takes longer duration than their equivalent regular programme.

26.1.2 Institutional Framework

The degree/diploma awarding institutions consist of the following:

**Central Universities**: A Central University in India is established by the Government of India, by Act of Parliament.
State Universities: A State University in India is established by the State Government, by State Legislature.

Deemed Universities: Institutions which have been accorded the status of a university with authority to award their own degrees through central government notification.

Open University: Open University can be a central or state University imparting education exclusively through distance mode in any branch or branches of knowledge.

Institutes of National Importance: Some of the higher education institutions are awarded the said status of Institutes of National Importance by the act of Parliament.

Other Institutions: Include the Institutions established by State Legislative Act and colleges affiliated to the University, both government-aided and -unaided.

Many of the universities along with their affiliated colleges have grown rapidly to the extent of becoming unmanageable. Therefore, as per National Policy on Education, 1986, a scheme of autonomous colleges was promoted. In the autonomous colleges, whereas the degree continues to be awarded by the University, the name of the college is also included. The colleges develop and propose new courses of study to the university for approval. They are also fully responsible for conduct of examination.

The Universities are of various kinds, with a single faculty, or multi-faculties; teaching or affiliating, or teaching cum affiliating, single campus or multiple campuses. Most of the Universities are affiliating universities, which prescribe to the affiliated colleges the course of study, hold examinations and award degrees, while undergraduate and to some extent postgraduate colleges affiliated to them impart graduate instruction.

26.1.3 Regulatory Framework

The institutions imparting higher education at different levels are regulated by the following bodies:

University Grants Commission (UGC) set up under UGC Act 1956 is responsible for coordination, determination, and maintenance of standards and release of grants to universities and research organizations.

All India Council of Technical Education (AICTE) has been established under the AICTE Act, 1987. The council is authorized to take all steps that are considered appropriate for ensuring coordinated and integrated development of technical education and for maintenance of standards.

Medical Council of India (MCI) was set up by the Indian Medical Council Act, 1956, amended in 1993. The council is empowered to prescribe minimum standards for medical education required for granting recognized medical qualifications by universities or medical institutions in India. The Council is also responsible to give its recommendations to the Central Government for establishing new medical colleges, opening of new or higher courses of study and increase in admission capacity in any courses of study or training.

Indian Council for Agricultural Research (ICAR) has established various research centres in order to meet the agricultural research and education needs of the country. It is actively pursuing human resource development in the field of agricultural sciences by setting up numerous agricultural universities spanning the entire country.

National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE) is a statutory body set up under the National Council for Teacher Education Act, 1993 to facilitate planned and coordinated development of the teacher education system in the country, and for regulation and proper maintenance of norms and standards in the teacher education system. The Council is empowered to grant recognition of institutions offering courses or training in teacher education.
Notes

**Dentists Council of India (DCI)** constituted under the Dentists Act, 1948, is a statutory body incorporated under an Act of Parliament to regulate the dental education and the profession of dentistry throughout India. The council is responsible for according recognition to dental degree awarded by various universities and also for maintaining uniform standards of dental education in India.

**Pharmacy Council of India (PCI)** also known as central council was constituted under Section 3 of the Pharmacy Act, 1948. The PCI controls pharmacy education and profession in India up to graduate level. The council prescribes the minimum standard of education for qualification as pharmacist.

**Indian Nursing Council (INC)** is a statutory body constituted under the Indian Nursing Council Act, 1947. The council is responsible for regulation and maintenance of a uniform standard of training for nurses, midwives, auxiliary nurse-midwives and health visitors.

**Bar Council of India (BCI)** is empowered to make rules to discharge its functions under the Advocates Act 1961. An important rule-making power is with reference to laying down guidelines for the standards of professional conduct and etiquette to be observed by advocates. The Bar Council of India rules may prescribe for a class or category of person entitled to be enrolled as advocate. The Bar Council of India can also specify the conditions subject to which an advocate must have the right to practice and the circumstances under which a person must be deemed to practice as an advocate in a court.

**Central Council of Homeopathy (CCH)** was established under the Homoeopathy Central Council Act, 1973. The council prescribes and recognizes all homeopathic medicine qualifications. Any university or medical institutions that desires to grant a medical qualification in homeopathy is required to apply to the council. The council is responsible for constitution and maintenance of a Central Register of Homoeopathy and for matters connected therewith. All universities and board of medical institutions in India are required to furnish all information regarding courses of study and examination.

**Central Council for Indian Medicine (CCIM)** is the statutory body constituted under the Indian Medicine Central Council Act, 1970. This council prescribes minimum standards of education in Indian Systems of Medicine viz. Ayurved, Siddha, Unani Tibb. The council is responsible to maintain a Central Register on Indian Medicine and prescribes standards of professional conduct, etiquette and code of ethics to be observed by the practitioners.

**Council of Architecture (COA)** was constituted under the provisions of the Architects Act, 1972, enacted by the Parliament of India. The Act provides for registration of Architects, standards of education, recognized qualifications and standards of practice to be complied with by the practicing architects. The Council of Architecture is responsible to regulate the education and practice of profession throughout India besides maintaining the register of architects. Any person desirous of carrying on the profession of “Architect” must register himself with Council of Architecture.

**Distance Education Council (DEC)** was constituted under statute 28 arising from Section 25 of the Indira Gandhi National Open University Act, 1985. The Distance Education Council (DEC) is responsible for the promotion and coordination of the open university and distance education system and for determination of its standards. The Council provides academic guidelines to promote excellence, encourage use of innovative technologies and approaches, enable convergence of all systems and sharing of resources through collaborative networking for access to sustainable education, skill upgradation and training to all.

**Rehabilitation Council of India (RCI)** The Parliament enacted Rehabilitation Council of India Act in 1992. It prescribes that any one delivering services to people with disability, who does not possess qualifications recognized by RCI, could be prosecuted. Thus the Council has the twin responsibility of standardizing and regulating the training of personnel and professional in the field of Rehabilitation and Special Education.
National Council for Rural Institutes (NCRI) is an autonomous society fully funded by the Ministry of Human Resources Development, Government of India. It was established with a main objective of promoting Rural Higher Education for advancing rural livelihoods with the instrument of education based on the values proposed by Gandhiji.

State Councils of Higher Education (SCHI) Following the National Policy on Education, respective state governments have established State Councils of Higher Education (SCHI). These councils prepare coordinated programs of development of higher education in each state. Thus, they seek to consolidate the efforts and investments of institutions of higher education with the state.

26.2 Growth of Higher Education in India

Before Independence, access to higher education was very limited and elitist, with enrolment of less than a million students in 500 colleges and 20 universities. Since independence, the growth has been very impressive. The number of universities (as on 31st March 2006) has increased by 18 times, (from 27 in 1950-51 to 367 in 2005-06). The number of total colleges has increased by 35 times (i.e. from 578 in 1950-51 to 18064 in 2005-06). The colleges for general education has increased from 370 in 1950-51 to 14400 in 2005-06, while the colleges for professional education has increased from 208 in 1950-51 to 3664 in 2005-06 (Table 1A and IB). In its size and diversity, India has the third largest higher education system in the world, next only to China and the United States.

The government initiative for the planned development of higher education in the country and establishment of University Grants Commission has transformed the elitist system of education favoring the rich and higher class to a more democratic and mass based system. Around 40per cent of enrolments now comes from lower socio-economic strata, and women comprising of approximately 35 per cent of the total enrolments

Enrolment: Enrolment in higher education has been rising steadily although the enrolment rate has continued to remain low compared even to some of the developing countries of Asia and Latin America. The enrolment in Ph.D. rose by 28per cent during 1980-81 to 1990-91 and further by 39per cent during 1990-91 to 2000-01. This phenomenal increment in Ph.D. was due to addition of new institutions and expansion of seats in existing institutions in the country. The increase in enrolment at the PG level has also been impressive. It rose to 83per cent during 1990-91 to 2000-01 as compared to 22per cent increment during 1980-81 to 1990-91. Further the rise in enrolment of general graduates (Art, Science and Commerce), technical graduates (Engineering, Medical, B. Ed.) and Diploma were 75per cent, 75per cent and 85per cent respectively during 1980-81 to 1990-91 against that of 120per cent, 65per cent and 24per cent during 1990-91 to 2000-01. It was mainly due to the result of expanding facilities for higher education across the country.

Funding of Higher Education: Higher Education in India has been receiving continuous financial support from both the Central and the State Governments. At the start of the planning process in 1950, the total allocation for higher education was only Rs.170 million which has now gone beyond Rs.90,000 million. This impressive increase is offset to some extent by the rise in prices (inflation) and rise in number of students entering higher education. An analysis of government expenditure on higher education shows a real annual growth rate of 7.5per cent in the 1950s, 11 per cent in the 1960s, 3.4per cent, in the 1970s, and 7.3per cent. From the Annual Financial Statistics of Education Sector 2011-12, it is clear that the total expenditure by the government on education has increased by 243per cent during the period 1993-94 to 2004-05. Further the priority was given to technical education by allocating 10.72 per cent against 9.53per cent of higher education during the tenth plan.
It is interesting to note that the plan allocation for higher education which went up to 28 per cent in the fifth plan period (1974-79) has been slowly year on year basis and came down to 6 per cent of total plan expenditure during the tenth plan period.

26.3 Quality Improvement Issues in Higher Education

Although Higher Education has expanded several times since independence, issues of access, equity, and quality still continue to be the areas of concern.

Access: The Gross Enrolment Rate (GER), measures, the access level by taking the ratio of persons in all age groups enrolled in various programs to total population in age group of 16 to 23. For Higher Education GER has risen from 0.7 per cent in 1950-51 to 1.4 per cent in 1960-61, and 8 per cent in early 2000. The current GER which is about 10 per cent stands very low when compared to the world average of 23.2 per cent, and an average of 54.6 per cent for developed countries, 36.3 per cent for countries in transition, and 11.3 per cent for developing countries. In view of the projected population in the age group of 18-23 years for 2011-12 which is 144.287 million (Table 3), the access to higher education for all eligible in the country will be a major issue before the policy makers.

Equity: On one hand GER stands low for the overall population, while on the other hand there exists large variations among the various categories of population based on gender, urban or rural habitation and rich and poor. Due to regional disparity in economic development and uneven distribution of institutions of higher education, the higher education is not equally available to the different sections of the society.

Caste-based Reservation: To overcome the deep rooted problem of social inequity, successive governments have introduced caste based reservations in higher education. At present the caste-based reservation is applicable in only government funded institutions, which includes institutions of excellence and amount to approximately 49 per cent of the total seats. Due to the cast based reservation, better talent coming from non-reserved category is deprived of the admission in good institution, which creates social unrest and used as a tool to make vote bank by the political parties.

Quality: The higher educational institutions suffer from large quality variation in so much so that a NASSCOM-MacKinsey Report-2005 has said that not more than 15 per cent of graduates of general education and 25-30 per cent of Technical Education are fit for employment. The various regulatory bodies regulating higher education have constituted an autonomous bodies for monitoring quality standards in the institutions under their purview. For example, National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC) by UGC, National Board of Accreditation (NBA) by AICTE, Accreditation Board (AB) by ICAR, Distance Education Council (DEC) by NCTE etc. Though, there exists autonomous bodies for assessment and monitoring quality standards in the institutions of higher education they suffer from two major deficiencies. First, the quality norms of such councils are not comparable with international standards. Secondly, the enforcement process is not stringent. Further political interference and corruption dilute the role and impact of these intuitions in ensuring the desired quality standards.

Cost of Education: Government funding on higher education has been diminishing on a year on year basis for more than one decade. In the view of withdrawal of government support to finance higher education private institutions has been allowed to take over the responsibility of imparting education to all. Further, in government aided universities the model of self financing and self sustaining institutions has been introduced. All these developments have added to the cost of education significantly. Though, the education loan has been made easy to facilitate higher education still the terms and conditions imposed by banks in terms of guarantee and criteria of minimum income of family restricts the talent coming from the poor families to go for higher education.
Shortage of Teachers: Economic growth led by industrial and service sector during the last decade has created more opportunities and faster career growth for the young talent. Further, the lucrative salaries and glamour has acted as catalyst in attracting talent to such fast growing sectors. Higher education in India which has been passing through transition on account of privatization and withdrawal of financial support from the government has been finding it difficult to attract adequate number of young talent to teaching job. It is a big challenge for higher education sector to sustain in future due to lack of availability of faculty.

Declining Enrolment in Traditional Fields of Knowledge: The changing economic structure coupled with cultural transformation in terms of life style has lead to shift in choice for studies. The major chunk from youth opts for professional courses leading to early employment and faster growth. Therefore, the teaching and research in such faculties is able to attract the best of, the talent leaving only a few for fundamental research in basic sciences, literature, art and languages. It, thus, poses the challenge to the sustenance and the development of these basic pillars of knowledge.

Red Tapism: It is an irony in India that the bureaucracy restricts the modernization and expansion of higher education by private players intended to impart quality education. At the same time a large number of institutions without having adequate infrastructure and offering sub-standard education are not only surviving but flourishing. Therefore, to develop a professional, transparent and efficient mechanism to ensure expansion of quality education at a fast pace is greatly desirable.

Vocationalization at the First Degree Level: In conformity with the National Policy on Education, 1986, a scheme to provide career orientation through education at the first degree level was launched in 1994-95. Under the scheme, a university/college could introduce one to three vocational courses in 35 identified subjects. As a result, a number of job oriented programs lasting for approximately 6 months to one year have been introduced in the colleges/universities.

Autonomous Colleges: To keep up with the changes in higher education due to globalization, institutions which has infrastructure and other facilities are given more functional autonomy. By the year 2005 there have been 138 colleges functioning as autonomous colleges in eight states in the country. It is a good initiative from government but needs to be promoted across the country.

Privatization: In India both public and private institutions operate simultaneously. In the year 2000-01, out of 13,072 higher education institutions, 42 per cent were privately owned and run catering to 37 per cent of students enrolled into higher education, that is, approximately 3.1 million out of total 8.4 million (Agarwal, 2006). It is also likely that most of the growth in the rapidly expanding higher education sector took place in private unaided colleges or in self-financing institutions. Since grant-in-aid to private colleges is becoming difficult, many government funded institutions/universities have granted recognition/affiliation to unaided colleges and many universities have authorized new ‘self-financing’ courses even in government and aided colleges. Approximately 50 per cent of the higher education in India is imparted through private institutions, mostly unaided involving high cost.

Global Competition: India being a signatory of WTO is bound to open up its market for trade in services including education but it does not have a clear policy for strengthening its education sector to compete with the giants in the world. Policy restrictions stop the competent institutions from making necessary changes in the processes of admission, recruitment and salaries of faculty/staff and opening campuses abroad. In lack of proper policy provisions in time, higher education sector in the country is adversely affected.

Self Assessment

1. State whether the following statements are ‘true’ of ‘false’.
   (i) At present, India possess a highly developed higher Education system which offers facility of Education and training.
Notes

(ii) Master’s degree is normally of two years duration in both liberal and professional field of study.

(iii) A state university in India is established by the Central Government, by state legislation.

(iv) Enrolment in higher Education has been rising steadily.

(v) Due to regional disparity in economic development and uneven distribution of institutions of higher education, the higher Education is equally available to the different sections of the society.

(vi) India being a signatory of WTO is bound to open up its market for trade in services including education.

(vii) Open University can be a central or state University imparting education through distance made.

What is Gross enrolment rate GER?

26.4 Summary

- In India, higher education was traditionally looked after by the government, but in view of lack of resources to meet the increasing demand, private sector has been allowed to share the responsibility. The country has a well developed educational set up in terms of range of programs and their acceptability in local industry, but it lacks in terms of international quality standards. Higher education institutions managed by private sector emphasize more on commercial aspect than creation of knowledge which leads to deterioration of quality of education. The councils and government bodies responsible for quality assurance do not have internationally matchable quality norms on one hand and an effective system to monitor and control violation of the existing norms by the institutions on the other. Further, the political parties manipulate the issues of access and equity in higher education for their vested political interest rather than taking the right steps to enhance the quality of higher education. As a result those who can afford the high cost of higher education look forward for the opportunities abroad while the others have to compromise with sub-standard education. If India has to emerge as preferred location for higher education in the globalizing world it will have to develop a national policy to address the challenges of sub-standard quality, ineffective systems of monitoring and control, red-tapism in growth and development and political interference.

- Regular internal self assessment and self monitoring of quality and excellence. Both steps will help to present an all India quality, map of the universities and colleges.

- Quality and Excellence linkages

- The UGC recognizes the difference between quality and excellence. It recognized that excellence may not be enhanced without quality education in the vast institutions of higher learning, namely the universities and colleges. If only 9 universities and 100 colleges are recognized as potential for excellence and only 520 centers/departments have been identified as those with various level of excellence, it is because the universities and colleges suffer from the lack of adequate academic and physical infrastructure. This implies that a focus on improving the academic and physical infrastructure for quality improvement is pre-condition. It is the presence of quality institutions which will generate and induce excellence in terms of creativity and innovativeness among the teachers and students. Excellence cannot be imposed from above. Good quality institutions lead to emergence of excellence in terms of creativity and innovativeness. In other words, without quality the excellence will not emerge and grow. The Quality education, at the college and university level, serves as a ground for excellence to grow.
The university and college education system serves as a catchments area for some quality centers/departments to emerge as centres of excellence. If the quality of the university and college education is neglected, it will have limited potential for growth of excellence in terms of creativity and innovativeness.

• Quality and inclusiveness

• There is another aspect related to quality which needs to be borne in mind. In the 11th Plan the goal is expansion with inclusive and quality education. The expansion with inclusiveness essentially means that increase in enrolment will have to come from the groups whose GER is low. The studies in this volume indicate that these include groups such as schedule tribe, scheduled caste, semi-nomadic and de-notified tribes, women, religious minorities like Muslims, low caste covert to Islam, (SC and OBC Muslim) Buddhism, (Neo-Buddhist) Sikhism, (SC Sikh) Christianity (Dalit Christian) and poor in general, particularly from the rural areas.

• To provide quality education to these sections which constitute bulk of those with lower access to higher education is an issue which the 11th Plan recognized. However, an improved access to quality education will require special attention for improvement in the language skills and other capabilities (to those who need), so that they are able to cope up with learning in the universities and colleges. Therefore quality improvement programs will be necessary for them. The issue of quality education cannot be de-linked from that of inclusiveness. Therefore, as mentioned above number of steps are proposed in the 11th plan, including setting up of Equal Opportunity Office to deal with all schemes for these social groups. These will help to promote inclusive education with quality.

• Quality and Academic and Administrative Reforms of University and College System

• Another important constituent for improvement of quality in higher education is the initiative for academic and administrative reforms in universities and colleges education system. The 11th plan recognized the need to introduce the academic reform in the university and college system. The academic reform necessarily includes changes in admission procedures in various courses; modification in assessment and examination methods; switch over from annual to semester systems; acceptance of grade and credit system; teachers assessments; and other related reforms.

• It is now recognized that the admission to various courses as far as possible be made through written test and viva, particularly for M Phil and PhD, and be transparent in nature.

26.5 Keywords

• Quality : A high standard of something when it is compared to other things like it how good or bad it is.

• Improvement : The act of making something better.

• Parameters : Something that decides or limits the way in which something can be done.

• Implications : A possible effect or result of an action or a decision.

26.6 Review Questions

1. What are Academic Qualification Framework ?

2. Explain about Regulatory Framework in Higher Education.

3. Discuss about the Growth of Higher Education in India.

4. What are Quality Improvement Issues in Higher Education ?
Notes

Answers: Self Assessment

1. (i) T (ii) T (iii) F (iv) T (v) F (vi) F (vii) T

26.7 Further Readings

Books

Objectives

The objectives of this unit can be summarized as below:

• to discuss about cells (IQACs) in HEIs.
• to explain about eligibility for financial assistance for establishing IQAC.
• to describe contribution of IQAC
• to discuss about aims of IQAC
• to discuss about the functions of IQAC

Introduction

The University Grants Commission (UGC), established in November 1956 as a statutory body of the Government of India through an Act of Parliament, has the unique distinction of being the only grant-giving agency in the country which has been vested with two responsibilities: that of providing funds and that of coordination, determination and maintenance of standards in institutions of higher education.

Maintaining the momentum of quality consciousness is crucial in HEIs. Internal Quality Assurance Cell, in fact, is conceived as a mechanism to build and ensure a quality culture at the institutional level. Every HEI should have an internal quality assurance system, with appropriate structure and processes, and with enough flexibility to meet the diverse needs of the stakeholders. The internal quality assurance mechanism of the institution may be called “Internal Quality Assurance Cell (IQAC)”. The IQAC may channelise and systematize the efforts and measures of an institution towards academic excellence. It should not be yet another hierarchical structure or record-keeping exercise in the institution; it would be a facilitative and participative organ of the institution. The IQAC should become a driving force for ushering in quality by working out intervention strategies to remove deficiencies and enhance quality.
27.1 The Internal Quality Assurance Cell (IQAC)

In pursuance of the National Action Plan of the National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC), for performance evaluation, assessment and accreditation and quality upgradation of institutions of higher education, the NAAC proposes that every accredited institution should establish an Internal Quality Assurance Cell (IQAC) as a post-accreditation quality sustenance measure. Since quality enhancement is a continuous process, the IQAC will become a part of an institution’s system and work towards realising the goals of quality enhancement and sustenance. The prime task of the IQAC is to develop a system for conscious, consistent and catalytic improvement in the performance of institutions. The IQAC will make a significant and meaningful contribution in the post-accreditation phase of institutions. During the post-accreditation period, the IQAC will channelize the efforts and measures of an institution towards academic excellence.

The Internal Quality Assurance Cell (IQAC) is the cell that is formulated for monitoring the quality parameters in Higher education Institutions. The committee was formulated based on the recommendations given by National Assessment Accreditation Committee.

1. Develop a system for conscious, consistent and catalytic improvement in the performance of institutions
2. Significant and meaningful contribution in the post-accreditation phase of institutions
3. Channelise the efforts and measures of an institution towards academic excellence

Proof for having sent the CAT marks to the parents.
Proof for having sent the attendance particulars to the parents.
Industrial visits carried out.
Guest lectures arranged.
Industrial internship undergone by students.
Project work details (title, guide, industry where project is being done).
Project review details and marks.
Utilization factor of classroom, laboratory and computer facilities.
Mini project done by students.
Quality Circle Meetings.
Classroom and laboratory cleanliness.
Attendance record of students.
Assignment (questions as well as answer submitted by student).
Question papers for Continuous Assessment Test (CAT).
Sample answer scripts of CAT
Course file or entry in ACADO (one of the 2 should be available for each subject being taught).
Syllabus coverage.
Laboratory records.
Use of Educational Technology Tools.
Special efforts taken for slow learners.
Sample class notes taken by the students.
Innovative teaching (both laboratory & classroom) practices.
Laboratory manual.
27.1.1 The IQAC Structure

He/ She may be assisted by a Director (in case of a university) or a Coordinator (in case of a college) who shall be a senior faculty member. This position may be held as an additional charge by the faculty member concerned, or a new position of a full-time Director/Coordinator may be created and a person is selected and appointed or a senior faculty member is posted by redeployment.

27.1.2 Composition of the IQAC

The IQAC shall have the following composition:

(a) Head of the HEI - Chairperson
(b) Five (in case of a College) or eight (in case of a University) senior teachers and one senior administrative official - Members
(c) Two (in case of a College) or three (in case of a University) external experts on Quality Management / Industry / Local Community - Members
(d) Director / Coordinator of IQAC - Member Secretary

The members at b) and c) of the above shall be nominated by the Head of the HEI in consultation with the academic body of the HEI (Academic Council of a University or Academic Committee of a College). The membership of such nominated members shall be for a period of two years. The IQAC should meet at least once in a quarter. The quorum for the meeting shall be two-third of the total number of members. The agenda, minutes and Action Taken Reports are to be documented with official signatures and maintained electronically in a retrievable format.

27.1.3 Functions of the IQAC

(i) Development and application of quality benchmarks/ parameters for the various academic and administrative activities of the HEI;
(ii) Facilitating the creation of a learner-centric environment conducive for quality education and faculty maturation to adopt the required knowledge and technology for participatory teaching and learning process;
(iii) Arrangement for feedback responses from students, parents and other stakeholders on quality-related institutional processes;
(iv) Dissemination of information on the various quality parameters of higher education;
Notes

(v) Organization of inter and intra institutional workshops, seminars on quality related themes and promotion of quality circles;

(vi) Documentation of the various programmes/activities of the HEI, leading to quality improvement;

(vii) Acting as a nodal agency of the HEI for coordinating quality-related activities, including adoption and dissemination of good practices;

(viii) Development and maintenance of Institutional database through MIS for the purpose of maintaining /enhancing the institutional quality;

(ix) Development of Quality Culture in HEI;

27.1.4 Benefits of IQAC

(a) Ensure heightened level of clarity and focus in institutional functioning towards quality enhancement

(b) Ensure internalization of the quality culture;

(c) Ensure enhancement and integration among the various activities of the institution and institutionalize good practices;

(d) Provide a sound basis for decision-making to improve institutional functioning;

(e) Act as a dynamic system for quality changes in the HEIs;

(f) Build an organized methodology of documentation and internal communication.

27.2 Eligibility for Financial Assistance for Establishing IQAC

All Universities and Colleges which are under section 2(f) & 12B of the UGC Act will be eligible to receive the financial support for establishing and strengthening of the IQACs in them.

The UGC will provide seed money during the XI plan of Rs.5.00 lakh to each University and Rs.3.00 lakhs to each College as one time grant, to meet the establishment and strengthening expenditure of the IQAC. The expenditure can be incurred on following items:

27.3 Contribution of IQAC

• Development and application of quality benchmark/ parameters in various activities of the institution.

• IQAC is responsible for the quality related initiatives of the college.

• Preparation and submission of Annual Quality Assurance Report (AQAR) to NAAC based on the quality parameters is done every year.

• Workshops on quality related theme are organized and promotion of quality circles leads to quality improvement.

• Ensuring timely, efficient and progressive performance of academic, administrative and financial tasks.

• Optimization and integration of modern methods of teaching, learning and evaluation.

• Ensuring the adequacy, maintenance and functioning of the support structure.

27.4 Aims of IQAC

1. Generating good practices and ideas.

2. To chalk out Action plan for quality improvement for the academic year.

3. Implementation of plans and programmes.

4. Evaluating the academic & administer fine performance.

5. Developing realistic & attainable quality.

6. Promoting awareness for working out procedural modalities.
27.5 Functions of IQAC

Some of the Functions of IQAC are:

- The IQAC is an effective and efficient internal coordinating and monitoring mechanism. This cell has been diligently involved in helping the management, Principal and other committees by offering valuable suggestions and measures in order to have consistency in maintaining the quality of education.

- IQAC meetings were convened to review the suggestions given by NAAC during its accreditation in the year 2005. Keeping in mind the limited resources provided by the college initially the cell has been functioning with full vigor and enthusiasm from the very beginning with the Total Quality Management (TQM) approach for quality sustenance and quality improvement in academic & administrative activities of the institution.

- The IQAC established several cells and centers and constituted committees to initiate activities both academic and governance.

- The IQAC established several cells and centers and constituted committees to initiate activities both academic and governance. (Please Refer to Annexure 1 for detail activities of the committees)

- A Full Fledged Plan for overall quality sustenance and quality improvement in academic & administrative activities was placed before the Governing Body of the college, which was accepted by the highest decision maker body of the Institution and agreed to implement them one by one with the help of IQAC. After that several plan, implementation procedures was given by IQAC and monitored the implementation process.

- IQAC prepared for UGC XIth Plan the proposals according to the needs of the college for overall quality sustenance and quality improvement in academic & administrative activities. UGC approved the plan and has allocated Rs. 74.50 Lakhs for Basic General Development and Merged Schemes to the college.

- Since its implementation, IQAC is preparing the Annual Academic Report every year.

- It has kept constant touch with NAAC and has submitted AQAR (a self-reviewed Annual

Self Assessment

1. Fill in the blanks:

(i) The prime task of IQAC is to develop a system for conscious consistent and _________ in the performance of institutions.

(ii) IQAC is responsible for the quality related _________ of the college.

(iii) The IQAC provides a sound basis for _________ to improve institutional functioning.

(iv) All universities and colleges which are under section 2 (f) & 12B of the UGC Act will be eligible to receive the _________ for establishing and strengthening of IQAC in them.

27.6 Summary

- The University Grants Commission (UGC), established in November 1956 as a statutory body of the Government of India through an Act of Parliament, has the unique distinction of being
the only grant-giving agency in the country which has been vested with two responsibilities: that of providing funds and that of coordination, determination and maintenance of standards in institutions of higher education.

• To monitor standards of the higher educational institutions it has established the National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC) as an autonomous body, under section 12 (ccc) of its Act in September 1994. NAAC is entrusted with the task of performance evaluation, assessment and accreditation of Universities and Colleges in the Country.

• Assessment is a performance evaluation of an HEI and / or its units and is accomplished through a process based on self-study and peer review using defined criteria. Accreditation refers to the certification given by NAAC which is valid for a period of five years.

• All stakeholders have to be fully engaged in the endeavour of quality assurance of the HEIs.

• The efficacy of external quality assessment would therefore be determined by the effectiveness of such institutional internal quality systems and processes.

• Maintaining the momentum of quality consciousness is crucial in HEIs. Internal Quality Assurance Cell, in fact, is conceived as a mechanism to build and ensure a quality culture at the institutional level. Every HEI should have an internal quality assurance system, with appropriate structure and processes, and with enough flexibility to meet the diverse needs of the stakeholders.

• The IQAC should become a driving force for ushering in quality by working out intervention strategies to remove deficiencies and enhance quality.

• He/ She may be assisted by a Director (in case of a university) or a Coordinator (in case of a college) who shall be a senior faculty member.

27.7 Keywords

• Statutory : fixed by law, that must be done by law.

• accreditation : official approval given by an organization stating that somebody/something has achieved a required standard.

• Nodal : a small hard mass of tissue, especially near a joint in the human.

27.8 Review Questions

1. Explain the guidelines to establish internal quality assurance cell (IQACs) in HEIs.
2. Write about the IQAC structure.
3. What are the composition of the IQAC.
4. What are the function of the IQAC? Explain.

Answer : Self Assessment

1. (i) Catalytic improvement (ii) Initiatives
   (iii) Decision making (iv) Financial support

27.9 Further Readings

Unit 28: Professional Learning Community (PLC) in Education

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28.2 Definition of a PLC
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Objectives
The Objectives of this unit can be summarized as below:
• To explain about Concept of PLC
• To discuss about the definition of a PLC.
• To describe about the elements that define a PLC.
• To discuss about the characteristics of a PLC.
• To describe about the supports are necessary to develop and sustain a PLC.

Introduction
In the context of school improvement, Professional Learning Communities (PCLs) shift the focus of school reform from restructuring to recapturing. The PLC concept often is misused or implied to describe a committee or any weekly meeting in which the participants undertake data-based decision making. However, a PLC is much more than that. It is an ongoing process used to establish a school wide culture that is based on a fundamental belief is building teacher leadership in school improvement efforts. Through participation in PLCs, teachers enhance their leadership capacity as they work as members of ongoing, high-performing, collaborative teams that focus on improving student learning.

The PLC concept is relatively new, having grown out of the work in the mid-1990s to reculture schools. Since then, there has been much enthusiasm in schools as to the potential of PLCs for increasing teacher professional knowledge and enhancing student learning. Although research is just starting to emerge, much has been written about PLCs.

The purpose of this web-based resource is to provide practitioners with an overview of current resources-including literature and research-on PLCs.
28.1 Concept of PLC

A Professional learning Communities (PLCs) an ongoing process used to establish a schoolwide culture that develops teacher leadership explicitly focused on building and sustaining school improvement efforts.

Generally, PLCs are composed of teachers, although administrators and support staff routinely participate. In some schools, PLCs are extended to community members and students, as appropriate. Through participation in PLCs, teachers enhance their leadership capacity while they work as members of ongoing, high-performing, collaborative teams that focus on improving student learning.

28.2 Definition of a PLC

Although there is no universal definition of a PLC the following definitions offer a range of ways to describe a PLC:

- An ongoing process through which teachers and administrators work collaboratively to seek and share learning and to act on their learning, their goal being to enhance their effectiveness as professionals for students' benefit (Hord, 1997).
- A school culture that recognizes and capitalizes on the collective strengths and talents of the staff (Protheroe, 2008).
- A strategy to increase student achievement by creating a collaborative school culture focused on learning (Feger & Arruda, 2008).
- Team members who regularly collaborate toward continued improvement in meeting learner needs through a shared curricular-focused vision (Reichstetter, 2006).
- A group of people sharing and critically interrogating their practice in an ongoing, reflective, collaborative, inclusive learning-oriented and growth-promoting way (McREL, 2003).
- Educators committed to working collaboratively in ongoing processes of collective inquiry and action research to achieve better results for the students they serve (DuFour, DuFour, Eaker, & Many, 2006).
- An inclusive group of people, motivated by a shared learning vision, who support and work with each other to inquire on their practice and together learn new and better approaches to enhance student learning (Stoll, Bolam, McMahon, Thomas, Wallace, Greenwood et al., 2005).

While these definitions capture the spirit of PLCs, they are only a starting point for understanding them.

What makes a PLC difficult to define is that it is not a prescription, a new program, a model, or an innovation to be implemented. Rather, a PLC is an infrastructure or a way of working together that results in continuous school improvement (Hord, 1997).

28.3 Elements that Define a PLC

It can become complicated when educators seek to operationalize PLC definitions at the school level. A PLC is more than simply a collection of teachers working together or a social network of educators who share stories, materials, and advice. In fact, the PLC concept often is misused to describe committees, grade-level teams, and/or weekly planning meetings in which the participants undertake data-based decision making.
While these groups may share some similarities of purpose with PLCs, the philosophy and characteristics of a PLC differentiate and define it. Let’s take a look at both of those features.

Self Assessment

1. Fill in the blanks:

(i) The PLC concept often is misused or implied to describe a committee or any weekly............in which the participants undertake data-based making.

(ii) The...................concept is relatively new, having grown out of the work in the mid.................to recapture school.

(iii) Professional learning communities shift the focus of school reform from...............to recapturing.

(iv) A school culture that recognizes and capitalizes on the collective strengths and............of the staff.

(v) A PLC is more than simply a collection of.................working together.

28.4 Philosophy of a PLC

The PLC concept is relatively new, having grown out of the work in the mid-1990s to reculture schools by examining the effects of school organization on teachers’ work and their commitment to school improvement. Teacher workplace studies focused on how teacher working conditions—particularly how teachers learn from one another in school settings—affected their job satisfaction and responsibility for student learning. Professional community emerged as a concept that not only improved teacher well-being, but also could make a difference in terms of student achievement.

Concurrently, educators were embracing the notion of schools as learning organizations for adults and students; the focus was on learning rather than teaching. School leaders began to accept learning rather than teaching as the fundamental purpose of schools. Because professional communities offered teachers opportunities to develop and share their expertise, their focus was readily expanded to include an emphasis on professional learning.

Today, PLCs have at their core a belief in teacher leadership and involvement in school improvement efforts. This corresponds well with the generally accepted belief that improving classroom instruction is a significant factor in raising student achievement (Annenberg Institute for School Reform, n.d.). Many PLCs operate with the understanding that one important key to improved learning for students is continuous job-embedded learning for educators. In fact, in its standards the National Staff Development Council recognizes PLCs as a strategy for school improvement—specifically, as a means of supporting high-quality and ongoing professional development. Similarly, the Annenberg Institute for School Reform (n.d.) identifies PLCs as a central element for effective professional development in any comprehensive reform initiative. As such, PLCs are grounded in two assumptions related to school improvement:

- Knowledge is situated in the day-to-day experiences of teachers and is best understood through critical reflection with others who share the same experiences.
- Actively engaging teachers in PLCs will increase their professional knowledge and enhance student learning.
28.5 Characteristics of a PLC

A PLC is not a model, it is an approach or process. Most PLC definitions assume a set of characteristics that reflect the nature of a true PLC. An understanding of these characteristics provides educators with a shared lens through which to examine their own PLCs. They also can provide an infrastructure for shaping practice and assessing progress. A brief description of some of the most commonly cited characteristics follow:

(i) Shared values and vision: Teachers and administrators share a vision focused on student learning and a commitment to improvement. The vision is used as a context for decision making about instructional practice and collaborative learning efforts. The vision statement should result in a collective responsibility for and an unwavering focus on student learning.

(ii) Collaborative culture: PLCs are based on the premise that through collaboration, professionals achieve more than they could alone. Teachers benefit from the resources that each brings to the PLC. Collaboration provides a mechanism for sharing responsibility for student learning and a means to work together toward a common purpose. Collaboration (e.g., opportunities for teachers to engage in ongoing collegial opportunities where they talk about teaching, receive frequent feedback on teaching, design classes together, teach each other, etc.) has been found in successful schools and is missing in unsuccessful schools.

(iii) Focus on examining outcomes to improve student learning: PLCs promote results-oriented thinking that is focused on continuous improvement and student learning (Reichstetter, 2006). The focus goes beyond a team getting together to look at data. In PLCs, teachers respond to data that require mutual accountability and changing classroom practices. Data help motivate teachers to see what is happening and what they need to do collectively (White & McIntosh, 2007).

(iv) Supportive and shared leadership: PLCs often are viewed as a foundation for developing teacher leaders (Caine & Caine, 2000). Administrators are committed to sharing decision making with teachers and providing opportunities for them to serve as leaders. Leadership is shared and distributed among formal and informal leaders. The purposes and goals of a PLC grow from among the participants, based on their values, beliefs, and individual and shared experiences. Teacher leadership capacity sustains PLCs. Sharing power and authority with teachers through decision making and shared leadership increases leadership capacity and builds a belief in the school’s collective ability to affect student teaching.

(v) Shared personal practice: A major focus of PLCs is on professional learning in which teachers work and learn together as they continually evaluate the effectiveness of their practices and the needs, interests, and skills of their students. Teachers share experiences, observe each other, and discuss teaching. Shared practice and collective inquiry help sustain improvement by strengthening connections among teachers, stimulating discussion about professional practice, and helping teachers build on one another’s expertise. Through continuous inquiry and reflective dialogue teachers discover solutions and address student needs.

28.6 Supports are Necessary to Develop and Sustain a PLC

It can be difficult to build and sustain PLCs. While organizing into small collegial groups may improve school culture, it does not necessarily result in improved instruction and student achievement.

PLCs require organizational structures and supports to be successful (Supovitz & Christman, 2003). A summary of two often-cited supports follows:

- Supportive leadership
- Structural supports
28.6.1 Supportive Leadership

Strong, supportive leadership is necessary to build and sustain PLCs. Even though principals’ roles may change as they redistribute and share leadership, their support is one of the resources necessary for schools to become a PLC.

Principals actively build a context for PLC work. Their support includes such things as:

(i) Expanding leadership among teachers. This may include encouraging teachers who may be reluctant to take on leadership roles and defining autonomy and authority for teacher leaders.

(ii) Securing fiscal and human resources to support teacher development.

(iii) Modeling the vision and shared focus of the PLC (e.g., maintaining an unwavering focus on student learning). Principals promote learning rather than teaching as the fundamental purpose of schools.

(iv) Creating communication mechanisms to keep all of the staff informed (Burnette, 2002). Progress is monitored and acknowledged.

(v) Ensuring that student data are available. When data are not available but desired, principals find ways to provide them.

(vi) Establishing a high-trust environment in which it is safe to learn and grow. Approaches that support interdependent teaching roles (e.g., team teaching, integrated lesson design) are encouraged and fostered.

(vii) Supporting teacher-determined professional development.

District support also is essential. Examples of support include:

(i) Establishing a clear priority for PLCs districtwide and providing each school and/or department with the authority to chart its own course for achieving the goals (DuFour, 2003).

(ii) Making resources (e.g., time, professional development, student data, etc.) available to support PLC development.

(iii) Working out agreements with teacher unions as necessary, especially when time is being modified to fit shared meeting arrangements or teachers are being asked to take on new responsibilities.

(iv) Embedding PLCs in mission statements and district policy. District policy can influence the depth of interactions. School leaders influence the degree to which interactions are consistent with reform aims and how teachers talk about curriculum and instruction.

Caution: Linking PLCs to existing district, school, and state program requirements and expectations.

28.6.2 Structural Supports

In addition to administrative support, PLCs require supportive conditions in which to develop and thrive. At the very least, PLCs require suitable spaces for meetings. Communication structures used
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to keep people involved and informed (e.g., meetings to discuss problem areas and new ideas, schoolwide announcements and distribution of information) also are in place.

Perhaps the most significant resource that is required is time—PLCs require sufficient time to meet and talk. Numerous strategies have been attempted to provide structured time. Examples include:

(i) Classes are scheduled to create common planning periods.

(ii) Particular school days are extended to bank time for professional learning.

(iii) The schedule is built so that teachers are freed up by “specials” (music, art, physical education, student assemblies, etc.).

(iv) Monthly faculty meetings and district professional development days are used for PLCs.

(v) Combine classrooms to free teachers to meet. This should only be done when the teacher who is covering the class has expertise in the instructional content.

(vi) The schedule is adjusted. For example, every other Thursday, student start time is delayed 20 minutes; classes start late one day and teachers arrive 30 minutes earlier on that day.

Self Assessment
2. State whether the following statements are True or False:

(i) The PLC concept is relatively new, having grown out of the work in the mid-1990s to reculture schools by examining the effects of school organization on teachers’ work and their commitment to school improvement.

(ii) Today, PLCs have at their core a belief in teacher leadership and involvement in school improvement efforts.

(iii) A PCL is a model, it is not an approach or process.

(iv) Focus on examining does not outcome to improve student learning.

(v) It can be difficult to build and sustain PLCs.

28.7 Summary
• In the context of school improvement, Professional Learning Communities (PLCs) shift the focus of school reform from restructuring to reculturing.

• The PLC concept is relatively new, having grown out of the work in the mid-1990s to reculture schools.

• Professional Learning Communities (PLCs) shift the focus of school reform from restructuring to reculturing.

• In some schools, PLCs are extended to community members and students, as appropriate. Through participation in PLCs, teachers enhance their leadership capacity while they work as members of ongoing, high-performing, collaborative teams that focus on improving student learning.

• A PLC is more than simply a collection of teachers working together or a social network of educators who share stories, materials, and advice.

• The PLC concept is relatively new, having grown out of the work in the mid-1990s to reculture schools by examining the effects of school organization on teachers’ work and their commitment to school improvement.

• Today, PLCs have at their core a belief in teacher leadership and involvement in school improvement efforts.
• A PLC is not a model, it is an approach or process. Most PLC definitions assume a set of characteristics that reflect the nature of a true PLC.

• Strong, supportive leadership is necessary to build and sustain PLCs.

• In addition to administrative support, PLCs require supportive conditions in which to develop and thrive.

28.8 Keywords

• **Professional**: connected with a job that needs special training or skill.

• **Community**: all the people who live in a particular area, country, etc.

• **Collaborative**: involving, or done by, several people or groups of people working together.

28.9 Review Questions

1. What is a PLC?
2. What are the defining elements of a PLC?
3. What supports are necessary to develop and sustain a PLC?
4. What are the characteristics of a PLC?
5. Explain philosophy of a PLC.

Self Assessment

1. (i) meeting (ii) PLC, 1990s
   (iii) restructuring (iv) talents
   (v) teacher
2. (i) True (ii) True (iii) False (iv) False
   (v) True

28.10 Further Readings


Unit 29: IIEP as an Apex Body in Educational Planning and Management

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Objectives
• To discuss about International Institute of Educational Planning (IIEP)
• To describe about aims of IIEP
• To discuss about IIEP develops sustainable educational capacity
• To describe about the training of IIEP
• To discuss about IIEP activities and programmes
• To explain about educational planning practices in India
• To discuss about developing capacity for educational planning and management in India

Introduction
International organizations, mainly the UNESCO and the OECD, subsequently took the lead role both in constructing the education-economic growth ideology and promoting educational planning in terms of creating new knowledge and capacity building in their member states. Consequently, a number of UNESCO supported training institutes were established in different parts of the world, including one at New Delhi for Asia, for capacity building in educational planning and management. In 1963, the UNESCO founded the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) in Paris, which become instrumental not only in generating new knowledge on educational planning through research but also in building planning competencies through its capacity building programmes, including its Annual Training Programme for key officials and personnel engaged in planning and management of education, in developing member countries. Over the five decades of its existence, the IIEP has not only enriched significantly the literature on educational planning but also developed and disseminated new planning techniques.
The International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) supports governments in planning and managing their education systems so that they can achieve their national objectives as well as the internationally agreed development goals. The main programmatic issues the Institute is currently focusing on are: gender equality; quality of education; education financing, governance, and management; and education in crisis and conflict - with an overall geographic focus on Africa.

29.1 International Institute of Educational Planning (IIEP)

A Committee chaired by Sir Alexander Carr-Saunders with Guy Benveniste as Rapporteur met in June 1962 and recommended the creation of the Institute. The UNESCO General Conference adopted their recommendations in the fall of 1962 and the French Government provided a building to house this new institution. Philip Hall Coombs who had been the first Assistant Secretary of State for Educational and Cultural Affairs in the Kennedy administration, was appointed as its first Director in 1963. The Institute, while an arm of UNESCO, was established as a semi independent institution with its own board headed by a chair appointed by the Director General of UNESCO. Originally the Institute was financed jointly by UNESCO and the World Bank (IBRD) since that second institution was just beginning to finance educational projects in developing countries. Help was also provided in those first years by the Ford Foundation. Later, it was integrated more closely with, and financed mainly by, UNESCO. The Institute organized its first major seminar in the spring of 1964 when 80 participants from Latin America attended meetings in Paris. The first publication from this encounter was issued in 1965.

29.2 Aims of IIEP

IIEP’s mission is to strengthen the capacity of countries. It helps UNESCO’s Member States to manage their educational system and to achieve the EFA goals. The International Institute for Educational Planning offers training in educational planning and management, but also explores fields such as statistical tools for educational planning, strategies and policy options, projects, budgets, monitoring and evaluating educational quality and access. Its programs are designed for planners, policy-makers and researchers. IIEP targets both institutions and individuals, and works in both the national and international arenas. IIEP’s research projects identify new approaches that planners could adopt to improve equity, access and quality in the various educational sectors. Costs and financing, along with governance and management, are also important research fields at IIEP. IIEP’s technical assistance projects offer on-site coaching to ministry planning departments, so that they can quickly become autonomous in the performance of their basic duties. By building the capacity of individuals and of local, regional and national institutions, IIEP’s technical assistance enables countries to make the most of their own expertise and to minimize their use of outside consultants. For instance, IIEP has created tailored programs to help governments in emergencies and fragile contexts, to maintain or rebuild their educational system.

29.3 IIEP Develops Sustainable Educational Capacity

- through TRAINING of education professionals - including through our Advanced Training Programme in educational planning (Paris) and Regional Training Course (Buenos Aires) also offer short-term intensive course, through face-to-face, blended, or distance training, as well as tailored on-site training.
- through TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE to ministries of education and institutions in such away as to allow countries to make the most of their own expertise and minimize reliance on external organizations. The Institute is currently working with a number of countries worldwide, including Afghanistan, Angola, Ethiopia, Haiti, Mexico, Paraguay, and Northern and Southern Sudan.
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• through evidence-based RESEARCH that allows us to anticipate the development of education systems and propose future-oriented and innovative solutions on educational issues including equity, access and quality, costs and financing, governance and management, and education in emergencies.

• by SHARING KNOWLEDGE with all actors in the education community.

• Thematic portals on ethics and corruption, capacity development, decentralization; and many other resources.

IIEP builds its activities on synergies with local and international partners, and participates in various networks worldwide, including ANTRIEP, INEE, IWGE, SACMEQ, and Redetis. IIEP Headquarters in France, Paris - Office in Argentina, Buenos Aires

IIEP and Education Sector Planning

IIEP supports ministries of education to plan and prepare their education sector plans through long-term technical involvement or more focused interventions. Making progress in education demands that countries have a clear vision of their priorities and how to achieve these. Many ministries therefore prepare strategic plans, which reflect this vision and help mobilize people and resources. A wide range of ministries worked in partnership with IIEP to develop their plans. In some countries, the Institute supports the whole process of formulation, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of these plans; in others, it offers advice and assistance in specific areas as requested by the ministry. In all cases, the joint efforts is aimed at strengthening the capacity and autonomy of ministries and their staff. IIEP gives special attention to working with countries faced with the challenges of emergencies and reconstruction (sometimes referred to as ‘fragile’ contexts) which are farthest away from achieving the EFA and the MDG goals.

29.4 Training of IIEP

Bringing together experienced middle-level and senior educational planning and management professionals, IIEP offers a wide range of training programmes focused on developing national capacities.

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IIEP publishes a number of books and other documents each year aimed at planners, decision-makers, researchers, and development organizations. In addition, our website offers: free downloads of more than 1,500 books, manuals, and policy briefs; Planipolis, a portal of 190 countries education plans and policies; a Clearinghouse on HIV and AIDS in education.

29.4.1 Courses at IIEP

• The Advanced Training Programme (ATP) is a ten-month programme at the forefront of educational planning and management.

• Specialized Courses Programme (SCP) specialized in the areas of educational planning and management are offered from February to April every year.

• A series of Strategic Seminars take place throughout the year.

• A Summer School is organized annually.

• IIEP’s Office in Buenos Aires offers a Regional Training Course (RTC) for Latin American professionals.
29.4.2 Intensive Training Courses
Courses and workshops on specific themes are held around the world, at the request of Member States, at the national or sub-regional level.

29.4.3 IIEP Virtual Campus
The Institute offers distance courses and Internet discussion forums on themes related to educational planning and management.

29.4.4 A Centre for Training and Research - specialized in Educational Planning and Management
The International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) was created by UNESCO in 1963 in Paris, France. It is supported by grants from UNESCO and by voluntary contributions from Member States and others. IIEP is an integral part of UNESCO, yet it enjoys a large amount of autonomy.

29.4.5 Meeting the Needs of Countries in the Development of their Education Systems
Training planners and managers in skills to analyze and plan, manage and implement, monitor and evaluate.
Supporting institutions and improving administrative routines, organization, leadership skills.
Fostering an enabling environment through policy forums, international co-operation and networking.
More than 5000 experts and education officers have been trained by IIEP

Training is IIEP’s primary activity. To fit different needs, a variety of possibilities are provided: full-year courses, shorter intensive training, distance education.

Research results provide methodological and technical support to policy-makers.
Research includes case studies on policy issues and on technical and methodological aspects, allowing identification of priorities, best practices and innovations.

Technical Assistance tailored programmes to meet countries’ specific needs
Special programmes have recently been launched to assist governments confronted with emergency situations.

Other essential elements of IIEP programmes are networking activities and communication of results and ideas.

29.5 IIEP Activities and Programmes

- preparatory foundation program and university placement
- coordination of international activities of SPIbSPU
- international educational projects in cooperation with higher education institutions abroad
- joint degree and non-degree programs
- degree and non-degree educational programs in foreign languages
- the Russian language study
- organization of international conferences, exhibitions, schools

IIEP library and the reading room provide Russian and foreign students with a wide range of different textbooks, dictionaries, fiction technical, scientific literature in 14 languages of Europe, Asia and Africa.
The library possesses a collection of more than 2,600,000 volumes. Fundamental Library is the first Russian library with an Internet connection via high-speed optical communications. The Library information services are developed and supported by the Open Library Systems Center. IIEP is open for welcoming foreign students and for launching mutually beneficial cooperation with foreign partners.

Institute maintains relationships with Universities, international educational organizations, research institutions, and industrial companies from different regions and countries all over the world.

**Did you know?**

IIEP library is a department of the Fundamental Library of Polytechnical University, one of the largest scientific and technological libraries in Russia and rates among the three best libraries of St. Petersburg.

### 29.6 Educational Planning Practices in India

The beginning of educational planning in Asia was influenced relatively more by the then context than the education-economic growth ideology. After the Second World War, several countries in Asia became free from the colonial rule. In these countries, long years of neglect of basic education and adult literacy by colonial governments, fragmented educational systems, and strong nationalist aspirations called for development of coherent and self-sustaining national systems of education and expansion of educational opportunities at all levels. Many countries in the region subsequently went for comprehensive reforms in education aimed at transferring the existing education system into national systems of education. Unlike the objectives of educational planning in industrialized countries, educational planning in these countries, to begin with, was more socially oriented rather than aimed at meeting the manpower requirements of their economies. Even though there were compulsions for preparing the skilled manpower for economic growth, initially, the primary objective of planning in most Asian countries was reorganization and expansion of the education systems and elimination of spatial and social disparities in educational opportunities.

At the same time, some countries in the region including India, while engaged in transforming their education systems, were also concerned about producing high level scientific and technical manpower like engineers, scientists, doctors, teachers, etc. These countries then gave new directions to educational development through medium-term macro plans, mostly in the form of five-year national development plans. In the initial years of independence, India went for the Soviet model of centralized planning in education that was more of an indicative than directive in nature. Relative to other levels of education, higher and technical education was given priority in the development agenda. One of the reasons for such a truncated planning in education was the preoccupation of the Indian planners to address the issues of shortages of high level technical and scientific skills they considered extremely important in the reconstruction of the national economy. In a way to begin with, educational planning in India was centralized and based on manpower approach, at least for science, technical, and professional education, and social demand approach in all other levels of education, except the compulsory level of education.

It may be noted that one of the important aspects of educational planning practices in India during the first two and a half decades of independence was that, given the federal structure, the Central Government had to play a coordinating and advisory role and the primary responsibility of planning educational development lay with states. Till 1976, education remained on the State List, which means that states were responsible for overall development of education. Support from the Central Government was primarily in the form of centrally sponsored schemes. In addition, lack of necessary data and expertise at the sub-national levels rendered macro planning in education indicative, rather than strategic. The absence of concrete development policies at the national level also made it difficult...
to make macro plans strategic. It was evident from the general policy to do something in every sector or for every programme during the first three Five-Year Plans (1951 to 1966) with the result that the meagre resources available were spread thinly over a very large area.

In free India, however, education, has always remained an integral part of the overall economic planning and as such, its evolution should be seen in the context of changes that have taken place in the overall economic planning practices. After independence, India adopted a multi-level planning framework and efforts were made to create necessary institutional arrangements at national, state and district levels for institutionalizing planning. Accordingly, the Planning Commission was created at the national level and State Planning Boards at the provincial level that facilitated development of national and state level plans. During the third Five-Year Plan (FYP, 1961-66) efforts were made to develop district and block level plans for rural development. In 1969, the Planning Commission issued guidelines for preparing district plans. Realizing the fact that the necessary planning machinery and expertise were absent at district and sub-district levels, measures in the 1970s aimed at strengthening state level planning. In 1984, the Planning Commission recognized the district as the viable unit for planning and management of development programmes, and accordingly, developed guidelines for district planning. The seventh FYP (1985-90) adopted decentralized planning up to the district level as one of the major strategies to achieve plan targets. The importance of decentralization as a development strategy in education was widely appreciated by the central and state governments in the 1980s and it was adopted as one of the measures to improve equity in achievement in school education.

To promote decentralized planning in education, the National Policy on Education (1986) envisaged establishment of the District Board of Education (DBE) at the district level. The Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE) Committee on decentralized management of education further emphasized the need for integrating educational planning and management efforts with the Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs). Though the 1st FYP recognized the need for a disaggregated planning exercise through a process of democratic decentralization incorporating the idea of the village plan and of District Development Councils (DDCs), democratic decentralization was given a boost with the enactment of the 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendments during the 9th FYP in 1992. With the 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendments, decentralized planning became a constitutional mandate. Accordingly, Article 243ZD of the Constitution provided for the creation of District Planning Committees (DPCs). The “principle of subsidiary” became the cardinal consideration in multi-level planning framework. The report of the Working Group on Elementary and Adult Education (2001) of the Planning Commission also considered decentralized planning (i.e. planning at the district level and local level planning techniques such as school mapping and the micro planning) critical for achieving the tenth FYP targets.

Though policy initiatives were taken in the 1980s and Constitutional provisions made in the early 1990s to facilitate educational decentralization, the actual decentralized planning process in education was initiated in the early 1990s with the implementation of externally funded basic education development programmes, particularly the District Primary Education Programme (DPEP). It may be noted that, while, in principle, planning and administration of school education has been decentralized up to the district level and a greater role of Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs) and Urban Local Bodies (ULBs) envisaged in the educational governance; in practice, decentralized planning practices are limited to literacy and basic education sub-sectors. Planning at the secondary and tertiary education sub-sectors continues to be centralized and mostly based on past trends and political processes. Considering privatization as a form of decentralization, decentralization of general secondary education becomes more visible mostly in urban areas where private unaided institutions mushroomed in response to increased social demand for quality education. However, private aided secondary institutions established mostly through community in the DEEP.
29.7 Developing Capacity for Educational Planning and Management in India

It hardly needs any mention that development of planning and management competencies in education is of paramount significance. Equally important is the task of creating sustainable enabling environment to make the best use of the available planning and management competencies. Absence of ‘capacity’, especially at the sub-national and institutional levels has been one of the critical constraints in planning and management of education India. With the changing direction in educational planning towards decentralization, the need for capacity building at the district sub-district and institutional levels has assumed increased urgency in India. Unfortunately, the general understanding of the scope of ‘capacity development’ and the strategies to scale up the related interventions have been narrowly conceived in various reform programmes in the country.

Broadly, “capacity development is a process by which individuals, groups, organizations and societies create, enhance and maintain their capacities over time.” Capacity in turn is defined as “the organizational and technical abilities, relationships and values that enable countries, organizations, groups and individuals at all levels of society to carry out functions effectively and achieve their development objectives.” Capacity has human resource, organizational and institutional dimensions. The human resource dimension aims at enhancing knowledge, skills and values of individuals through training and mentoring. The organizational dimension focuses on enhancing capacities of organizations, particularly those engaged in educational planning and management such as ministries, national level resource organizations, regional and provincial level education offices, research and training institutions, district and sub-district level education offices, related grassroots level organizations, local governments and schools. The institutional dimension focuses on the most critical component of capacity development, i.e. the environment building, which is extremely important for translating capacities of individuals and organizations into action. It is also argued that capacity development as a process goes beyond enhancing knowledge and skills of individuals and organizations and involves ownership of policies, gradual empowerment of all stakeholders and strengthening of civil society. Given the concept of capacity development, it may be useful to provide a brief account of institutional arrangements in India for facilitating planning and management of education at national, provincial, district and sub-district levels in order to contextualize the role of NUEPA in capacity development.

At the national level, the responsibility of planning for education lies with the Department of Education, Ministry of Human Resource Development and the Planning Commission. The Planning and Statistics Bureau of the Department of Higher Education, MHRD generally initiates the process of planning while all the Bureaus of the Department depending on their area of responsibility are involved in the management of educational programmes. At the state level, the responsibility of planning for education lies with the Department of Education, the Directorate of Education and ultimately the State Planning Board. As far as the implementation and management of education is concerned, the responsibility lies with the State Directorate of Education. Since early 1990s, with the implementation of the DPEP separate state and district level societies have been created for planning and management of elementary education programmes. Accordingly, the State and the District Elementary Education Plans under such programmes are formulated by the state and district level societies. The NPE, 1986, envisaged to establish District Board of Education (DBE) in every district, which, however, has not come up in several districts in the country. In the absence of the DBE, the Zilla Parishad (the District Council) through its Education Standing Committee and the District Education Office carry out planning and management activities, especially in school education. The Panchayati Raj Institutions (Local Self-Governments in rural areas and Urban Local Bodies in urban areas) are envisaged to play a critical role in the planning and management of education at district and sub-district levels. At the sub-district level, the Block Education Office undertakes planning and management of elementary education. There is no institutional arrangement at the sub-district level for undertaking planning exercises in secondary education. At the block level, the Panchayat Samiti
(the block level elected local body) also has the responsibility of planning and managing educational programmes. At the grassroots level (i.e. village and institutional levels), the Village Education Committee/School Management Committee and the head of the institution plan and manage school education. The Village Panchayat, which is an elected local body, is envisaged to participate in planning and managing of school education programmes, particularly in elementary education. However, under the externally funded programmes like the DPEP and subsequently the SSA, parallel institutional arrangements in the form of planning and resource teams have been constituted at state, district, block and village levels. In the Indian context, capacity development in planning and management of education, therefore, calls for enhancing knowledge and skills of individuals working in these organizations and also building the capacity of national, state, district and sub-district level organizations and local self-governments, besides creating an enabling environment for utilization of the available capacity.

Accordingly, the major institutions engaged in capacity development in education at the national level include the National University of Educational Planning and Administration (NUEPA), National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT), the University Grants Commission (UGC), All India Council of Technical Education (AICTE) and National Council of Teacher Education (NCTE). The Technical Support Group (TSG) of the Educational Consultancy India Ltd. (Ed. CIL), New Delhi and the National Institute of Administrative Research (NIAR), Mussoorie also undertake capacity development programmes, particularly in elementary education. It may be underlined that the NCERT is into capacity development functions relating to curriculum development, evaluation of learners’ achievements, teacher preparation, examinations and other related pedagogical practices in the school education sub-sector. The UGC being a regulatory body mostly engaged in the disbursement of grants to institutions of higher learning also undertakes capacity development activities through a country-wide network of as many as 51 Academic Staff Colleges. The AICTE and the NCTE are largely regulatory bodies. The TSG of the Ed. CIL, initially created under the DPEP, is a temporary arrangement at the central level to facilitate planning and management of elementary education, especially the SSA. The NUEPA is the only apex organization exclusively engaged in capacity development in planning and administration of all levels of education.

Self Assessment
1. State whether the following statements are ‘true’ or ‘false’.
   (i) The international institute for educational planning offers training in educational planning and management.
   (ii) IIEP supports ministries of education to plan and prepare their education sector plans through long term technical involvement.
   (iii) The international Institute for educational planning (IIEP) was created by UNESCO in 1963 in, US.
   (iv) In 1990s, the initiatives were taken in India to develop the educational management and Information system in the DPEP districts.
   (v) IIEP library provides literature in 10 languages.

29.8 Summary
- The International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) supports governments in planning and managing their education systems so that they can achieve their national objectives as well as the internationally agreed development goals.
- The Institute is currently working with a number of countries worldwide, including Afghanistan, Angola, Ethiopia, Haiti, Mexico, Paraguay, and Northern and Southern Sudan.
• IIEP publishes a number of books and other documents each year aimed at planners, decision-makers, researchers, and development organizations. In addition, our website offers: free downloads of more than 1,500 books, manuals, and policy briefs; Planipolis, a portal of 190 countries’ education plans and policies; a Clearinghouse on HIV and AIDS in education; thematic portals on ethics and corruption.

• IIEP library and the reading room provide Russian and foreign students with a wide range of different textbooks, dictionaries, fiction, technical, scientific literature in 14 languages of Europe, Asia and Africa.

• In recent decades, the role of the state as a regulator in the education system has been much debated. In many developing countries after independence, the state was the main or even sole provider of educational services.

• A Committee chaired by Sir Alexander Carr-Saunders with Guy Benveniste as Rapporteur met in June 1962 and recommended the creation of the Institute. The UNESCO General Conference adopted their recommendations in the fall of 1962 and the French Government provided a building to house this new institution. Philip Hall Coombs who had been the first Assistant Secretary of State for Educational and Cultural Affairs in the Kennedy administration, was appointed as its first Director in 1963. The Institute, while an arm of UNESCO, was established as a semi independent institution with its own board headed by a chair appointed by the Director General of UNESCO.

• IIEP’s mission is to strengthen the capacity of countries. It helps UNESCO’s Member States to manage their educational system and to achieve the EFA goals. The International Institute for Educational Planning offers training in educational planning and management, but also explores fields such as statistical tools for educational planning, strategies and policy options, projects, budgets, monitoring and evaluating educational quality and access.

• through TRAINING of education professionals - including through our Advanced Training Programme in educational planning (Paris) and Regional Training Course (Buenos Aires) also offer short-term intensive course, through face-to-face, blended, or distance training, as well as tailored on-site training.

• through TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE to ministries of education and institutions in such a way as to allow countries to make the most of their own expertise and minimize reliance on external organizations.

• IIEP supports ministries of education to plan and prepare their education sector plans through long-term technical involvement or more focused interventions. Making progress in education demands that countries have a clear vision of their priorities and how to achieve these.

• A wide range of ministries worked in partnership with IIEP to develop their plans. In some countries, the Institute supports the whole process of formulation, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of these plans;

• Courses at IIEP
  • The Advanced Training Programme (ATP) is a ten-month programme at the forefront of educational planning and management.
  • Specialized Courses Programme (SCP) specialized in the areas of educational planning and management are offered from February to April every year.
  • A series of Strategic Seminars take place throughout the year.
  • A Summer School is organized annually.
  • IIPE’s Office in Buenos Aires offers a Regional Training Course (RTC) for Latin American professionals.
Courses and workshops on specific themes are held around the world, at the request of Member States, at the national or sub-regional level.

Training is IIEP’s primary activity. To fit different needs, a variety of possibilities are provided: full-year courses, shorter intensive training, distance education.

Research results provide methodological and technical support to policy-makers.

Research includes case studies on policy issues and on technical and methodological aspects, allowing identification of priorities, best practices and innovations.

The beginning of educational planning in Asia was influenced relatively more by the then context than the education-economic growth ideology. After the Second World War, several countries in Asia became free from the colonial rule.

At the same time, some countries in the region including India while engaged in transforming their education systems were also concerned about producing high level scientific and technical manpower like engineers, scientists, doctors, teachers, etc. These countries then gave new directions to educational development through medium-term macro plans, mostly in the form of five-year national development plans.

In free India, however, education, has always remained an integral part of the overall economic planning and as such, its evolution should be seen in the context of changes that have taken place in the overall economic planning practices. After independence, India adopted a multi-level planning framework and efforts were made to create necessary institutional arrangements at national, state and district levels for institutionalizing planning.

Absence of ‘capacity’, especially at the sub-national and institutional levels has been one of the critical constraints in planning and management of education India. With the changing direction in educational planning towards decentralization, the need for capacity building at the district sub-district and institutional levels has assumed increased urgency in India. Unfortunately, the general understanding of the scope of ‘capacity development’ and the strategies to scale up the related interventions have been narrowly conceived in various reform programmes in the country.

At the national level, the responsibility of planning for education lies with the Department of Education, Ministry of Human Resource Development and the Planning Commission. The Planning and Statistics Bureau of the Department of Higher Education.

Accordingly, the major institutions engaged in capacity development in education at the national level include the National University of Educational Planning and Administration (NUEPA), National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT).

### 29.9 Keywords

- **Sustainable**: that can continue or be continued for a long-time.
- **Virtual**: Almost or very nearly the thing described.
- **Training**: The process of learning the skills that you need to do a job.
- **Fellowship**: An award of money to a graduate student to allow them to continue their studies.

### 29.10 Review Questions

1. What is IIEP. Give its aims.
2. Explain about training and various courses organized at IIEP
3. What are activities and programmes of IIEP?
4. Explain about developing capacity for educational planning and management in India.
Notes

Answer: Self Assessment

(i) T   (ii) T   (iii) F   (iv) T   (v) F

29.11 Further Readings

Books


Objectives

To explain about National University of Educational Planning and Administration (NUEPA)

- To discuss about the main objectives of NUPEA.
- To describe about the higher education and development.
- To explain about from nationalization of globalization.
- To discuss about the directions in educational planning.

Introduction

National University of Educational Planning and Administration (NUEPA) is an apex Indian institution in educational planning and administration. Beginning as the UNESCO Regional Centre for Training of Educational Planners, Administrators and Supervisors in Asia and the Pacific in 1961-62, NUEPA is now a Deemed University, fully sponsored by the Government of India. As it has changed its status and has become an autonomous organization, there has been a paradigm shift in its philosophy, inner functioning and development. It has shifted its focus from being primarily a delivery institution to a resource institution. Earlier, emphasis was on staff training; it has now shifted on to research and professionalization of capacity building efforts. NUEPA is basically a research University - aiming at supporting human capacity building through research.

The National University of Educational Planning and Administration (NUEPA) is an autonomous organization that emphasizes planning, management and capacity building in educational policy, through research, training, consultancy and dissemination. The NUEPA structure is based on nine academic and one administrative unit. International Organizations like World Bank, UNESCO, COL etc. also take assistance from NUEPA on several issues.
30.1 National University of Educational Planning and Administration (NUEPA)

Birth of NUEPA (Earlier known, as NIEPA - National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration) is associated with the UNESCO’s regional center for Educational Planners and Administration started in 1960 - 61 for taking care of educational needs of South Asia. The organization was renamed as Asian Institute of Educational Planning and Administration in 1965.

It was in 1970 that the institute was taken over by the govt. of India from UNESCO and was renamed as National Staff College for Educational Planners and Administration. The institute with the present name was rechristened in 1979.

The NUEPA as an autonomous organization emphasizes on planning, management and capacity building in educational policy, through research, training, consultancy and dissemination. The NUEPA structure is based on nine academic and one administrative unit.

The Minister for Human Resource Development, Government of India, is the chairman of the NUEPA Council. Director of the institute as head of the Executive Committee is responsible for policy making and implementation. Financial advices to the institute is the responsibility of the Finance Committee. Eminent academicians from various institutions of the country, senior educational administrators, and members of the faculty of NUEPA comprising of the Planning and Programme Committee, tender advice on academic programmes and training and research.

International Organizations like World Bank, UNESCO, COL etc. also take assistance from the NUEPA on several issues.

The university is fully involved in the capacity building and research in planning and management of education in not only India but also in South Asia. For enormous contribution made by it in the field of education, it was awarded with the status of deemed to be university in August 2006. Thus, university is now fully authorized to conduct its own examinations and give degrees.

The university functions through its nine Departments, which are as follows:

- Department of Educational Planning
- Department of Educational Administration
- Department of Educational Policy
- Department of Educational Finance
- Department of School and Non-formal Education
- Department of Higher Education
- Department of International Cooperation
- Department of Sub-national Systems
- Department of Operations Research and Systems Management

30.2 Main Objectives of NUPEA

- To organize pre-service and in-service training programmes in the area of educational planning and administration and allied disciplines;
- To undertake, aid, promote and coordinate research in various aspects of educational planning and administration and allied disciplines, including comparative studies in planning techniques and administrative procedures in the different states of India and in other countries of the world;
- To provide academic and professional guidance to agencies, institutions and personnel engaged in educational planning and administration;
• To organize training, conferences, workshops, meetings, seminars and briefing sessions for educational personnel of the central and state governments and union territories;

• To offer, on request, consultancy service to governments, including state governments, educational institutions and institutions/organizations in India and abroad.

The university is fully involved in the capacity building and research in planning and management of education in not only in India but also in South Asia. Enormous contribution has been made in the field of education.

30.3 Higher Education and Development

Universities play a crucial role in generating new ideas, and in accumulating and transmitting knowledge, yet they have remained peripheral to development concerns. Although no longer the sole generators of knowledge needed for development, through their research and teaching they help to produce expertise, manage development, engineer social transformation, and preserve social values and cultural ethos.

Education contributes to the growth of national income and individual earnings. While land was the main source of wealth and income in agricultural societies, capital and machinery became important in industrial societies. In today’s information societies, knowledge drives economic growth and development. Higher education is the main source of that knowledge. Its production, dissemination and its absorption by any society.

Economic growth currently depends on the capacity to produce knowledge based goods. However, the future of knowledge economies depends more on their capacity to produce knowledge through research and development rather than on knowledge-based goods. Hence, knowledge economies place greater value and accord higher priority to the production and distribution of knowledge.

Knowledge and inequality

While some countries produce more knowledge than others, they do not have the monopoly thereof. With information technologies, knowledge transcends national boundaries faster than capital or people. This makes knowledge economies global, both in their orientation and in the way they operate.

Today, much knowledge is available at a very low cost, but its accessibility and use depends on the human capacity to process and absorb it. Even if a country’s capacity to produce knowledge is weak, its capacity to access and absorb it determines the pace at which that country develops. Higher education, therefore, plays a crucial role in enhancing a nations human capacity to absorb and use knowledge.

If knowledge is a source of economic growth, disparities in its distribution become a source of inequality among nations. Studies show that income inequalities are high where enrolments in higher education are low. A comparison between developing and developed countries further illustrates this point. It is argued that low enrolment rates in higher education and high-income disparities co-exist in the early stages of development in many countries.

The individual benefits of higher education are well known. It ensures better employment, higher salaries and a greater ability to consume and save. Incomes vary considerably from one profession to another. What determines these differences in earnings? Here again, higher education emerges as an important variable contributing significantly towards improving individual earnings.
The distribution of natural resources is skewed geographically, while that of the population is more equal. The rich have easy access to facilities and resources, whereas the only asset of the poor is their labour power. Investing to enhance labour power in order to trade it for higher wages is the best way to increase income and reduce poverty. Educating the poor helps to reduce inequalities and poverty. Empirical evidence from India indicates that higher education contributes significantly to a reduction in absolute and relative poverty.

Did you know? Without such policies and regulatory frameworks, higher education could become yet another means of accentuating inter-generational inequalities.

30.4 Organizational Set-up of NUEPA

**Did you know?** NIEPA was upgraded to university status in August 2006.
30.5 NUEPA Council

1. Union Minister for Human Resource Development, GOI President
2. Vice-Chancellor, NUEPA Vice-President

Ex-officio Members

3. Secretary to the Government of India, Department of Higher Education Member
4. Secretary to the Government of India, Department of School Education and Literacy Member
5. Chairman, University Grants Commission, New Delhi Member
6. Director, National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi Member

Ex-officio Members (Nominees of the President, NUEPA Council)

8. Secretary (Higher Education) Government of Karnataka, Bangalore-560001 Member
9. Secretary (Technical Education) Govt. of Maharashtra, Mumbai Member
10. Secretary (Higher Education) Govt. of Madhya Pradesh, Bhopal-462004 Member
11. Secretary (School Education) Govt. of Meghalaya, Shillong Member
12. Secretary (School Education) Govt. of Jammu & Kashmir, Srinagar (J&K) Member

Self Assessment

Fill in the blanks:

(i) The NUEPA is an autonomous organization emphasizes ______ management.
(ii) NUEPA was started in _____.
(iii) The minister for______, Govt. of India, is the chairman of the NUEPA Council.
(iv) The university is fully involved in the capacity building and research in ______ of education not only in India but also in South Asia.

30.6 Summary

- The National University of Educational Planning and Administration (NUEPA) is an autonomous organization that emphasizes planning, management and capacity building in educational policy, through research, training, consultancy and dissemination.
- Universities play a crucial role in generating new ideas, and in accumulating and transmitting knowledge, yet they have remained peripheral to development concerns.
- Education contributes to the growth of national income and individual earnings.
- Economic growth currently depends on the capacity to produce knowledge based goods.
- If knowledge is a source of economic growth, disparities in its distribution become a source of inequality among nations.
Notes

- National liberation struggles were accompanied by an urge for self-reliance in development. In many countries, building universities was a symbol of self-reliance.
- One of the biggest contributions of higher education is the development of national education systems.
- Changes in the sector have made it a challenge to maintain an appropriate balance between national priorities and the impact of the globalization of higher education for many developing countries.
- RESEARCH and capacity development at IIEP covers all levels of formal education systems, as well as various types of non-formal education.
- The post-World War II period witnessed intense debates on the relationship between education and economic growth. By the end of the 1950s, education as a key factor of growth became a major issue of economic policies.
- Many countries in the region subsequently went for comprehensive reforms in education aimed at transferring the existing education system into national systems of education.

30.7 Keywords

- Seminar: a meeting for discussion on a particular topic.
- Rapid: happening in a short period of time.
- Globalization: the process covering or affecting the whole world.
- Micro: on a small scale
- Macro: on a large scale

30.8 Review Questions

1. What is NUEPA? Give the names of its departments.
2. What are the main objectives of NUEPA?
3. Write the organizational set-up of NUEPA

Answer: Self Assessment

1. (i) Planning (ii) 1960-61 (iii) Human resource development (iv) Planning and management

30.9 Further Readings

Unit 31: SIEMAT as an Apex Body in Educational Planning and Management

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31.2 Structure and Functions of SIEMAT
31.3 Faculty Members
31.4 Focus on Staff Development
31.5 Role of SIEMAT
31.6 Summary
31.7 Keywords
31.8 Review Questions
31.9 Further Readings

Objectives
The objectives of this unit can be summarized as below:
- to explain about state institute of educational management and training.
- to discuss about the structure and functions of the institute.
- to describe about the faculty members.
- to discuss about the focus on staff development.
- to explain about the role of SIEMAT, etc.

Introduction
Decentralization of educational planning and management is a major concern in India. Translation of the idea of decentralisation into an operational practice requires creation of necessary organisational arrangements to make the practice administratively feasible and professionally supportive.

The need for developing organisational arrangements to facilitate educational planning in a decentralised framework was recognised for a long time in India. However, the efforts to create such organisational arrangements were not very successful. Planning competencies are almost non-existent at local levels and now it is recognised as one of the major constraints in translating the idea of decentralised planning into an operational practice. Development of local capacity in planning and management of education requires state level institutions to provide professional guidance and support. SIEMAT can be one of the organisational arrangements to help professionalising educational planning and management activities at the state, district and sub-district levels.

Various efforts were made in the past to create such an institutional structure at the state level. When the State Institutes of Education were established in the 1960s, there was an expectation that a wing specifically focusing on educational planning and management will be created. In the 1980s
as a follow-up to the National Policy on Education, there was an effort to create State Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (SIEPA) at the state level. However, these efforts did not materialise. Interestingly, when DIETs came into existence in the late 1980s, a department/branch of educational planning and management was created and hence, an arrangement at the district level became a reality.

In the 1990s the efforts towards decentralised planning in education, keeping district as a unit for planning, took a more concrete shape. With the initiation of large scale externally funded educational projects in primary education, the demand for local level capacity to prepare district plans in education increased. This necessitated developing professional competency in educational planning at the local level which needed support from institutions at the state level.

31.1 State Institute of Educational Management and Training (SIEMAT)

NIEPA has been advocating setting-up of SIEMAT as a separate institute. This is more so in states which are big and where the number of educational administrators to be trained are large. The need for a separate institution stems from various factors.

Firstly, educational planning and management is a less developed area of specialization in India. There are only very few universities or institutions imparting education and training in the area of educational planning and management. On the other hand, there are many departments and institutions in the country which impart education and training for improving pedagogical skills of educational functionaries (teachers). It may be a better idea to have state level arrangement as a separate institute where the concerns can be centered around developing planning and management competencies of educational functionaries.

Secondly, with the progress in our efforts towards decentralisation of educational planning and management, the number of functionaries involved in the planning process has increased. They require professional support and academic orientation to formulate plans and to develop implementation designs. This in itself is a massive effort, especially in states which are large in size. Moreover, planning process has expanded from the district to the sub-district levels. Needless to add, the demand for professional support is also directly related to such expanding base of planning requirements at the local levels. Therefore, only a separate institute with full fledged faculty and departments will be able to provide regular support to planning activities.

Thirdly, an institutional arrangement relating to educational planning and management needs to take into account all levels of education. It may not be desirable and possible to develop separate institutions for various levels of education. Therefore, while visualising an institute, one may have to keep a long-term development of the educational system of the state in mind rather than the short-term demands put by any particular sector of education. The SCERT by definition deals with school level education. If SIEMAT becomes a part or department of SCERT, then there is a possibility that it may deal only with school level education.

Fourthly, funding and support needed to develop such organisational arrangements are now forthcoming. For example, the DPEP provides a chance to setup SIEMAT as a separate institution. This opportunity may be utilised to realise the long-term objective of the state. It may happen that the institute may focus its attention in the initial stages towards planning of elementary levels of education. Even otherwise, since universalisation of elementary education is Constitutional commitment and a fundamental right in India, any institute dealing with the planning and
management aspects of education needs to necessarily focus its attention on the compulsory levels of education. However, this immediate requirement need not be the only basis to setup an Institute. Therefore, even when funds from the DPEP are available and even when many of the Institute’s activities in the short-run may be related to primary levels of education, it is very necessary and important to keep the vision and mission of the institute focused on all levels of education.

Fifthly, “the immediate demand for setting up such an Institute, as mentioned above, comes from the DPEP; the funding support, too is provided by the DPEP. However, it may not be a desirable proposition to setup the institute strictly within the framework of the DPEP. This is very important because DPEP is envisaged in a “project mode”. An institute to undertake research and impart training in educational planning and administration may not be viewed in a project mode. Such an institutional framework needs to be continued even after the project period and therefore, the commitment of the state governments to continue with these institutional arrangements even when the now available external funding support dries away is very important. From this point of view also, it may not be a desirable idea to have the institute as part of the DPEP state project office.

Sixthly, Keeping this institute as part of the Directorate of Education may imply that it becomes a part of the administrative arrangement rather than an academic support system. Unless sufficient autonomy is given to these units from the very beginning, there is a possibility that the very purpose of setting up of these institutions may be lost.

There are strong grounds for setting up SIEMAT as a separate institute. However, it is left to the state governments to decide on the nature of organisational arrangements to be created at the state level.

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### 31.2 Structure and Functions of SIEMAT

The organisational structure of the SIEMAT may be related to its expected role. The specific requirements may vary from state to state. Therefore, it may be a better idea not to have a blueprint of the institute developed at the central level. Each state government may develop proposals to setup the institution and evolve organisational structures, taking into consideration the specific requirements of the state.

Some of the expected functions of the institute may be as follows:

(i) Support to policy planning at the state level. This can be facilitated through providing an advisory supportive role to the state governments through conducting research in areas of concern for policy making and implementation at the state level and organizing orientation programmes for senior level educational administrators at the state level. For example, issues like evolving norms for setting-up of educational institutions, norms for providing infrastructural facilities in educational institutions, norms regarding recruitment and posting of teachers, norms regarding performance of educational institutions etc. may become an area of concern of the Institute.

(ii) The institute may conduct research studies on various aspects including evaluation research of various programmes initiated by the State government to assess the relative effectiveness of various schemes, including the incentive schemes.
Educational Management

Notes

(iii) Organising training programmes, especially for educational functionaries at the district and sub-district levels on various aspects related to educational planning and management and organising seminars on areas of concern.

(iv) Developing local level capacities for undertaking school mapping exercises, micro-planning activities and facilitating participatory process of educational planning and management in association with lower level administrative and academic bodies.

(v) Improving competencies of the supervisory staff to improve the efficiency of the educational institutions and the system as a whole.

(vi) Providing support in handling of data pertaining to various indicators of the educational development on which performance of districts or schools can be assessed.

(vii) Developing competencies for costing of educational plans and mobilization and utilization of resources including preparation of budgets.

(viii) Project planning and implementation including monitoring and evaluation of projects.

(ix) Providing professional guidance to sub-state level institutions dealing with educational planning and management.

In other words, the institute may be playing an advisory and policy support role at the state level, conducting direct training programmes for educational functionaries, indirect training of many of the educational functionaries and conducting research in various aspects related to educational policy and programmes.

The organisational structure to be developed for an institute like SIEMAT may reflect some of these concerns. Therefore, it is not desirable to suggest the type of departments that institute should have. One of the first SIEMATs established in Uttar Pradesh at Allahbad has five departments. These departments are: (i) Department of Policy and Planning; (ii) Department of Management; (iii) Department of Educational Finance; (iv) Department of Research, Evaluation and (v) Department of Educational Management and Information System. It is important that the state governments evolve the necessary structure depending on their requirements rather than following any given structure for any state.

[Task] How many departments are SIEMATs in Uttar Pradesh?

31.3 Faculty Members

In any organisation, the orientation of the faculty members will decide the nature of activities that can be effectively undertaken. It is equally important that the specialisation of the faculty members must match the concerns of the institution. It needs to be emphasised that people with specialization in educational planning and management are rarely available. Therefore, these institutes may not be in a position to recruit people who are adequately trained and experienced in the area of educational planning. However, faculty development programmes and in-house capacity building activities can be initiated in a sustained fashion provided that faculty members are permanent. This is an important dimension of developing an institute. However, the experiences of the existing institutions do not always help facilitating the faculty development programmes for various reasons:

Firstly, in some states the faculty members are drawn from the administrative cadre on a deputation basis who can be called back at any time. These people are educational administrators who may prefer work related to educational administration to academic activities. Moreover, even when capacity is built in individuals it is seldom available in the institute once they return to the parent
department. Therefore, the institute may frequently face the problem of not having competent staff in some of the existing academics. In these cases the faculty members of SIEMAT identify themselves with the administrative cadres and many of them are eager to go back to the main-stream administration than remaining in the institute.

Secondly, in certain situations the faculty members are recruited for short durations, not necessarily from the administration. They are brought on deputation from other institutions or universities and are available only for a limited period. Even in this case, although they are not called back immediately, they are not in a position to continue in the institute for a long time. Therefore, faculty development programmes are adversely affected.

It may be desirable for these institutions to have a separate cadre of faculty which will eventually be specialised in the area of educational planning and administration. A distinction needs to be made between issues related to educational planning and management and issues related to pedagogical aspects of education. All the states have State Council for Educational Research and Training (SCERT) which focuses on pedagogical improvement. SIEMATs are not expected to focus on pedagogical issues. Therefore, pedagogical experts may not be recruited as faculty members in SIEMATs. A more desirable qualification for SIEMAT faculty members may be post-graduates and Doctor level educated people in the area of social sciences with research or working experience in the field of education. This will help them see educational planning from a broader perspective in its inter-relatedness with other sectors of development. Since, specialists in educational planning and management are not readily available.

Notes

It is important to emphasise the orientation and development of the faculty members once they are recruited and posted in SIEMATs.

31.4 Focus on Staff Development

The major activity of the Institute will be research and training, apart from policy support which the institute may be providing to decision makers at different levels. However, even this advisory role requires a strong research back-up. Therefore, in the ultimate analysis, research and training become major areas of activity of the institute.

The capacity building in the Institute requires building capacities to undertake training activities and to initiate research studies. There is a close link between research and training which needs to be appreciated in these institutions. The trainees are educational practitioners and the faculty members need not be very familiar with the practice of educational administration. Therefore, it is very important to see that the faculty members understand educational administration from a more objective point of view so that they are in a position to handle quality training programmes to improve the efficiency of educational planners and administrators. For this purpose, research becomes a very necessary and important function of the institute. Action research, field-based studies, case studies, evaluation studies and diagnostic studies to understand the functioning of the system, need to be built into the regular activities of the Institute.

Capacity building for research activities cannot be organised through short-duration training programmes, although it is possible to train faculty members in a particular research methodology within a short duration. Therefore, based on the theme identified for research, one may have to have close academic interactions with experts in the selected areas working in universities and other research institutions. This may create an initial environment conducive to research activities in SIEMAT. Needless to add, the major form of capacity building in research is learning-by-doing. This can be facilitated only when the institute initiates research studies.
The link between research and training is provided through developing training materials. The training material development should be seen as a serious activity in the SIEMAT, if quality of training programmes is to be improved. The training materials to be developed need to have a research base. Therefore, while developing training materials adequate care need to be taken to ensure that they help in improving professional competencies of the prospective trainees. The training programmes provide an opportunity to try out the training materials before they are finalised as training modules. In this sense, training becomes a learning experience for the faculty members to focus on issues of concern for the educational planners and administrators.

Given the increasing demand, the institute may be forced to organise training programmes during the initial stage itself. Therefore, training programmes may also have to be started along with research activities. In the absence of materials developed, the institute, in the initial stages may rely on training materials developed by other institutions. However, reliance on externally produced training materials may have to be reduced in the long-run. While it is possible to take help from national level institutions, it is more important to develop institutional capacity for these activities.

Most of the training programmes to be organised by the faculty members may be in the area of educational planning and management and therefore, they need to be oriented to educational planning and management issues in the initial stage itself. National institutions like NIEPA can be of help in providing support for faculty development. The NIEPA will be happy to orient the newly recruited faculty members through attachment programmes. The SIEMAT may make use of such avenues to develop competency of the faculty members in educational planning and management.

An equally important aspect of capacity development for the faculty members is development of good library and documentation centre in the institute. Since the area of educational planning and management is not yet well developed, it is very difficult to find useful books at the local level. Therefore, it is important that books in the selected areas are identified, purchased and made available to the faculty members.

Another opportunity is to develop working arrangements with the local level research institutions and universities which are experts in the selected or related areas. Fortunately, India has wide network of institutions and universities from where experts may be drawn into the field of education.

Did you know? Such close interaction with universities and research institutions will provide an encouraging research environment in SIEMATs.

31.5 Role of SIEMAT

The evidence cited in the preceding sections and wider acceptability of Prof. Amartya Sen’s formulations clearly show a shift in the paradigms from the earlier growth model based on accumulation of physical capital and labour force to the new approach based on behaviour of the people responsible for the accumulation of productive factors and knowledge. Human development envisaged by enlargement of people’s choice through acquisition of knowledge and ensuring their access to resources for decent standard of living and long life becomes the desired aim of the growth. Education in this process plays decisive role.

This development needs to be recognised by the Educational Policy makers, planners and managers. Despite our policy pronouncements and Constitutional Directives, our record of implementing new thrusts is mixed one – some successes and many failures. Provision of technical and resource support at the grass root level was a part of larger strategy to energize the system and achieve national goals in Elementary and Adult Education. Socio-cultural, economic and political dynamics, unevenness
of development, need of active involvement of community have their bearing on educational planning and management and demand situation specific approaches for effective implementation of programmes. Detailed guidelines spelling out the concept-context, mission, role and functions were circulated by the HRD Ministry in 1989. Some of these formulations may be useful for effective operationalization of the SIEMAT.

In the Background Paper some basic issues and areas of concern are highlighted and during our discussions we will get opportunity to go into further details in our search for viable strategies to meet the exigencies of the system. In the implementation dynamics of educational reform, identical problems have arisen both within our country and outside. Our friends are thus in tune with the main stream and this reflects their sincerity of purpose and commitment to the cause of education. Are there any remedial measures available? The success stories of programmes in Bihar and outside shows that answer is “Yes” with one proviso that each approach is situation specific and as such we may learn from the same but should not overlook the relational aspect of the same to our conditions. Mechanistic application of imported models will not give the desired results.

Keeping in view the complexities of the situation, emerging challenges and urgency for achieving our desired goals, the SIEMAT and other Technical-cum-Resource Institutions cannot be simply training institutions and they need to develop into “Learning and Action organisations” where people continually expand their capacities to create the results they truly desire and perform pace-setting role in the process of educational change. Three main tasks before the Institute will be:

(a) Acquisition of Knowledge
   (i) Generation of knowledge through Research e.g. Disaggregated Human Development Index of Bihar, Action Research
   (ii) Research findings from other sources
   (iii) Compilation of case studies based on the national and international experiences.

(b) Dissemination of knowledge through
   (i) Use of media
   (ii) Publications
   (iii) Sensitization sessions
   (iv) Seminars and Discussions

(c) Capacity to absorb knowledge and use it for developmental purposes e.g.
   (i) Orientation of functionaries, trainers, community leaders
   (ii) Render professional and technical advice
   (iii) District and Micro level planning
   (iv) Improving school effectiveness – Institutional Planning
   (v) Extension work

Self Assessment

1. Fill in the blanks:
   (i) The SIEMAT organises ________ especially for _________ at the district and sub district levels.
   (ii) SIEMAT supports to _________ at the state level.
   (iii) The Capacity building in the institute requires building capacities to undertake _________ and to initiate research studies.
   (iv) The _________ development is an important activity of SIEMAT.
31.6 Summary

- Decentralization of educational planning and management is a major concern in India.
- The need for developing organisational arrangements to facilitate educational planning in a decentralised framework was recognised for a long time in India.
- Various efforts were made in the past to create such an institutional structure at the state level.
- In the 1980s as a follow-up to the National Policy on Education, there was an effort to create State Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (SIEPA) at the state level.
- In the 1990s the efforts towards decentralised planning in education, keeping district as a unit for planning, took a more concrete shape. With the initiation of large scale externally funded educational projects in primary education, the demand for local level capacity to prepare district plans in education increased.
- NIEPA has been advocating setting-up of SIEMAT as a separate institute. This is more so in states which are big and where the number of educational administrators to be trained are large.
- SIEMAT is an academic institution and any academic institution requires an element of autonomy in its operation to develop it into a professional institution.
- There are strong grounds for setting up SIEMAT as a separate institute.
- The organisational structure of the SIEMAT may be related to its expected role. The specific requirements may vary from state to state.
- The organisational structure to be developed for an institute like SIEMAT may reflect some of these concerns.
- In any organisation, the orientation of the faculty members will decide the nature of activities that can be effectively undertaken.
- The major activity of the Institute will be research and training, apart from policy support which the institute may be providing to decision makers at different levels.
- Capacity building for research activities cannot be organised through short-duration training programmes, although it is possible to train faculty members in a particular research methodology within a short duration.
- The link between research and training is provided through developing training materials.
- Given the increasing demand, the institute may be forced to organise training programmes during the initial stage itself.
- The evidence cited in the preceding sections and wider acceptability of Prof. Amartya Sen’s formulations clearly show a shift in the paradigms from the earlier growth model based on accumulation of physical capital and labour force to the new approach based on behaviour of the people responsible for the accumulation of productive factors and knowledge.

31.7 Keywords

- **Creation**: The act or process of making something that is new.
- **Effort**: The physical or mental energy that you need to do something.
- **Orientation**: The type of aims or interest that a person or an organization has.
31.8 Review Questions

1. Explain the existing arrangements.
2. Write the structure and functions of the institute.
3. Give the focus on staff development.
4. What are the roles of SIEMAT?

**Answer: Self Assessment**

1. (i) Training programmes, educational functionaries  (ii) Policy Planning
   (iii) Training activities  (iv) Training Material

31.9 Further Readings

- **Books**
Unit 32: UGC-NAAC as an Apex Body in Educational Planning and Management

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32.3 Eligibility for the Assessment by NAAC
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Objectives
The Objectives of this unit can be summarized as below:
- to explain about aim and structure of NAAC.
- to discuss about eligibility.
- to describe about methodology.
- to discuss about the criteria for assessment.
- to describe about weight, age and assessment outcome.
- to explain about accreditation of specialised institutions.
- to discuss about quality promotion and sustenance activities.
- to explain about internal quality assurance cell (IQAC).

Introduction
The National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC) is an autonomous body established by the University Grants Commission (UGC) of India to assess and accredit institutions of higher education in the country. It is an outcome of the recommendations of the National Policy on Education.
(1986) that laid special emphasis on upholding the quality of higher education in India. In spite of the built-in regulatory mechanisms that aim to ensure satisfactory levels of quality in the functioning of higher education institutions, there have been criticisms that the country has permitted the mushrooming of institutions of higher education with fancy programmes and substandard facilities and consequent dilution of standards. To address the issue of deterioration in quality, the National Policy on Education (1986) and the Plan of Action (POA-1992) that spelt out the strategic plans for the policies, advocated the establishment of an independent national accreditation body. Consequently, the NAAC was established in 1994 with its headquarters at Bangalore.

32.1 Structure of UGC NAAC

The NAAC functions through its General Council (GC) and Executive Committee (EC) where educational administrators, policy makers and senior academicians from a cross section of the system of higher education are represented. The Chairperson of the UGC is the President of the GC of the NAAC; the Chairperson of the EC is an eminent academician in the area of relevance to the NAAC. The Director of the NAAC is its academic and administrative head, and is the member-secretary of both the GC and EC. The NAAC also has many advisory and consultative committees to guide its practices, in addition to the statutory bodies that steer its policies. The NAAC has a core staff and consultants to support its activities. It also receives assistance from a large number of external resource persons from across the country who are not full time staff of the NAAC.

32.2 Aims of UGC NAAC

The activities and future plans of the NAAC are guided by its vision and mission that focus on making quality assurance an integral part of the functioning of higher education institutions. The vision of the NAAC is: To make quality the defining element of higher education in India through a combination of self and external quality evaluation, promotion and sustenance initiatives. The mission statements of the NAAC aim at translating the NAACs vision into reality, defining the following, key tasks of the organisation: To arrange for periodic assessment and accreditation of institutions of higher education or units thereof, or specific academic programmes or projects; To stimulate the academic environment for promotion of quality of teaching-learning and research in higher education institutions; To encourage self evaluation, accountability, autonomy and innovations in higher education; To undertake quality-related research studies, consultancy and training programmes, and To collaborate with other stakeholders of higher education for quality evaluation, promotion and sustenance. Guided by its vision and striving to achieve its mission, the NAAC primarily assesses the quality of institutions of higher education that volunteer for the process, through an internationally accepted methodology, provided they are eligible to be assessed by the NAAC.

32.3 Eligibility for the Assessment by NAAC

Institutions that wish to be assessed have to record their intention and provide general information about the institution to the NAAC. The format for the letter of intention and the general information required are given in Annexure I and II. On receiving the letter of intention, the NAAC checks the eligibility of the institution. The Executive Committee of the NAAC has resolved as under regarding the eligibility criteria: Any institution of higher education imparting instruction at degree level and above shall be eligible for assessment by the NAAC, provided the institution works under the
relevant provisions and discipline of some university established under the Indian law, at least as regards the programmes / courses to be assessed.”

32.4 Methodology for Assessment

For the assessment of a unit that is eligible to be assessed, the NAAC follows a three stage process which is a combination of self-study and peer review. The three stages are:

1. The preparation and submission of a self-study report by the unit of assessment.
2. The on-site visit of the peer team for validation of the self-study report and for recommending the assessment outcome to the NAAC.
3. The final decision by the Executive Committee of the NAAC.

Stage I: The Preparation of the Self-study Report: Institutions that fulfill the eligibility criteria are given the guidelines to prepare the self-study report to be submitted for assessment. The NAAC believes that an institution that really understands itself - its strengths and weaknesses, its potentials and limitations - is likely to be more successful in carrying out its educational mission than the one without such self-awareness. Self study is thus envisaged as the backbone of the process of assessment and accreditation.

Stage II: The Visit to the Institution: On receiving the self-study report from the institution, the NAAC constitutes the team of peers and consults the institution about any justifiable reservation it may have about any member of the team. The peer team visits the institution and looks for patterns of evidence to validate the self-study report, through interactions with the constituents of the institution, checking documents and visiting the various units of the institution. At the end of the visit, the team shares the draft assessment report with the institution and the copy of the report with the acceptance of the head of the institution is submitted to the NAAC. The team also gives confidential scores that decide the institutional grade.

Stage III: The Final Decision of the NAAC: The Executive Committee of the NAAC reviews the report and takes a decision about the grade of the institution. The grade is valid for a period of five years. Accreditation by the NAAC is voluntary and during the first phase of assessment, the NAAC has taken up accreditation of institutions. There is also provision and a separate process to assess and accredit the departments of an institution. Guidelines (manuals) have been developed to suit different units of higher education.

Self Assessment

1. Multiple choice questions:

Choose the correct option:

(i) The National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC) is an autonomous body established by the ________.
   (a) UGC    (b) NCERT    (c) SCERT    (d) AICTE

(ii) The NAAC was established in ________
   (a) 1990    (b) 1994    (c) 2005    (d) 2001

(iii) The ________ of the NAAC is its academic and administrative head, and is the member-secretary of both the GC and EC.
   (a) Chairperson    (b) Manager    (c) Director    (d) Principle

(iv) The activities and future plans of the ________ are guided by its vision and mission that focus on making quality assurance an integral part of the functioning of higher education institutions.
   (a) AICTE    (b) MCI    (c) SCERT    (d) NAAC
(v) The grade of the institution is valid for a period of ________.

(a) 5 years   (b) 4 years   (c) 10 years   (d) 1 year

32.5 Criteria for Assessment

The NAAC has identified the following seven criteria to serve as the basis for its assessment procedures:

1. Curricular Aspects
2. Teaching-Learning and Evaluation
3. Research, Consultancy and Extension
4. Infrastructure and Learning Resources
5. Student Support and Progression
6. Organisation and Management Healthy
7. Practices

Different criteria have been allotted differential weightages. The weightages given below are used for calculating the institutional score. The self-study report is expected to highlight the functioning of the institution with reference to these criteria.

32.6 Weightage

The validation of the self-study report and the subsequent assessment lead to an overall institutional grade and a detailed report, which begins with the peer team agreeing on the criterion-wise scores. Taking cognizance of the variance in types of institutions, different criteria have been allotted differential weightages. The weightages given below are used for calculating the institutional score.

32.7 The Assessment Outcome

The validation of the self-study report by peers results in criterion-wise scores and a detailed assessment report. The criterion scores are used to arrive at the overall institutional score. If the overall score is more than 55%, the institution gets the “Accredited status” and the accredited institutions are graded on a nine point scale. Institutions which do not attain the minimum 55% score for accreditation are also intimated and notified indicating that the institutions were “Assessed And Found Not Qualified For Accreditation”. The assessment outcome is valid for a period of 5 years. The accredited institutions are graded on a nine-point scale with the following scale values:

32.8 Accreditation of Specialised Institutions

The NAAC works in collaboration with the National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE) to assess and accredit the teacher education units. Similarly, the NAAC in collaboration with the Distance Education Council (DEC) has developed a manual to assess the open and distance education units of the country. Following the general model, institutions that offer programmes in disciplines like Law, Medicine and Engineering have also been assessed by the NAAC.
32.8.1 Fee for Assessment and Accreditation

On the recommendations of the Executive Committee (EC) of the NAAC, the following fee structure is followed.

Universities
- Upto four departments - Rs. 75,000/
- More than four but upto ten departments - Rs. 75,001 + Rs. 7,500 for each additional department
- More than ten departments - Rs. 1,20,001 + Rs. 5,001 - for each additional department.
- The accreditation fee will be limited to a maximum amount of Rs. 3.00 lakhs per institution.

Colleges
- Rs. 50,0001 for a college with many faculties, i.e., Arts and Science. (Commerce will be treated as a part of the Arts faculty for this purpose) and Rs. 25,0001 for a college with one faculty, namely, Arts or Science or Law or any other.
- The assessment and accreditation fee has to be paid in the form of a demand draft drawn in favour of “The Director, NAAC” payable at Bangalore, which may be sent along with the letter of intention or the self-study report. In addition, the travel lodging and boarding expenses of the peer team and the team coordinator have to be borne by the institution.

32.9 Universities/Colleges Recognised Under 2F and 12B : UGC Support for Accreditation

As per the recent decision of the uue the universities/colleges recognised by the uec under 2 (f) and 12 (B) clause of uec Act 1956, need not pay accreditation fee. Besides this the expenditure on T A / DA of peer team visit will be reimbursed to the institution by uec through NAAC, as per the norms.

Colleges/Universities would however take care of local hospitality, transport and accommodation of the peer team.

This decision comes into effect from 1st April 2004.

32.9.1 Logistics
- Along the guidelines given in the manual, the institutions are expected to do the following:
- Colleges should submit five copies of the self-study report and universities should submit ten copies, with relevant supporting documents.
- The soft copy of the self-study report should also be submitted in Microsoft Word format in a CD.
- Along with the submission of the report, the institution has to record that it agrees to the financial implications of the peer team visit.
- The accreditation fee has to be paid not later than the submission of the self study report.
- While submitting the self-study reports, the institution has to indicate three dates for the peer team visit in the order of preference that would fall after 45 days of submission of the report to the NAAC but before 180 days. This would facilitate systematic planning of the on-site visit, taking into consideration the convenience of the institution.

32.10 Quality Promotion and Sustenance Activities

Since quality assurance is a continuous process, the NAAC takes up many post accreditation activities to facilitate quality promotion and sustenance among all institutions of higher education, in general, and among the accredited institutions, in particular. Seminars and workshops on quality enhancement are being supported by The NAAC. To ensure that quality assurance becomes an integral part of the
functioning of the institutions, the NAAC promotes the establishment of Internal Quality Assurance Cells (IQAC) in accredited institutions.

### 32.11 Internal Quality Assurance Cell (IQAC)

The IQAC is expected to become a part of an institution's system and work towards realizing the goals of quality enhancement and sustenance. The prime task of the IQAC is to develop a system for conscious, consistent and catalytic improvement in the performance of institutions. It need not be yet another hierarchical structure or record keeping exercise in the institution; it has to be a facilitative and participative voluntary part of the institution. To help institutions establish the IQACs, guidelines have been developed by the NAAC. The IQAC is expected to make a significant and meaningful contribution in the reaccreditation of institutions.

#### Task
Write applications of NAAC in the field of education.

### Self Assessment

1. **Fill in the blanks:**

   (i) The NAAC has identified the ....................... criteria to serve as the basis for its assessment.

   (ii) The ......................... are used to arrive at the overall institutional score.

   (iii) If the overall score is more than ......................... the institution gets the accredited status.

   (iv) The assessment outcome is valid for a period of .......... years.

   (v) The NAAC works in collaboration with the ................. to assess and a credit the teacher education units.

### 32.12 Summary

- **THE NATIONAL ASSESSMENT AND ACCREDITATION COUNCIL (NAAC)** is an autonomous body established by the University Grants Commission (UGC) of India to assess and accredit institutions of higher education in the country.
- The NAAC functions through its General Council (GC) and Executive Committee (EC) where educational administrators, policy makers and senior academicians from a cross section of the system of higher education are represented.
- The NAAC also has many advisory and consultative committees to guide its practices, in addition to the statutory bodies that steer its policies. The NAAC has a core staff and consultants to support its activities.
- The activities and future plans of the NAAC are guided by its vision and mission that focus on making quality assurance an integral part of the functioning of higher education institutions. The vision of the NAAC is: To make quality the defining element of higher education in India through a combination of self and external quality evaluation, promotion and sustenance initiatives.
- Institutions that wish to be assessed have to record their intention and provide general information about the institution to the NAAC. The format for the letter of intention and the general information required are given in Annexure I and II. On receiving the letter of intention, the NAAC checks the eligibility of the institution.
- For the assessment of a unit that is eligible to be assessed, the NAAC follows a three stage process which is a combination of self-study and peer review. The three stages are:
Notes

- The preparation and submission of a self-study report by the unit of assessment.
- The on-site visit of the peer team for validation of the self-study report and for recommending the assessment outcome to the NAAC.
- The final decision by the Executive Committee of the NAAC.
- The validation of the self-study report and the subsequent assessment lead to an overall institutional grade and a detailed report, which begins with the peer team agreeing on the criterion-wise scores. Taking cognizance of the variance in types of institutions, different criteria have been allotted differential weightages.
- The validation of the self-study report by peers results in criterion-wise scores and a detailed assessment report. The criterion scores are used to arrive at the overall institutional score. If the overall score is more than 55%, the institution gets the “Accredited status” and the accredited institutions are graded on a nine point scale. Institutions which do not attain the minimum 55% score for accreditation are also intimated and notified indicating that the institutions were “Assessed And Found Not Qualified For Accreditation”.

32.13 Keywords

- Assessment : An opinion or a judgement about something that has been thought about every carefully.
- Administration : The activities that are done in order to plan, organize and run a business, school or institution.
- Methodology : A set of methods and principles used to perform a particular activity.
- Specialised : Designed or developed for a particular purpose or area of knowledge

32.14 Review Questions

1. Write about the aim, structure of NAAC.
2. What is the eligibility criteria of the institution for assessed by NAAC ?
3. What is the methodology of NAAC to assess an institution.
4. What is the assessment outcome by NAAC ?
5. Give a note on quality promotion and sustenance activities.

Answer : Self Assessment

1. (i) (a) (ii) (b) (iii) (c) (iv) (a) (v) (b)
2. (i) 7 (ii) criterian scores (iii) 55% (iv) 5 (v) NCTC

32.15 Further Readings

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