

COURSE IMPLEMENTATION

Objectives

The course was designed to meet the following objectives:

- (a) To deepen the participants' appreciation of the administrative process and concepts of educational management with a view to improving their effectiveness of performance in administration and supervision;
- (b) To strengthen participants' awareness of the relationship between education and socio-economic development, in terms of planning for educational objectives and national goals;
- (c) To encourage co-operative attitudes among participants in view of their inter-related roles, by discussions, case studies and group activities involving all those engaged in educational administration in specific task areas;
- (d) To assist participants in identifying areas where training in educational administration and supervision in their individual countries would be of benefit, and to enable them to formulate and conduct programmes to meet such needs on an in-service basis.

The outline syllabus was conceived in two main units: The first examining education in its social and economic context and the implications which flow from this for understanding different elements of the management cycle and the second, concentrating upon supervision in relation to specific task areas.

A. Education Administration: Administrative processes with reference to ministries, departments and educational institutions.

(a) Educational policies and the national framework. National development. The role of education in relation to national objectives for social and economic development. The Ministry of Education in the structure of Government.

The social context of educational planning and development; social change; educational opportunity; social mobility; resource allocation. The economics of education in the national context and the economics of educational planning.

(b) Human relations in educational administration. Staff relations, morale and motivation. Role theory; inter-group and inter-role conflict: Group structure. Perceptions of self and others. Power and authority: Leadership behaviour.

(c) Communication. Nature of communication: Barriers to communication. Communication theory and supervisory practices. Horizontal and vertical communication within the educational system.

(d) Decision-making and the management of resources. The concept of leadership in the educational system. Goal clarity: The management of time. Staff recruitment and selection. Use of available plant,

facilities and finances. Allocation and use of resources.

The decision-making process: The art of decision-making: Effective staff meetings. Crisis management. Management of change: Change and innovation.

(e) Organization, Co-ordination and Evaluation. Organization Theory; some factors affecting organization effectiveness. Management of human resources. The work of the organization and its design.

Supervision of departments and divisions. Delegation of responsibility. Improving communication and consultation: Ministry, school and community relationships. Routine and developmental activities. Evaluation organization and management effectiveness.

B. Educational Supervision

(a) (i) The concept, aims and objectives of school supervision.

(ii) Principles underlying effective supervision.

(iii) Major functions of the school supervisor: Executive and advisory.

(iv) Techniques of school supervision.

(v) Evaluating the effectiveness of school supervision

(b) Selected functions of the school supervisor.

(i) Supervision and curriculum development. Curriculum objectives. Curriculum design. Curriculum evaluation. Strategies for implementing change.

(ii) Supervision and training. Training skills and techniques. Course design and appraisal. Development of national in-service programmes.

(iii) Supervision and the improvement of instruction. Planning for: Observation; analysis and treatment of teacher's classroom performance; helping teachers analyse their own and each other's teaching performance in relation to pupil-learning and behaviour. Self Evaluation: Staff Evaluation: Staff Development.

The outline syllabus was treated flexibly to meet the needs of the group and individuals within it. The first unit of the course was given four weeks and the second unit was treated similarly with an intervening week of attachment between the two. The course timetable is reproduced as Appendix 3.

In examining the elements of the syllabus the course sought to develop a set of skills and insights which are classified below. Not all of these could be considered in great detail but the variety of techniques and situations which the course offered indicated ways and means by which participants could further develop these skills in their own national training contexts.

Human Relations Skills

- (i) Working with groups in planning and executing tasks.
- (ii) Tapping the full resource potential existing among the members of any staff or other educational team.
- (iii) Conducting a successful staff meeting through its various stages - the pre-planning, the actual meeting and the follow up stages.
- (iv) Identifying and overcoming barriers to communication within a school and between a Ministry of Education and its schools.
- (v) Introducing changes and overcoming resistance to change.
- (vi) Selecting and interviewing candidates for teaching and other professional posts in education.
- (vii) Improving relationships between supervisors and supervised, and supervisory practices in general.
- (viii) Evaluating the effectiveness of supervisory practices.
- (ix) Developing a self-evaluation schedule for their roles as Education Officers or Headmasters.
- (x) Planning, conducting and evaluating a workshop or seminar.
- (xi) Helping teachers to evaluate and improve their own teaching performance.

Other Skills

- (i) Identifying some of the basic weaknesses in the organisational structure of an institution e.g. A Ministry of Education.
- (ii) Evaluating a school or a teachers' college.
- (iii) Making a successful presentation at a workshop/seminar.
- (iv) Preparing a case study and simulation exercise to be used in a workshop/seminar.
- (v) Writing up a job description.
- (vi) Writing up a report on some incident, individual or investigation which one had to conduct for a Ministry of Education.
- (vii) Listening skills.

Understandings

- (i) How groups work.
- (ii) Why educational policies need to dovetail into or at least be congruent with other national policies.

- (iii) How the allocation of funds to education is made.
- (iv) The importance of balancing the needs of an organisation against the personal needs of its members if administration is to be effective.

Course Materials

It is not the purpose of this section of the report to reproduce in full the discussions, papers, reports and activities of the nine week programme. Rather it seeks to provide examples of the case studies and simulation activities which might have value for a wider audience than that of the participants to the training course in Barbados. Particular attention is given to supervisory roles as these came to the fore throughout the course and provided the basis for most of the illustrative material.

Three main sections are presented:

- (A) Education in its national context.
- (B) Role perception and leadership exercises.
- (C) Selected functions of the school supervisor.

A. EDUCATION IN THE NATIONAL CONTEXT

In order that participants might explore how education fits into the national development scene both at a macro-level and from the standpoint of their own particular niche in the education system three main approaches were adopted:

(i) The presentation of country papers and outlines of the participants own functions and responsibilities within their national education system.

(ii) The examination of a composite case study highlighting the difficulties and challenges facing an education officer in a Caribbean country. This study not only indicated ways by which participants could develop similar material for their own training purposes but enabled them to examine their own role against the feelings, attitudes and skills of the imaginary characters.

(iii) The study of a nation's educational system based on available objective data enabling participants to consider the importance of statistics and research and of the capability needed to produce such information. Background papers on the economics of education at the national level and of the use of finances, plant and facilities were provided to give a theoretical base to the discussion of the tabulated material. The statistical material has not been reproduced in this report for reasons of space but the list of tables provides an indication of the type of evidence against which similar national exercises can be conducted.

Country Papers

Country papers prepared by the participants are here reproduced for the following: Guyana, Dominica, Trinidad and Tobago and St. Vincent as examples of educational structures within the Caribbean. These apply to the middle of 1979.

In addition participants prepared an outline of their duties and responsibilities, allowing colleagues in a similar position in other Caribbean countries to compare and discuss roles and at the same time allow those at other levels of the educational hierarchy to become acquainted with the tasks of colleagues working to the same ends. Two such outlines are reproduced here.

THE EDUCATION SYSTEM IN GUYANA

Introduction

"Like other countries before us, Guyana has identified education as the medium with the greatest potential for effecting changes relevant to our peculiar circumstances. In placing education in the service of development, Guyana is guided by historical and contemporary evidence. The achievement of national goals, be they economic or social, is largely dependent upon the extent to which outcomes of a particular programme, support these goals."

From the foregoing quotation by the former Minister of Education, Comrade Cecilene Baird, one can appreciate the philosophy of Government's policy in having radical and revolutionary changes introduced in the educational system of Guyana so as to achieve national goals and objectives, which are pre-listed:- (There are educational goals that go with each one.)

- (a) To feed, clothe and house the nation.
- (b) To build an egalitarian society.
- (c) To own and control the resources of our country.
- (d) To develop Guyana through self-help and the medium of the co-operative.
- (e) To develop the hinterland, so that one may realise the full potential of our nation's resources.
- (f) To effect the orderly and rapid expansion of agriculture.
- (g) To effect Caribbean regional unity in economic, and social matters.
- (h) To maintain a posture of non-alignment in world affairs, and to work within the non-aligned movement for the liberation of oppressed peoples everywhere.

Charged with the responsibility of achieving these goals is the Ministry of Education, Social Development and Culture, headed by the Minister of Education, Social Development and Culture, who is responsible for the initiation, endorsement and execution of Government's policy.

Nursery Education

All nursery schools were taken over by Government in 1976, the year in which all schools from nursery level to university level became government owned and controlled, the year too that marked the introduction of free education throughout, and the issue of free basic textbooks and exercise books. These nursery schools along with newly established ones offer a 2-year programme for children from the age of 3 years 9 months to 5 years 9 months. The emphasis is on conceptual teaching, rather than teaching by rote, which was the system very much in evidence in the past and which failed to provide the child with the correct attitudes towards learning. Presently, there are over 350 such schools with an enrolment of approximately 30,000 children. There are regular seminars and workshops for teachers organised by the Nursery Unit of the Ministry of Education. Government has obtained assistance from UNICEF to establish a training programme

Secondary Schools (Seven Year Programme)

Admission to these schools is on the basis of SSEE. Emphasis is on academic subjects, but students also do business and technical education. Presently, there is a pilot project at Moblissa on the Linden Highway where Sixth Form students do a live-in exercise. The programme emphasizes hinterland development with students doing agriculture (experiments and research), building technology (construction of chicken runs and pig pens), ecology, sociology and community development.

External examinations: GCE ('O' Level and 'A' Level) and from this year CXC.

Teacher Training

The Lilian Dervor's College of Education provides a 3-year course for secondary school teachers.

Technical Educational and Vocational Training

(a) Technical Institutes

There are two technical institutes, one in Demerara and one in Berbice. The curriculum includes business education, electrical engineering, civil engineering, mechanical engineering, general education and science.

External examinations: Ordinary diploma and certificate examinations of the City and Guilds and GCE O'Level, London.

(b) Carnegie School of Home Economics

This institution provides for full day-time classes for girls and boys. Special evening classes are mainly for women and men. Students are prepared to write examinations in food and nutrition, needlecraft, GCE O'Level.

(c) Guyana Industrial Training Centre

This institution was established in 1969 and so far has trained well over 1,300 students. Courses are offered in six disciplines: electricity, plumbing, carpentry, masonry, welding and heavy equipment.

(d) Guyana School of Agriculture

At this institution, there is a 1-year certificate course and a 2-year diploma course, the latter continuing to attract the largest number of students. Graduates of this institution pursue advanced studies in agriculture at institutions in the Caribbean (UWI) and other countries (USA and UK) obtaining degrees in a wide range of fields. Recently, a faculty of agriculture has been established at the University of Guyana.

Special Education

(a) The David Rose School for Handicapped Children: This institution caters for (1) the deaf, (2) the mentally retarded, (3) the blind.

for nursery school supervisors. Admission to these schools, as obtains also in the primary schools, is based mainly on the proximity of the child to the school.

Primary Education

There are over 400 schools providing primary education for well over 140,000 children aged from 5 years 9 months to 12 years. The programme is a diversified one and is designed to influence and motivate the child to use his talents and skills meaningfully. Besides the basic academic subjects, pupils do music, dance, arts and craft, physical education and games. They are provided the opportunity to gain secondary education through performance in the secondary schools' entrance examination which, from this year (1979) saw the children being tested in mathematics, English language, social studies, general science and aptitude.

Teachers for primary schools undergo a 2-year course of training at the Cyril Potter College of Education, which accommodates 600 trainees yearly with about 300 graduating yearly. There is also an in-service teachers' training programme with centres in Georgetown, New Amsterdam and Linden. The latter two being located 70 and 75 miles from Georgetown. Teachers from rural and hinterland areas are transferred to schools close to the centres for their training. They are supervised on the job during the day by tutors and attend lectures in the evenings. The ITTP caters for untrained teachers, mainly 24 years and over. The Ministry organises refresher courses, seminars and workshops.

Secondary Education

Secondary departments of primary all-age schools provide a 4-year Community High Programme for students between the ages of 12 and 16 - for students who failed to secure allocation to secondary schools at SSEE.

Community High Schools

There are now about 30 community high schools throughout the country. Students are allocated to these schools through the SSEE. The schools offer a 4-year programme for students between 12 and 16 years of age. During the first three years, students spend 60 per cent of their time on academic subjects and 40 per cent on vocational subjects (theory and practice at workshops/industrial arts centres). At the end of the third year, they sit the secondary schools proficiency examination (Part I) in academic subjects, high performance at which enables students to be transferred to senior secondary schools. In the fourth year, students spend 40 per cent of their time on academic subjects and 60 per cent on the vocational subjects of their choice. During this period, they do a 3-month work attachment to gain work experience in their particular skill. Students write Part II of the SSPE. A diploma is awarded for this examination.

Secondary Multilateral Schools

There are six of these schools sited in the three counties of Demerara, Berbice and Essequibo. Admission is through the SSEE. They offer a 5-year programme leading to the GCE 'O' Level. The emphasis is on technical education for which facilities are available. Students successful at the GCE 'O' Level, gain admission to secondary schools offering a 7-year programme. As of this year, students will write the CXC.

Adult Education

Training falls mainly under the following heads: (1) Academic Subjects, (2) Natural Science, (3) Technical Subjects, (4) Craft, (5) Development Education, (6) Functional Education.

There are 35 centres throughout the country, with an enrolment of 6,000.

Higher Education

Higher education is provided by the University of Guyana. There are Faculties of Education, Arts, Natural Science, Technology and Agriculture. The Faculty of Education provides a 1-year course for the Certificate of Education, a 2-year Diploma Course and a 4-year course for the Bachelor of Education Degree. Presently, a joint committee of the U.G. and the Ministry are discussing proposals for the establishment of on-going degree programmes at the Master's level.

Supportive Units

- (a) The Curriculum and Test Development Unit
- (b) Broadcast to Schools Unit
- (c) The Audio-Visual Unit
- (d) Guidance Unit
- (e) Work/Study Unit
- (f) Statistical Research Unit

THE EDUCATION SYSTEM IN DOMINICA

Introduction

The educational system in Dominica provides formal education from the pre-school level through to the secondary level and, to a limited extent, at the tertiary level.

Pre-School

Pre-school education is at a developing stage. Most pre-schools are privately owned and operated either by individuals or by religious or other bodies. However, in some cases, Government gives financial assistance to such schools. Parents pay fees for their children attending the pre-school in their area.

Primary Education

There are over 50 primary schools, most of which are all-age schools accommodating pupils from 5 to 15 years. These are located throughout the island. Only the very small and isolated villages in the island do not have

schools. Education at this level is free.

Secondary Education

There are six secondary schools. Five are located in Roseau, the capital, and one in the second town in the north of the island. Entrance to these schools is obtained by passing the Common Entrance Examination which is open to all capable students below 13 years on the date of the examination. Some children gain free entrance to the school of their choice (upon winning a scholarship) provided space permits. About 60 scholarships and 40 partial scholarships (bursaries) were awarded at the last exam. A scholarship winner gets a small allowance and free books. Transportation where applicable has to be met from his own means. Other pupils passing the exam have to pay school fees, buy books and pay for their transportation to the towns, or reside in the town whereby boarding and lodging has to be paid.

Of the six secondary schools, only two are fully Government-owned. The Dominica Grammar School in Roseau, and the Portsmouth Secondary School in the second town. The Convent High School and Saint Mary's Academy are Catholic high schools. The Wesley High School is a Methodist school while the Dominica Community High School is run by a board of directors of concerned citizens. All of these are assisted by Government.

These secondary schools prepare students for the GCE 'O' Level and offer a wide range of subjects including agricultural science, art, drama in the case of DGS, housecraft, typing and other secretarial skills in the case of CHS together with the traditional arts and science subjects.

The Sixth Form College is an 'A' Level college. Students from any secondary school who meet the entrance qualifications and who can afford the fees are automatically accepted subject to space being available.

Technical Education

The Technical College offers 2-year courses in woodwork, masonry, agricultural science, basic electricity, secretarial studies, motor mechanics and the related basic subjects. Entrance here is by exam and the payment of tuition fees.

Teacher Education

The Teachers' College provides a 2-year teacher-training course for practising teachers. Entrance is subject to the teacher having passed four 'O' Levels including English language and having been selected by the Ministry of Education. This programme includes a period of supervised practice teaching. The curriculum includes agricultural science, art, music, co-operative education, physical education and other subjects normally done in most teacher-training institutions.

Adult Education

There is a programme of adult education offering courses at GCE 'O' Level in various subjects in the two towns.

Special Education

There is a school for the deaf and a workshop for the blind.

THE EDUCATION SYSTEM IN TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO

Introduction

Act No. 1 of 1966 clearly states the policy of the Government of Trinidad and Tobago in its commitment to make a better provision for the promotion of education in Trinidad and Tobago.

In accordance with the general purposes of the Act, the Minister of Education, Culture and Community Development is conferred with powers which shall be exercised so as to ensure:

- (a) The promotion of the education of the people of Trinidad and Tobago, and the establishment of institutions devoted to that purpose by means of which he shall thereby contribute towards the development of the human resources: physical, mental, moral and spiritual of the community.
- (b) The establishment of a system of education designed to provide adequately for the planning and development of an educational service related to the changing needs of the community.
- (c) The effective execution of the education policy of the Government. For the purposes of the performance of his responsibilities under the Act, the Minister may:
 - (i) Require the attendance of children of compulsory school age at all schools established and conducted under the Act.
 - (ii) Regulate the operation of private schools.
 - (iii) Make provision for the professional training of teachers for the entire system of public education and lay down standards applicable to the recruitment of teachers, their training and conditions of service.
 - (iv) Constitute committees or other bodies to advise him on educational and other related matters.
 - (v) Prescribe curricula, textbooks and practices in all public schools so as to ensure conformity with national goals in education.
 - (vi) Establish and dis-establish schools including schools for technical education, and inaugurate classes and discontinue these classes.
 - (vii) Do all such other things as may be found expedient from time to time for carrying out his responsibilities for education and training.

In order to facilitate or promote the powers and responsibilities of the Minister, the system of public education is organised in the following

three stages:

- (a) Primary education consisting of full time education suitable to the requirements of junior pupils i.e. 5 to under 12 years.
- (b) Secondary education suitable to the requirements of senior pupils under the age of 20 years.
- (c) Further education which shall consist of:
 - i. Full-time education beyond secondary education (Tertiary).
 - ii. Part-time education.
 - iii. Leisure-time occupation in organised cultural training and recreative activities available for further education of pupils who have attained the age of 15 years.

In addition to these three stages, provision is made for the establishment of special schools suitable for the requirements of pupils who are deaf, mute, blind, retarded, or otherwise handicapped. Also, within recent years, provision is also made, on the basis of a pilot-scheme, for pre-school education of 3 to 5-year olds.

Primary Education

As at 1976, 97.5 per cent of the primary schools population of 199, 120 children between the ages of 5-15 years were enrolled in public primary schools. Of the 462 schools, the Government owned 113, the remainder being assisted denominational schools of which the Roman Catholics own the greatest number. Other religious boards of management include: Anglicans, Presbyterians, Seventh Day Adventists, Hindus, Moslems, Moravians, Baptists and Methodists. Rapid expansion of the secondary sector and a noticeable fall in the birth-rate have facilitated adequacy of primary school places, which are calculated on the basis of 8 sq. ft of floor space per child.

For administrative and supervisory purposes the primary schools are grouped into eight educational divisions or districts: Port of Spain and environs; St. George; North Eastern Counties; Caroni; South Eastern Counties; Victoria; St. Patrick; and Tobago. Operating from 8 divisional offices are 8 Schools Supervisors II and 26 Schools Supervisors I.

In 1976, a total of 6,305 teachers manned these schools. Of those teachers, 64.8 per cent or 4,090 are trained, and the overall teacher/pupil ratio is 1:30 in all schools, with an average daily enrolment of over 400.

Secondary Level

Access to secondary education is by means of the Common Entrance Examination taken at 11 plus. In 1979, approximately 20,000 children will enter secondary schools on the basis of the Common Entrance Examination.

The 84 public secondary schools fall into the following categories on the basis of the programmes offered: (a) Junior Secondary (26); (b) Senior Comprehensive (10); Senior Secondary (3) and Composite (2) which offer a 3-year junior secondary and the 2-year senior secondary programme. The remainder of the secondary schools offer conventional academic programmes

for 5 years to GCE Cambridge 'O' Level and in some cases a 7-year programme to 'A' Level. Sixth Form registration in 1975/76 was 2,479 which represented 4.9 per cent of the 50,530 pupils in the 17-18 age group.

Provision is made for the registration of private secondary schools. The Ministry estimated that in 1976/77, 16,642 children were registered in 79 such schools.

By 1977 the 20 junior secondary schools then established had an enrolment of 37,440 and operated on a two-shift basis with 960 pupils comprising an equal number of boys and girls on each shift. Students who complete the junior secondary school programme are placed in senior secondary or senior comprehensive schools on the basis of a 14 plus examination. These students who remain in the post-primary section of the primary schools write a primary school leaving certificate examination.

Technical and Vocational

The provisions for technical and vocational education in Trinidad and Tobago are surprisingly low when one considers that even before 1974 the country had a substantial industrial sector in petroleum and manufacturing. There are only two technical institutes at Port of Spain - The John Donaldson Technical Institute, and at San Fernando - the San Fernando Technical Institute. Both offer 2-year full-time day programmes, 3-year part-time programmes, day release and short term courses leading to the National Technician Diploma and the National Craft Certificate or its equivalent. Courses offered at these institutions include business education and management, distributive education and management, graphic and applied arts, home economics, electrical engineering, mechanical and building engineering.

The Point Fortin Vocational Centre prepares students for craft level certification. Five youth camps and six trade centres complete the public provision for this sector. They prepare students for the Craftsman's Assistant Certificate.

The Eastern Caribbean Institute of Agriculture and Forestry provides 2-year programmes for the training of agricultural officers and forestry officers drawn from Trinidad and Tobago and the Eastern Caribbean.

Teacher Training

A 2-year teacher education programme for the primary sector is currently conducted at five colleges, viz: Mausica Teachers College, Corinth Teachers College, Port of Spain Teachers College, Government Teachers College and Catholic Women's Teachers College, with a total annual output of 630 teachers. The Government plans to reduce the number of training centres to two large institutions by September 1979; the new Teachers College at Valsayn and Corinth Teachers College. It is anticipated that by September 1981 the back-log of untrained teachers in the system will be completely eliminated. From then onwards the two institutions of teacher education will address themselves to the task of re-training and in-service training of teachers.

Tertiary Level

The St. Augustine campus of the University of the West Indies provides students at this level of the education system with study, training and research facilities to pursue under-graduate and post-graduate courses in the following

disciplines; agriculture, arts and general studies; engineering, law, natural science and social sciences. Graduates of the arts, social sciences and natural science faculties are being absorbed into the local teaching service and the secondary level as graduate teachers, but within recent years provisions have been made for in-service training of graduate personnel to up-grade their professional competence. Plans are also under consideration for the inclusion of education as a component of first degrees in the arts and natural science faculties.

Finance

In the absence of more up-to-date information, I further quote from "Education and Development in the English Speaking Caribbean: A contemporary survey" by L. D. Carrington (October 1978).

"Trinidad and Tobago's expenditure in 1976 was TT 270.6 million and represented 13.3 per cent of the country's total expenditure. Given that 75 per cent of this was allocated to salaries, the provision is not as healthy as it first appears. Since the secondary sector is so large and the new programmes require a high equipment maintenance and replacement cost, the financial allocations per institution approach subsistence levels. The Government is however conscious of this short coming and in the school year 1977/78 a specific allocation was made for maintenance and supply of the secondary sector at a substantially higher level than previously."

THE EDUCATION SYSTEM IN ST. VINCENT

Introduction

St. Vincent's education system is comparatively uncomplicated both in terms of provision for education and in terms of the personnel who execute policy and implement programmes.

Legislation and Administration

The Education Ordinance of St. Vincent 1937, with certain amendments, is still the principal law relating to education in the state. A new Education Act has been drafted, scrutinized by the Board of Education and should soon be placed before the House of Assembly for the necessary legislative procedures before becoming law.

The Minister of Education, Youth Affairs and Sports is ultimately responsible for all educational matters.

The Chief Education Officer and Accounting Officer, the administrative and professional head of the Ministry is responsible to the Minister for the administration of the system. He also functions as adviser to the Government on all matters pertaining to education. Other senior officers appointed to the Ministry are three education officers, nine organisers and a music officer. The organisers are subject specialists and carry out curriculum supervision only.

A dual system of education still exists in St. Vincent. The chief denominations which co-operate with Government in the management of schools are Anglicans, Methodists and Roman Catholics. Each denomination has its own Board of Management, under the existing ordinance. The Minister of Education

in consultation with the Board of Education and subject to the approval of the Governor in the House of Assembly, makes regulations which govern the general management of schools.

The Cabinet is the governing body of the two government secondary schools and teachers in these schools are considered to be civil servants, that is to say, they function under civil service orders and not under the teachers' regulations. The assisted secondary schools have their own Boards of Management with the Ministry of Education being represented on each Board. Other advisory bodies are:

- (a) The Teacher Education Advisory Committee
- (b) The Technical Education Advisory Council

Government Maintained Schools

Education in the state is provided in

- (a) 61 Primary Schools
- (b) 6 New Secondary Schools
- (c) 11 Traditional Secondary Schools
- (d) 4 Pupil Teachers' Training Centres
- (e) 1 Technical College
- (f) 1 Teachers' College

Primary Education

Of the 61 primary schools, 39 are state-owned and 22 are church schools, with 9 being Anglican, 11 Methodist and 2 Roman Catholic. The payment of salaries of all primary school teachers, and the supply of all furniture and other essential school equipment are met out of public funds. Primary education is free and non-compulsory.

Primary schools are staffed at the beginning of the school year on the average attendances of pupils for the previous year. The allocation is as follows:

Headteachers	20
Qualified Assistant Teachers	40
Probationary Assistant Teachers	35
Student Teachers	30
Pupil Teachers	25

The nomenclature used to indicate qualification of teachers is:

- (a) Head Teacher
- (b) Qualified Assistant Teachers - college trained

(c) Unqualified Assistant Teachers

(i) Probationary Assistants

One who has passed four subjects including English language at the GCE 'O' Level examinations.

(ii) Student Teachers

One who has less than four GCE 'O' Level passes or who has passed the local Grade III Pupil Teachers Examination.

(iii) Pupil Teachers

Those at lower levels of preparation.

Secondary Education

Education at the secondary level is provided in senior departments of all-age primary schools, new secondary schools, traditional secondary schools and pupil teacher centres. Admission of students to traditional secondary schools is based on the result of the Common Entrance Examination conducted by the Ministry of Education.

The two government owned older secondary schools are non-fee paying. The assisted secondary schools are grant-aided. Government pays one teacher for every 35 pupils on roll up to a maximum of eight teachers, three of whom could be graduates, three qualified teachers and two unqualified teachers. Each assisted secondary school has its own Board of Governors.

Before any assisted secondary school can receive assistance from public funds, it must satisfy certain basic qualifications. The school must:

- (a) Be subject to inspection by the Ministry of Education.
- (b) Admit pupils without discrimination on grounds of religion, colour or race.
- (c) Present estimates and certified accounts showing how the aid is to be spent.
- (d) Satisfy certain minimum standards of accommodation, lighting, ventilation, seating, numbers and quality of staff.

Technical/Vocational Education

All the new secondary schools are equipped with facilities for teaching woodwork, metal work, technical drawing and home economics.

Senior departments of all-age primary schools are provided with industrial arts and home economic rooms for use in the teaching of these subjects to pupils of the 12 plus to 15 age group.

The Technical Centre, Kingstown, provides tuition for 12 plus to 15-year old pupils of the Kingstown primary and secondary schools in industrial arts and the Kingstown Home Economics Centre for pupils in the same area in that subject.

The Technical College provides training in technical/vocational subjects at the craft and technician levels.

Teacher Training

Teacher training is carried on at the four Pupil Teachers' Centres and at the Teachers' College. There are two channels of entry into the teaching profession:

- (a) Through the pupil teacher system.
- (b) Through direct entry by graduates of secondary schools.

Persons who hold the Primary School Leaving Certificate or its equivalent may be employed as pupil teachers. Pupil teachers are allowed to attend at the training centres for two days each week to receive instruction for the Pupil Teachers' Examinations. They are expected to pass two examinations:

- (a) The First Pupil Teachers' Examination.
- (b) The Final Pupil Teachers' Examination.

On passing the final examination they are promoted to student teachers. Failure on two successive occasions at any one examination results in the termination of the service of the teacher.

Student teachers attend Saturday and evening classes in preparation for the GCE 'O' Level examination. Success in at least four subjects including English language entitles them to be promoted to the grade of Probationary Assistant Teacher.

Probationers are qualified to enter the Teachers' College to pursue the 2-year course leading to the Teachers' Certificate of Qualification.

Adult Education

The Ministry of Education conducts evening classes for adults leading to the GCE 'O' Level examination. The Technical Centre and Technical College conduct evening classes in technical subjects. The Extra-Mural Department of the University of the West Indies carries on various courses, seminars and workshops from time to time as the need arises.

Curriculum Development

Curriculum development in co-operation with, and often funded by the School of Education, UNESCO, CIDA AND USAID have been on-going from time to time in various subjects. There is presently one project being carried on in social studies.

Maintenance of School Buildings

General repair to school buildings are undertaken by the Public Works Ministry and new schools are built subject to the availability of funds. New items of furniture are supplied to the schools according to their needs.

Special Education

The School for the Blind is run by the Blind Welfare Association. Government assists by providing a subvention. The school for children with special needs run by volunteers caters for other handicapped children. Government provides two teachers to assist in this school.

Examinations

The Ministry of Education arranges for and conducts on behalf of external examining bodies, certain examinations. These include the Cambridge GCE 'O' Level and the London GCE 'O' Level examinations and the Caribbean Examination Council Examinations. The Ministry also arranges for and conducts local examinations such as The Primary School Leaving Examination, The Common Entrance Examination and The Pupil Teachers' Examinations.

THE DUTIES OF A PRINCIPAL OF AN ALL AGE PRIMARY SCHOOL IN DOMINICA

1. To supervise and direct the general running of the school.
2. To see to the implementation of syllabuses and other directives sent from the Ministry of Education.
3. To prepare syllabuses in subject areas where these are not provided.
4. To see to the safety and general welfare of the students during school hours.
5. To direct supervise and assist the staff in their various teaching and other duties.
6. To maintain an acceptable level of discipline among pupils and staff.
7. To see to the maintenance of the school plant, equipment and facilities.
8. To keep records of attendance of both staff and pupils and to make weekly, termly and annual summaries of these.
9. To report on any irregular incidents or events both in a log book and/or to the ministry.
10. To assess competence of individual members of staff.

THE DUTIES OF AN EDUCATION OFFICER IN ST VINCENT

As an Education Officer my duties and responsibilities within the Ministry include:

- (i) Staff Personnel - Recruitment and appointment of unqualified teachers of Primary and New Secondary Schools.
- (ii) Teacher Training - Conducting pre-service and in-service training of teachers.
- (iii) Curriculum - Assisting Teachers in schools in organising units of work. Preparing source materials and notes for the guidance of teachers.
- (iv) Adviser - Advising principals in all aspects of their work.
- (v) Assisting with local and external examinations.
- (vi) Ensuring that the physical facilities are adequate.
- (vii) Preparation of educational statistics and processing same for the information of external and other agencies, on request. Preparation of annual and triennial summaries and reports.
- (viii) Serving on Schools Examination Committee of the Carribean Examinations Council, The Board of Education, The Nursing Selection and Training Committee and the National Nursing Council.
- (ix) Assisting the Chief Education Officer with administrative duties as the need arises.

Composite case study

The study 'To Apply or Not to Apply' attempts to draw out in particular the philosophy of education which guides the reader or participant to a training exercise. It is a basis for quickly establishing respective viewpoints and relating these to ones actual home situation. The questions at the end of the study provide one set of guidelines for making the most of the exercise.

John Ford was Senior Education Officer for Antevivis, a one time British colony, in the Commonwealth Caribbean. He had served the Education Department and, since independence, the Ministry of Education for many years. His career began as a pupil teacher in a primary school in 1942 at the age of 17. Subsequently, he worked his way up to a Class 1 trained assistant master, to deputy headmaster and then headmaster, first of a small primary school and then of a large urban primary school. He reached this last position by the time that he was twenty eight years of age. After five years as a headmaster, he received a government scholarship to follow a general degree course in mathematics and science at the University of the West Indies. On his return to Antevivis in 1962 he was made Education Officer. With the expansion of the system in the nineteen sixties three Assistant Education Officers were appointed. Eventually John Ford was promoted to the post of Senior Education Officer five years ago.

The Chief Education Officer was about to retire and John Ford was considering whether or not he should apply for the post. He was now fifty three and could retire at fifty five with the option of staying on until sixty.

His first reaction was to put in an application for the post since he felt that he might find it intolerable to work under one of the new "whipper snappers" as Chief Education Officer. He had worked very well under the retiring Chief Education Officer, Herbert Small, who never really interfered with him and let him get on with his work. The friendship between Herbie and himself went back years - Herbie was his senior at college - and while they did not always see eye-to-eye on professional matters Herbie respected his judgement and never forced him to do something with which he disagreed.

He began to assess the reasons why he should or should not apply for Herbie's job. He was happily married, comfortable, owned his own house and did not have a mortgage payment round his neck. He had three children; the eldest boy had finished secondary school and had won a scholarship to do law at UWI. His second son was finishing secondary school and was also likely to win a scholarship to UWI. He wanted to become an accountant. His last child, a girl, was attending a grammar school and doing quite well. So his material circumstances were such that he did not have to worry. But he was apprehensive of the possibility that if he did not apply for the position and a junior person was appointed he might have an uncomfortable time during his last few years in the Ministry. So he began to delve deeper into his own feelings as to why he was not over-anxious to apply for the post. While he could live comfortably on his salary it would, he felt, be nice if he could end his career at the apex of the hierarchy. In fact, when he originally became an Education Officer he looked forward to the day when he might be made the Chief Education Officer.

Although he did not always agree with some of the recent changes in education he considered himself still fairly competent, and able to do the job. So why was he so hesitant to apply for the job? He began to think..... Oh yes, in the older days the Director of Education and his Education Officer really had some power to initiate changes in and make a solid contribution to the field of education. Now, he was no longer in the same position. The Minister of Education made all the policy decisions sometimes against the professional advice of the Chief Education Officer and sometimes even without consulting him. The Permanent Secretary - an appointment from the administrative branch of the Civil Service - was in charge of all the funds. He could not even make any decision which involved expenditure without it first being cleared with the Permanent Secretary. Even if he had to spend some funds in carrying out his job such as paying for travel and subsistence, he had to have it approved by a clerk - the finance officer - before the Treasury

would pay him. "What indignity!!", he thought. The Permanent Secretary had maintained that since he was technically responsible for expenditure of all funds the final authority for spending money must rest with him, even when he had the power to delegate this responsibility to a finance officer. This he felt made the administration of education much more difficult since it took away crucial areas of decision making from the professional officers and gave them to "clerks" who have no professional training as educators. "A slap in the face of the education officers", he thought. Or as he put it even less succinctly "making us clerks of our former clerks".

Another thing that added to his discomfort was the increasing involvement of politics in professional decisions about education. All the new appointments which had taken place during and after the mid 1960s were, in his view, political appointments, since the Minister virtually hand picked officers. However, he had to admit that they were keen, hard-working individuals although with their pet educational theories dealing with such issues as education and cultural deprivation and behavioural objectives he felt that they had their heads in the clouds. In the good old days when he carried out an inspection of a school, if he did nothing else, he tried to assess the students' level of performance in each grade in the 3R's. These he considered to be the building blocks of a sound academic programme and needed to be re-emphasised rather than the "frills" which were creeping into the curriculum. These were the areas which would determine whether a child would do well in the secondary school.

John Ford also argued that little or no attention was being paid to such areas as good discipline, a tidy school, and the use of school uniform to help children to develop a pride in their school. He could not see the value of all these new-fangled ideas and the "mumbo jumbo" jargon that went with them; establishing behavioural objectives, balancing the needs of both idiographic and nomothetic dimensions in administration, organisational climate and innovatory supervisory practices.

In previous times, matters were much simpler and issues not obfuscated by language. When you needed a headmaster for a school, you selected the best man available and let him get on with the job. In fact, you made sure you got the best man for the job by his long period of apprenticeship. First, he had to serve for some years as a classroom teacher before he was promoted to deputy head. If he did the job well he was later considered for the headship of a small school. Later, as he proved himself he was promoted to even higher levels. Now there is too much "molly-coddling" of staff. The Education Officers do not even give a good head-teacher a chance to be himself and do the best possible job. They are always around the schools with some half-baked ideas of theirs which they did not get a chance to try out because they were not long enough on the job as headmasters.

If they were not around to see the headmaster they were listening to some complaint by a teacher. When I was an inspector of schools, he thought, we considered the headmaster's job to be to deal with his teachers. If the headmaster could not handle his teachers then it was his problem and a sign of his weakness as an administrator. You gave him a job to do and held him accountable for it. No ifs, buts or excuses.

But while he had not changed his views on the administrative process he did find it necessary to keep abreast of the current jargon in education since all these consultants and advisers flying around the place seemed to be caught up in the same world of words.

But there were other developments which came in the wake of self government and independence with which he could not agree. He put these broadly under the heading "politicisation of education". Schools, he argued, existed to teach people

to read, write, calculate, learn chemistry, mathematics, etc. In short, to educate. This should therefore be done in the best possible professional manner by professional educators. The politicisation of education was, he thought, at the root of the deterioration in standards.

First, the policy makers wanted the schools to teach all kinds of subjects which they considered necessary for national political development. In fact, almost every subject must have a political dimension. When would they learn that you teach history as history and not as a means of political indoctrination.

He recalled that he had recently heard what he considered to be a most backward step being contemplated and supported by some of the professional officers of the Ministry, namely, allowing children to speak in their local dialect or patois in schools. "What next will these jokers think about?" How are you going to get on in life unless you can speak and write proper English - the Queen's English? Books for advanced studies are not written in the local dialect or patois and those who want to allow such speech in schools would only be jeopardising the future of the children and especially those who are going abroad to study.

Another point that worried him was increasing political influence in the appointment of educational personnel, even the senior administrative staff. This he argued could do nothing to help the cause of education. He recalled last year that the Ministry had appointed a new headmaster to a village school. The gentleman was there for only a term and the villagers asked for his transfer because of some excuse they gave the Minister. Before you know it, the gentleman was transferred. "How could people have confidence in you?" he questioned. "If the man was not competent and not producing results you could understand. But he did not have a chance to prove whether he could run a good school or not."

All the politicians seemed to encourage people to complain about the work of government officers including teachers and this led to increased political interference in education. True, Mr Ford argued, when parents have a grievance against a teacher they should complain. But they should complain either to the headmaster or the education officer or some other professional officer - not to the politicians, at least not in the first instance, and the politicians who are always encouraging them to complain to them are only undermining the professional integrity of the headmaster and the teachers.

However, he did see the need for increased community participation in the activities of the schools which politicians had been encouraging. "But", said he, "I draw the line when you give them the idea that they can contribute to the professional work of the school such as the development of curriculum". He thought that the major activity of the community should be to help the staff of the school find resources and raise funds to assist teachers increase their effectiveness in teaching. Raising funds for school libraries was an excellent way for a community to help its school. Similarly, children should be sent to school regularly and on time. But to give them ideas that they can contribute to the management of the school or to the instructional programme was patently unprofessional and should not be encouraged by the politicians.

Just as bad or even worse was the idea that students (God forbid), especially those in the secondary grades, should be involved in decision-making about school policy. Once you do that the whole structure of discipline in the schools would collapse. What did students know about these things? They come to school to learn and the teachers are there to teach them. You could not try to change this basic fact without upsetting the whole school and creating serious problems of order and discipline.

On the positive side, he saw that the assumption of political responsibility for education by elected members of government was very good for the people. It resulted in a marked increase in the provision of educational services for all sections of the population. Most noticeable was the expansion of secondary and tertiary education which gave many poor boys and girls a chance to get the best education possible - irrespective of the fact that their parents were poor. He was proud to see all the top posts in the government service and to a lesser extent the private sector held by local boys and girls, some of whom he knew had come from modest backgrounds.

But he deplored the idea which seemed to have been gaining acceptance in the Ministry that you can provide good education cheaply. He remembered his own school days when the secondary school he attended was well equipped with playgrounds, a library, a music room, four laboratories and other facilities. Today, some of these, he felt, were regarded as "extras" and not enough provision was made for them. Also, the staff-student ratio was declining and he was sure that this resulted in a poorer standard of work. In the grammar school which he attended the staff-student ratio was about 1:20. Now the secondary schools had one teacher to thirty or even thirty-five children, and these new Education Officers were saying that the size of class does not adversely affect standards. What arrant nonsense!! Anyone who had taught in a school knew better.

So there was still a lot to do to prevent standards from falling - in fact, to maintain and improve present standards. He felt that if by not applying he allowed one of the "young Turks" to take over as Chief Education Officer of Anteviv standards would begin to fall even more rapidly. Then again, he wondered if the fight that he might have to put up to prevent further slippage in academic standards was worth it.

Group Assignment

- (1) Identify what are the main elements of Mr Ford's views or philosophy of education.
- (2) Discuss each of these views and indicate whether or not you agree with them and why.
- (3) How far do you think his own background has influenced his views?
- (4) What are his major objections to what he calls the increasing "politicisation of education".

Do you agree with these? Give reasons.

- (5) In what ways do you think Mr Ford's views about who should be responsible for educational decision-making sound or unsound?
- (6) Identify the problems which Mr Ford saw as existing between the professional and the technical section of the Ministry.

What are the sources of these problems?

Do these problems exist in the Ministry of Education in which you work?

How are they overcome?

- (7) What are Mr Ford's views on leadership?

Do you share them?

If your views differ from his; in what ways do they differ?

(8) Do you agree with Mr Ford's views on school/community relationship? If not; how does your view differ from his?

A Case Study Based Upon Statistical Evidence and Policy Statements

Participants were provided with abstracts from National Plans and Annual Reports and on the basis of this evidence were asked to examine ways by which the efficiency of the system could be improved especially in relation to cost. Two background papers on the economics of education were provided

Background

Formerly a British Colony. Date of Independence; 1966. There is universal primary education. Formerly provision made for all children between the ages of 5 and 14; now provision extended to all children between ages 3 and 16 including the handicapped. Education is free in all Government institutions from primary to tertiary. Bus fares are subsidised for all school children in primary and all age schools. Secondary school children receive all text books for which a nominal payment of BD\$5 per child per annum is paid.

Government education policy

The policy of the present Government for educational development is contained in the Education Manifesto with which it went to the polls in 1976. The principle features of the Manifesto are:

- (a) The provision of educational facilities for children between the ages of 3 and 5, making maximum use of Day Care Centres.
- (b) The reform of school curricula to permit the teaching of subjects relevant to the country's needs as a developing society. For example, agriculture must be taught in the schools.
- (c) The upgrading of educational facilities to cater to the development of the full personality of the student.
- (d) The decentralisation of technical and vocational education and the relating of such education to national manpower demands.
- (e) The empowering of schools to market within their immediate communities the commodities produced by the students.
- (f) A programme for making the entire educational system co-educational.
- (g) The abolition of the Common Entrance Examination (11+).
- (h) The raising of the school leaving age to 16.

- (i) The expansion of teacher training facilities.
- (j) The construction of schools until all children of school age, including the handicapped, are provided for in the public system.
- (k) The appointment of a Careers Guidance Officer in every secondary school.
- (l) Support for the continued development of the University of the West Indies.
- (m) The abolition of fee paying and other discriminatory provisions against students of law at the University of the West Indies and at the law schools run by the Council of Legal Education.
- (n) The expansion of the scholarship programme in areas of national demand.
- (o) The provision of free uniforms for school children.
- (p) The expansion of the Schools Meals Service to embrace the entire country.

Exercise

In the light of the stated policy and using the basic data provided, indicate any measures which might be taken to improve the efficiency of the system, especially as it relates to cost.

The exercise may be approached through a series of related questions.

- 1 What should be the main objectives and functions of the educational system and its constituent sub-systems?
- 2 Which is the best of the alternative ways of meeting the objectives and the functions?
- 3 How much of the nation's resources should be devoted to education at the expense of other things? What are realistic limits to real and financial resources? What level of resources can education effectively absorb in a given time period?
- 4 Who should pay? How should the burden of educational cost and sacrifice be distributed between the direct recipients of education and society at large and amongst the different groups in society? Is the present fiscal structure and other sources of educational revenue well adapted to attaining a socially desirable distribution of the burden and at the same time ensure a sufficient flow of necessary income to education?
- 5 How should the total resources available to education be allocated among different levels, types and components of the system?

Basic Sets of Data Available to Course Participants

1. Basic background data - area, population growth rates,

- unemployment rates.
- 2. National financial information
 - current and capital expenditure by Government.
 - capital expenditure by Ministry.
 - gross domestic product by sector.
 - gross domestic product per capita.
- 3. Educational financial information
 - total Government expenditure on education & as a percentage of gross domestic product.
 - current and capital educational expenditure per annum.
 - Ministry of Education's current expenditure by major sub-sectors.
 - Ministry of Education's capital expenditure by major sub-sectors.
 - unit costs at different levels of the education system.
- 4. Educational information
 - educational enrolment at all levels by grade and by sex.
 - crude flow rates at the primary level.
 - teachers - numbers and qualifications.
 - structure of the formal education system.
 - examination candidates and passes.

The Economics of Education at the National Level

Economics is the study of how people, and more importantly SOCIETY chooses to allocate the resources at its disposal in order to achieve its chosen objectives. Economics is about scarcity and the implications of this fact for every day behaviour, both at the personal and national level. Where there is an unlimited resource of any product, the product becomes economically insignificant e.g. sand in the Sahara.

In any country today government has a very wide variety of activities and among these is that of controlling the economic progress of the country. Also, government is interested in social services, of which education is generally said to be one, and in defence. Some countries have foreign aid interests, or nationalised industries, while elsewhere the government may be especially concerned with subsidising agriculture. In order to pay for all of these different activities, the government receives revenue from various sources, mostly taxes and duties on goods and services. The government usually regards its income as limited to the receipts from its various taxes. It treats this income as the amount of money it has to spend in providing the services that it offers the people. Thus the government has an expenditure limit and hence faces the problem of limited resources with which to achieve its different objectives. It is necessary to consider our special interests, education, in the light of this basic fact of scarcity of resources.

The various reasons why government is interested in spending money on education are well-known. There is public demand to be satisfied, there is the need of the economy for skilled and qualified manpower, and there is the built-in momentum of the educational system itself, such that once it is established it has to be maintained. All of this is true and it provides a powerful set of reasons for spending money on education. But equally there are very good reasons for the government to spend money in other directions.

People have to be provided with housing. Agricultural development must be fostered especially in a predominantly agricultural country.

So the government has to make a basic decision in the first place whether to spend money on education or whether to spend it on other activities. Beyond this we come to all the details of what must be the exact content of such an educational policy. Here again, it is necessary to choose between different alternatives, since invariably people want to do more than they can. However, notice that already a wider ranging decision has been taken than simply the one to spend money on education, because by deciding to spend money on education we also decide not to spend money on certain other things on which it could have been spent. So although it seems a very simple decision just to spend on education, actually it is a whole lot of decisions including the social and political.

Within the educational system choices have to be made in the first place, say, between spending more on primary education and less on secondary or perhaps more on higher education. This is an economic choice because, for example, it is more expensive to expand secondary education by a given amount than it is to similarly expand primary education. Secondary education needs better qualified teachers so they have to be paid higher wages, or, since more equipment is needed in a secondary school than in a primary school, the school becomes more expensive. Also the educational system itself has certain built-in limitations. Thus secondary education can only be expanded as fast as additional teachers can be provided for it and of course there is a limited capacity for teacher training.

However, it is not only economic factors which affect this decision-making. There is very strong public interest in education and the public may want certain kinds of education and be perhaps less interested in others, so this has to be taken into account in making decisions on how to develop the educational system. Similarly, once educational facilities are in operation they usually have to be kept in operation and this necessitates restricting part of the resources allowed for education to maintaining what already exists. Therefore, there is less available for future expansion and this in turn is another limitation on the freedom of decision, on the economic choices.

This comes down to recognising that although it is not only economic influences which affect our educational choices, all these decisions on education, these planning decisions, partake of the basic characteristic of economics, namely, the need to make choices within the limitations of scarce resources. Thus it can be said that planning is only a specially disciplined type of economic decision where we have particular objectives in mind.

Concepts

There are certain fundamental economic concepts which are relevant to the problem of making choices when we try to behave economically in dealing with the educational system. They are: (1) Investment; (2) Savings; (3) Consumption; and (4) Production.

For economists, saving is not just hoarding. It is not simply a case of holding money and keeping it under the bed, but something more positive. Saving is the decision to abstain from consumption now with the expectation of being able to consume more later, whereas of course keeping money under the bed is simply postponing spending it.

A very simple illustration will help to bring out some of the particular characteristics of the concepts of saving and investment. Consider a society of the most primitive kind which exists only by hunting, so that life is basically the hunt for animals which provide food. Suppose for some reason that hunting becomes more difficult as there are fewer animals around. The hunter decides to develop a simple aid to help him, such as a primitive spear. Previously his whole time was devoted only to consumption but now he has to pause from hunting in order to make the spear. For economists the act of making the spear represents both a process of saving and also of investment. It is saving because while the hunter is making the tool he has to stop hunting, which means that for that period he is foregoing potential consumption, although with the objective of being able to consume more later. However, this is also considered to be investment, because by making the tool the hunter increases his hunting capacity, and therefore his future productivity in terms of the numbers of animals he can hope to catch, which in turn implies increased future consumption. The principle to be brought out from this example is that for economists there is an identity between savings and investment.

Making the tool was both saving and investment, but in the context of this example hoarding would simply be deciding not to hunt thereby postponing the possibility of consumption for a day. So there is an important difference between saving and hoarding in economics.

The identity of savings and investment was very obvious in the example, but of course in modern economics life is far more complex, it is not always clear that there is this identity between savings and investment, especially when we recognise that in present day society the two activities of saving and investment are frequently carried out by different people who have quite different motivations.

1. Investment

In economics, investment refers only to net capital formation, i.e. the act of increasing the community's stock of reproductive capacity. An important aspect of investment is that it always involves some kind of innovation. That does not mean that every time a factory is built it has to be a new kind of factory, because simply building an existing type of factory in a new location is an investment since it creates a new situation for economic behaviour. A further corollary of this concept of investment is that we exclude the simple replacement or maintenance of the existing productive capacity. In economics the terminology that is commonly used to describe such replacement is provision for depreciation.

Thus investment is undertaken by the producers in society, which means enterprises of different kinds in agriculture, industry and of course government. In the case of enterprises their motivation in undertaking investment is clear enough. They expect to make a new product, or sell an old product more widely, and so to make higher profits. In the case of government the motives for investment may be somewhat more obscure and diverse. For example, much of government investment is in developing social services. These do not produce a physical product to be sold in the market, but they can contribute to the productive capacity of the community, e.g. education expenditure potentially increases the skill of the labour force. This can help the economic policies of the government and in turn improve its political position, so we can see that there is a wide variety of possible motives for the government to choose to invest in its different

activities.

2. Saving

The concept of saving has a restricted meaning in economics by which it excludes hoarding and simply postpones consumption. We only count as saving that which involves withholding from current consumption in order to have more future consumption. In terms of everyday life this distinction may sound a little artificial but in economics it is an important one.

In the case of enterprises there is an obvious motive for such saving relating to the motives we have referred to in their choosing to invest for increased future profits. In the case of individuals, however, motives for saving can be extremely varied, e.g. they may wish to buy a car or take a long vacation or perhaps they have a longer term aim such as wanting to ensure a more comfortable old age. But in each case the point which characterises this activity is the desire to increase future income rather than simply to retain the existing income for use at some later time.

This point is a complex one to make clear because the economic use of the term saving is decidedly narrower than the everyday use of the term.

3. Consumption

The concepts of consumption and production also have some importance in educational planning. Consumption is a term about which not much needs to be said because economists use the term consumption simply in much the same way as it is used in everyday conversation. Consumption simply represents the disposal of the rest of income apart from that which is saved. Hoarding is included in consumption since hoarding is only delaying the purchase of goods and services for current satisfaction.

4. Production

In the economic sense this is the total output of goods and services resulting from previous investment. This is an obvious statement but it contains a complication. Part of the output of one enterprise very often represents part of the investment input into another enterprise. One of the objectives of the educational system is to produce trained teachers who can hence be regarded as part of the output of the educational system. But trained teachers are also a very important input in the educational system because they help in the production of the qualified school leavers who are another important output of the educational system. It is comparatively easy to assess the gross production of a country but it is much more difficult to calculate the net production, since this involves excluding all products which are used in the further production as investments, because to establish net production it is only necessary to count the value added at each stage of production.

Applications of the Concepts to Educational Planning

Education can be treated as both consumption and investment if considered from the individual's point of view. When someone receives education it fits him in a wide variety of ways for what can be called to use the simplest terms - a better life. He has greater access to culture, he can read

newspapers and so on, and this represents an increase in his consumption possibilities. But also from this individual's point of view such education is an investment in that it provides him with better qualifications for employment or better capacity to absorb further training. In this way he can develop his future earning capacity and potentially his living standards as well. This is considering education only from the individual recipient's viewpoint, but investment in educational development is very important from the national point of view for economic growth, mainly because of the possibility offered of increasing the supply of qualified manpower.

These general comments on investment and consumption in relation to education are fairly self-evident, but in going beyond them it is necessary to recognize that the detailed application of these concepts in educational planning has not been entirely successful so far. It has created a great many problems for educational planners which are still far from solved

These concepts are difficult to measure when used in relation to education. Although education has both investment significance and a consumption significance it is very difficult in practice to identify one part of education as having primarily the investment effect and another part primarily the consumption effect. If we said that a history lesson is a consumption aspect of education and a mathematics lesson an investment aspect this is obviously a very over-simplified and unrealistic way of trying to approach the problem of separating the consumption and investment effects. Although the different effects of education can be distinguished, they cannot be linked to particular types of education, so it is difficult to be specific in trying to allocate resources to education say for its investment effect or for its consumption effect.

There is also the question of trying to identify the rate of return to expenditure on education. In the case of physical investment, a monetary value can be given to the resultant output, but what value can be given to the output of education, educated people, especially when we take into account the consumption aspects of the education received? The differential earnings of the better educated are a limited guide in this instance.

When we go a little more deeply into educational planning these questions become much more complex. Thus, in making a choice between developing different types of education we might ask what are the relative contributions to economic growth of emphasizing technical and vocational education or emphasizing general secondary education. To put emphasis on technical and vocational education may mean immediately a better supply of certain types of skilled workers. But emphasizing general secondary education may improve pupils' capacity for and their receptivity to further training. In this way it may be possible to create a greater flexibility in the future labour force than if we only endeavour to train people very specifically for certain technical positions. This indicated a fundamental difficulty in human resource development. Do we only try to educate people to fit them into some pre-conceived employment pattern, which might be regarded as a strict manpower approach, or alternatively are we trying to educate people so that they can bring to future society their particular abilities and offer their full capacities for the continuing development of society?

Finally we must refer briefly to the concepts of saving and production and their significance in educational planning. We spoke of savings as having an identity with investment. From the individual's viewpoint whenever he continues his education beyond any compulsory level he has to make some kind of saving to support this. This might be through the form of income he

foregoes in not starting work earlier, or through using personal resources which he could otherwise consume. If he is supported by some kind of government grant, the government undertakes the saving in order to make the investment of providing more education. Thus when government undertakes a programme of educational investment it also has to make a saving decision since in choosing to invest certain resources it thereby precludes the possibility of allowing those resources to go into consumption, for example, through making a reduction in taxes.

The significance of the production concept in educational planning refers to our earlier example of the characteristics of teachers in the educational programme, in that they are both an input and an output. This can be extended to a further level if we consider the need to produce people who will staff teacher training colleges. They are an output of the educational system but then they are also an input which in turn will help create something else, teachers, which is again both an input and an output of the system. Thus the question of gross and net production can become quite complex even within the educational system.

Having looked very briefly at the economics of education at the national level, at some definitions of some of the fundamental concepts that can be applied to the economics of education, it should be realised that educational planning is the technique used to make the best use of the scarce resources devoted to education.

The Allocation of Scarce Resources

There are three decisions which have to be made:

- (1) The determination of the total amount of resources to be devoted to education.
- (2) The allocation of this total between levels or types of education.
- (3) The choice between specific projects.

The educational planner should have provided the information on which the first decision was taken, that is, the determination of the total amount of resources to be devoted to education. This amount will reflect the priority which the government and the society place upon education.

If we think of this distinction between consumption and investment when considering why governments spend money on education, it is obvious that education is regarded as both a type of consumption and investment. People want schools sometimes, as they want TV sets - as a status symbol. They want their children to learn to read because they will enjoy life more as a result. These are just some of the consumption benefits of education. But education is also a form of investment in human capital. Future levels of production are not dependent simply on labour and physical capital - but on technical knowledge and the skills of the labour force - and these are provided by education. So the answer to the question 'Is education consumption or investment?' is simply, both.

Having accepted the allocations of the national pie, the educational planner has to make two other decisions - how to allocate the total between different levels or types of education and following this, to make the choice between specific activities.

There are three approaches which planners can use in attempting to solve the problems of how to allocate scarce resources in the present so as to maximise benefits in the future. They are:

- (1) the 'social demand' approach.
- (2) the 'man-power forecasting' approach.
- (3) the 'cost-benefit analysis' approach.

1. Social Demand

The 'social demand' approach rests heavily on forecasts of the private demand for education and is more concerned with the consumption than the investment aspects of education. This approach in fact treats education as a service demanded by the community - just like any other goods and services and regards educational planning as the process of forecasting demand, and providing sufficient places to satisfy the demand. The simplest version of such an approach has been in use for a very long time - attempting to forecast demographic trends in order to estimate the school population. But when it comes to forecasting the demand for higher education, a more sophisticated way of forecasting demand is needed. A recent example of the social demand approach to planning higher education was the Robbins Committee, in Britain.

What then are the strengths and weaknesses of the approach? First, it does provide the educational planner with a precise target of the number of places to be provided. But only by assuming that a lot of factors remain constant; that standards of entry, for instance, remain constant and that the price of education, in terms of the level of fees and scholarships remain constant, and finally that the level of employment remains constant and all the graduates are absorbed into the economy. In other words, the social demand approach shows how much must be allocated to a level of education if present trends continue, and if private demand is to be satisfied, but it does not claim to show that this is the 'optimum' allocation of resources. As an approach, it perhaps deserves the name 'forecasting' rather than 'planning'.

2. Manpower Forecasting

The two other approaches, which are concerned to seek the optimum allocation of resources are concerned with education as investment, rather than consumption. Methods of forecasting the manpower requirements of a economy vary - and may use international comparisons of the ratio between educated manpower and output, or may be based on analysis and extrapolation of trends and manpower utilisation patterns in different industries, or on mathematical model of the economy based on constant or changing co-efficients between manpower and output. But the basic rationale of the approach is to forecast the manpower 'needs' of the economy - that is the number and distribution of trained people in the labour force that would be required to produce a given output in a certain year - and then to match the educational system with the manpower needs of the economy. This approach has an immediate attraction, particularly for developing countries. It is well known that a shortage of trained workers represents one of the major constraints to economic growth and that if the educational system can be planned so as to produce just the right numbers, surely this can be regarded as an optimum allocation of resources? Even if it were possible to predict accurately the manpower needs of an economy, educational planning based entirely on manpower

would be at an optimum in only one sense, and would neglect the other aims of education such as social and political development. But concentrating for the moment only on the manpower aspects, is it in fact possible to forecast manpower needs?

The important word in that sentence is 'needs'. If it is assumed that a economy has certain 'needs' in an absolute sense, then it may be possible, though very difficult, to predict the need for physical capital, educated manpower and unskilled manpower. Such a view of absolute 'needs' implies that these three factors will be used in fixed proportions to produce a certain level of output. But if these factors are to some extent interchangeable, or in economic terms substitutable then the same level of output could be produced with different combinations of inputs, and in this case the optimum allocation of resources depends on the price of each factor.

This means that manpower forecasting becomes even more difficult - not only are there the problems of predicting technical change and new methods of production, but also the added difficulties of analysing the effect of changes in relative prices and earnings on demand for physical capital and manpower. Thus the view that education is an economic investment which produces the trained manpower needed by the economy suggests that manpower forecasting is necessary, but by no means solves the problems of how to allocate resources.

3. Cost Benefit Analysis

A third approach to this problem is to use the techniques of cost-benefit analysis. When a firm is considering whether to invest in a certain machine, the usual way is to estimate the income that will be produced by the machine over its whole life, discount the expected income flow to allow for the fact that money in the future is of less value than money today, and compare the present value of the income with the cost of the machine. The rate of return or benefit/cost ratio is an indication of how profitable it would be to invest in that machine rather than undertake some other project. The firm will normally invest in the project promising the highest rate of return. Turning now to education, if it is possible to measure the economic returns to investment in education that is the additional income generated by the education, then they can be compared with costs by means of the rate of return, and presumably the government should spend most on those types of education with the highest rate of return. These rates of return look at education both as an investment for the whole community and as investment for the individual, by using the private rate of return. It is easy to see how to calculate the private rate of return, and to understand what it means for the individual. By choosing to go to school, or college, the individual incurs certain costs - both fees, expenditure on books and the earnings he foregoes while in school instead of working. On the other hand he can expect to be paid more throughout his life as a result of his education. If the extra earnings he receives, less the tax he will have to pay, are related to the costs he has had to incur - this gives the private rate of return to schooling.

The information contained in an estimate of the private rate of return may help to explain the private demand for education already discussed under the 'social demand' approach. It may also be used to show the effects of the government's policy on subsidies and scholarships for the higher the degree of subsidy, the higher the private rate of return to education. But can the rate of return be used as any sort of a guide to allocation policy?

For this the relevant concept is the social rate of return. The way this is usually calculated is to compare the earnings differentials of educated

people, inclusive of tax, (because the tax is paid as a benefit to the community) with the total social costs of education (including the value of production foregone by having people in school instead of in the labour market, as well as all the costs of tuition).

Does this calculation really reflect the economic value of education to the community? There are a number of difficulties which may be raised as possible objections to the use of cost-benefit in educational planning.

- (a) Earnings are related to many other factors besides education - innate ability, family background, motivation, to name just a few - so that extra earnings represent returns to all these factors, not just education;
- (b) Earnings are also determined by habit and custom, and thus do not reflect the real economic value of different jobs. Earnings differentials are no measure of relative productivity;
- (c) Education generates 'spillover benefits'. It may raise the productivity of people other than the educated worker himself and these indirect benefits are not shown up in earnings differentials;
- (d) Age-education-earnings profiles, which are the basis of rate return calculation, reflect past and present supply - demand conditions rather than future conditions - which is what interests the planner;
- (e) Looking only at the earnings of workers and the costs of educating a successful graduate, is to ignore the facts of unemployment, and wastage and the fact that not all educated people enter the labour force.

Conclusion

The three approaches do not attempt to provide the same type of guidance for the planner. While the social demand and the manpower forecasting approach aim to provide actual targets for enrolment, the rate of return approach provides a 'direction-indicator'. The policy prescription from a rate of return calculation is 'invest a little more' or a little less, in a particular type of education, rather than 'build a certain number of new schools, because rates of return provide an estimate of the effects of a marginal change in investment allocation. And after a change has been made, it becomes necessary to make a new calculation of the rate of return, given the new supply and demand conditions.

Returning once again to the question 'how can the economist help in the problem of allocating resources? He or she can do so by emphasising the investment aspects of education and by demanding that every benefit of education - whether economic, social, political or cultural, be thought of in terms of its cost. If educational planning is able to take account of the private demand for education, the job opportunities for educated manpower, the effects of changes in supply and demand on relative wage levels, and the need to talk in terms of different types of education, then we will not need to talk in terms of 'alternative approaches'. The important matter is not whether a plan is based on manpower forecasts, rates of return or any other technique, but that resources allocation decisions should be made in a framework which includes consideration of both costs and benefits.

Use of available Finances, Plant and Facilities

For the purpose of this exercise capital may be considered to be of two types: physical and human. Bearing in mind that economics deals with scarce resources and that people who actually run educational systems, who practice planning, decision-making and management every day in all sorts of situations are all involved in trying to solve the greatest problem of education today, namely how to get more and better education from the resources available, both planners and administrators have to take into greater account the economic aspects involved in their plans and explore every means of improving the efficiency of their educational systems so as to get the best value from existing resources. Experience has proved that an indispensable technique for this purpose is an analysis of the costs of education. By means of this technique it is possible to check the economic validity of educational plans, draw up a precise programme of expenditure over the planning period, estimate both the costs and the real economic consequences of specific projects, and facilitate decision-making when several alternative possibilities exist for the allocation of funds.

There can be no single list of the 'minimum essential facts' needed for cost analysis on all places and for all purposes. But cost analysts find the following statistics indispensable:

1. Present population by age and sex; birth rates and death rates over a number of years; forecasts of population trends; occupation.
2. Total enrolments by levels and types of institution, geographic area, and if possible, by individual grade levels.
3. Annual number of graduates from each category of institutions; examination results.
4. Annual number of drop outs and repeaters (shown separately) by type of institution, geographic area, and if possible, by individual grades.
5. Total teachers, distributed by types of institution and levels and divided, if possible, by qualification and salary categories.
6. Total annual expenditure at each level and type of institution, broken down by recurrent and capital costs and by major sub-categories within each of these (particularly separating teacher costs from other recurrent costs, and new construction and equipment from repairs, maintenance and replacements).
7. A breakdown of annual revenues by source of finance (e.g. central and local government, private grants and fees, etc.) for each main educational sector.

In addition to these more or less standard educational statistics cost analysis and planning require much information on economic and social trends of a sort that educational administrators have not been so accustomed to using. This includes data on the growth and distribution of national income and public revenues, population growth, internal migration and distribution, manpower needs and employment trends; general price, wage, and construction cost trends, and changes in the structure of the economy. Such data are usually available in some form in various government bureaus.

Beyond the basic statistics listed above, there are a number of crucial relationships, indicators and patterns that are invaluable to the cost analyst for a variety of purposes. Some of these can be derived from combinations of aggregate statistics while others require sample studies of institutional accounts. Among the most important are:

1. The ratio of educational expenditures to the GNP and to total expenditures.
2. The ratio of teacher costs to other recurrent costs.
3. The comparative level and composition of unit costs per student in rural vs. urban schools.
4. The comparative cost per student in primary, secondary and post-secondary education.
5. Comparative costs per student (teaching and non-teaching recurrent and capital) of day schools and boarding schools where applicable.
6. Comparative costs of full time and part time instruction or of formal technical schools vs. on-the-job training schemes.
7. The theoretical cost of a primary school graduate (cost per year X normal number of grades) as against the actual cost per graduate (allowing for drop outs and grade repeating).
8. The comparative costs and composition of undergraduate and post-graduate university students, broken down by major fields of study.
9. The relative size of classes in different types of institutions and in various subject areas.
10. Indicators of space and equipment utilisation.

Unit cost figures and ratios such as these do for the educational diagnostician what x-ray photos do for the medical diagnostician; they reveal what is going on internally, how the patient is faring, and what remedial actions may be needed.

It may be useful, when studying the foregoing indicators, to compare them with certain critical norms that have been established on pedagogical or other grounds to see if there are any substantial deviations.

It was stated earlier that the objective was to provide more and better education. These represent the quantitative aspects and qualitative aspects of education.

If we take the quantitative aspect, two questions can be asked:

1. Do we mean education for more persons?
2. Or more education for the persons presently being educated?

Education for more persons would mean increasing enrolments and providing more school places. But before you start the drive to increase enrolments a number of questions must be asked.

1. Is there a need for more places?

That can be answered by looking at the demographic trends of the population; the birth rates, death rates, the percentage increase; the geographical distribution of the population and forecasts of future trends.

2. At what level is there the need for more places - primary, secondary or higher?
3. Is the increase to be for a specific type of education or general education?
4. Is this increase to be maintained for a specific time only or is it to be continuous?

All of these questions have to be asked against the background of the present stock of plant, facilities, and teachers, and their cost at the present time. Is it absolutely necessary to construct new buildings, or can better use be made of existing buildings? Is the ratio of pupils to teachers high or low bearing in mind international standards? These questions can be asked on any level of education, and in most instances for selected projects.

When these questions have been answered, there are the unit costs to be calculated. The term "unit cost" can be a trap if one is not careful. It is used most often to mean the annual cost per enrolled student. But there are a variety of other types of unit cost measures that come in handy for certain purposes and it is important to keep them straight. They include, for example:

The total cost per graduate

The capital cost per student place.

The capital cost per occupied student place.

The average cost per teacher.

Cost per classroom.

Cost per school.

Cost per course.

Cost per square or cubic foot.

It all depends what the most appropriate unit is for costing the particular item with which you are concerned. If you are costing the number of pencils and textbooks needed, or the food bill, then the individual student is the most appropriate unit because in these cases cost varies in direct proportion to the number of students. But if you are estimating requirements for teachers, or for desks, maps, globes and various other items of class room equipment, then the classroom is usually the best unit, since staffing and equipment requirements vary with the number of classrooms rather than the number of students. In estimating lighting costs, square or cubic footage may be the best unit.

Several different norms are used for estimating educational costs and for making educational budgets, based on a variety of costing "units" each selected to fit best the particular item being costed.

To avoid confusion it is a good idea when using the term "unit cost" to be explicit about what kind of unit cost is in question, unless this is already clear from the context.

There are many potential ways to improve both the economic and educational efficiency of educational systems - for example - by introducing modern teaching media, by utilising facilities more fully, by freeing teachers from clerical and housekeeping chores to spend more time actually-teaching, by giving both teachers and students better tools and materials to work with, and by enlarging small classes and educational institutions to more optimum size.

Taking advantage of such potential economics, however, is often difficult. The actions required tend to upset established routines and create inconveniences. Worse still, the more unconventional changes and innovations often run into opposition from established interests. In all events, cost considerations alone seldom are sufficient for reaching decisions to alter the status quo; these must be weighed against the likely teaching consequences (which are rarely as easy to estimate as costs) and against the likely teaching consequences (which are rarely as easy to estimate as costs) and against practical problems of acceptance and implementation.

Putting schools on a double-shift basis, for example, or raising the pupil-teacher ratio from twenty-five to twenty-eight, or increasing the number of small seminars in a university, all such changes can improve the cost picture, but whether these gains will be outweighed by teaching losses must be carefully considered. Inevitably the final decision involves compromises and trade-offs among a range of considerations.

A new set of attitudes towards educational changes and innovation by educators and non-educators alike is also required, along with new research and development infra-structures and processes within educational systems to enable them to examine themselves critically, to devise new solutions to their problems, and to engage in a continuous process of self-renewal.

These lead in to the qualitative aspect of education which is always a far more difficult aspect to measure than that of the quantitative aspect. Any measure taken to improve educational quality or opportunity without prior examination of its cost consequences can easily prove self-defeating. But costs have little meaning or value until they are set against educational results and the results are weighed against the objectives. Costs in other words, are only one side of the equation that links educational resource inputs to a systematic way of looking at an educational process that enables educational planners, evaluators and managers (broadly defined to include teachers) to improve the efficiency and productivity of any educational activity.

Efficiency

There are many potential ways to improve an education system's efficiency. Generally speaking, they fall into three categories, according to the degree of change required in the present system.

Efficiency may be improved by changing the amounts, quality, and proportion of inputs, or by utilising present inputs more intensively, without basically altering the system's existing form and technology or "production function". Examples include a change in the pupil-teacher ratio, the qualifications "mix" of teachers, the enrichment of instructional materials per pupil and the fuller utilisation of buildings and equipment.

Secondly, efficiency may be increased by modifying the system's basic design involving the introduction of distinctly new components and technologies such as team teaching, instructional television, "programmed" self-instructional materials, or language laboratories.

Thirdly, a more radical approach to improving efficiency would be to design a brand new alternative "teaching-learning system" that differs radically from the conventional one. For example, creating a new system of home or on-the-job instruction involving correspondence and radio, self-instructional materials, and simple do-it-yourself laboratory kits and exercises.

It does not follow, of course, that any changes or innovations will improve efficiency; some may do quite the opposite. If 10 per cent more inputs are added per student and their learning improves by only 3 per cent, this may seem to be a successful change, but efficiency has actually declined because the costs have increased proportionately more than the outputs, worsening the cost-output ratio.

Paradoxically, an educational system can have high internal efficiency yet low external productivity. This happens, for example, when an educational system spends its time and resources efficiently teaching the wrong things - wrong, that is, in terms of the real needs of the particular students in light of their environment and future prospects. Requiring all Eskimo children to learn ancient Greek or tropical agriculture would be an extreme example. It also happens when a system turns out far too many expensively trained specialists of certain types and too few of other types relative to the economy's manpower needs and demands. The first specialists may have been well trained, but if there are no jobs open in that field, the investment in their training will produce few benefits.

There are other matters of quality including qualifications of teachers, of materials and aids or lack of them, and their effect on the system, on the buildings, and on the content of the curriculum. All these have to be included in our economic context and for the purposes of this exercise should be costed and the efficiency or otherwise evaluated.

Conclusion

It is impossible to give any one prescription as to what should be done for any one system. Is there any one solution or approach that would assist the Leeward Islands group in making the best use of the resources allocated to education? There are many problems in common but the way you see the solutions may be quite different.

The task of economic science like that of other sciences, is never finished because the real world which it studies is subject not only to irregularities of behaviour but to continual change, and ways of thinking about it change also.

But there is hope that economics in its original sense of household management may be successfully applied to the household of nations and to an international community, as reliable and detailed knowledge of what happens, or what has happened is achieved.

B. ROLE PERCEPTION AND LEADERSHIP EXERCISES

As well as preparing country papers to outline the structure of the educational systems of the Caribbean, participants were asked to examine the pattern of human relationships within these systems and to assess the relevance of selected theoretical propositions to an understanding of the effective working of educational administrators.

This section picks out those exercises and case studies which were used to examine the concept of role and role expectation in the complex organisational structures of education systems. It also provides case studies against which to discuss leadership styles.

Theoretical Propositions

McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y

Theory X

1. The average human being has an inherent dislike for work and will avoid it if he can.
2. Because of this characteristic, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed and threatened with punishment so that they will work towards the organisation's goals.
3. The average human prefers to be directed, prefers security and avoids responsibility.

Theory Y

1. Physical work and mental work are as natural as play, if they are satisfying.
2. Man will exercise self direction and self control towards an organisation's goals if he is committed to them.
3. Commitment is a function of rewards. The best rewards are satisfaction of ego and self actualisation.
4. The average person can learn to accept and seek responsibility. Avoidance of it and emphasis on security are learned and are not inherent characteristics.
5. Creativity, ingenuity and imagination are widespread.

The Concept of Bureaucracy

One of the most important aspects of the formal structure of an organisation and the typical administrative system is bureaucracy. According to Max Weber a bureaucracy incorporates the following characteristics:

1. A high degree of specialisation.

2. A hierarchical system of authority.
3. Explicit rules which define the responsibility of each member of the organisation and the co-ordination of different tasks.
4. The exclusion of personal considerations from official business and impartiality in the treatment of subordinates and clients.
5. Recruitment of experts.
6. The existence of a career.

Criticisms of bureaucracy

1. Bureaucracy encourages undue conformity of thought.
2. In time, bureaucracy modifies the very personality of bureaucrats such that they become drab organisation men.
3. Innovative ideas will suffer from distortion and delay resulting from the slow transmission of ideas through the layers of the organisation.
4. Bureaucracy does not take into account the presence of informal organisations, including primary groups, to which members belong. Behaviour is stereotyped and impersonal.

Positive attributes

1. Bureaucracy is efficient, providing administrative services to large numbers of clients systematically and uniformly. The staff of specialists makes efficient use of time.
2. Rules are written and explicit. The hierarchy of roles is clear and authority relationships well established.
3. Rules are procedures applied in a predetermined and unbiased manner.
4. Uniform rules are impartially applied to process cases quickly. Specialists collaborate on important problems.

Exercise

What is the model implicit in the administrative structure of your own country. Refer in your descriptive analysis to the theoretical concepts outlined above.

Role Theory

Various offices or positions in an organisation carry with them certain expectations of behaviour held both by onlookers and by the individual occupying the role. These expectations generally define role with the additional expectation that the individual will exhibit some of his particular personality in his or her role behaviour.

Terms in role theory

Role description - the actual behaviour of an individual performing a role or, more usually, a report stemming from one individual's perception of that behaviour.

Role prescription - the abstract idea of what the general cultural norm is for the role.

Role expectation - the expectation that one person has for another.

Role set - the complement of role partners with whom the occupant of a position interacts.

Role conflict - the situation in which the incumbent or occupant of a position experiences difficulty in conforming to the expectations that make up his role.

Role perception - the ability of an administrator to perceive people as individuals is one important aspect of staff relations. The lowest level of understanding is where all members of the staff are considered to be the same and that no special or individual treatment is accorded to an officer. Rules and regulations are adhered to strictly and the staff dealt with as a whole. An intermediate position is where the administrator recognises categories of staff, old and new, rural and urban and so on. At the other end of the continuum the administrator recognises and acts upon knowledge that the staff is composed of individuals all of whom should be treated separately according to their peculiar needs.

Similarly individuals will have varying perceptions of themselves and of how others see them. For example, they may accept their own worth and believe that other people are equally or more accepting of their worth. They may reject themselves but believe that other people are more accepting of themselves or they may accept themselves and believe that other people are less accepting of themselves.

Role Conflict

Conflicting perceptions, self perception and perception of others may result in role conflict. For example basic forms at an external level include:

- (a) A lack of consensus among the occupants of a position about their role.
- (b) A lack of consensus among one of the role partners about their respective roles.
- (c) A lack of consensus between a role incumbent and a role partner over the incumbent's role.
- (d) Expectations of different role partners conflict.

Conflict at an internal level includes:

- (a) Lack of clarity and specificity of the role prescription
- (b) The ability of a role incumbent to carry out the role prescription.

Case Studies

Role Perception

People in the Case

- Arthur Thompson - Principal of Wright Street School
- Mrs Richards - School cleaner
- Peter Bryant - A teacher recently transferred to the school.
- Bob Somers - Deputy Principal
- Jacob Saunders - Chairman of the Anti Flouridation League
- Jill - Arthur Thompson's (the Principal's) daughter.

Arthur Thompson, principal of Wright Street School, parked his car and strode into his office. It was 8.15 a.m. and Arthur looked forward to at least an uninterrupted half-hour in which to deal with accumulated mail.

He had just sat down at his typewriter when Mrs Richards, the cleaner, knocked on the door. "Oh hello, Mrs Richards. How are you this morning?"

"Fine, thanks," replied the cleaner. "Mr Thompson, would you come and have a look at Mr Bryant's room. It's in a terrible mess again, and I don't know where to start."

Arthur followed her along the corridor to Peter Bryant's classroom and looked round quickly. Mrs Richards' complaint was quite justified. There were scraps of paper on the floor, books hanging haphazardly from below desks. These, like the ink-marked desks and pictures askew, were part of the normal scene in Bryant's room. But this time he had gone too far. On the teacher's table stood an ash tray piled high with cigarette butts, a half drunk cup of coffee and some crusts in a piece of waxed paper. Rats had visited the table during the night.

"It's not my job to clean up after his meals," said Mrs Richards. "Anyway, what would the union say?"

"But surely you cleaned the room yesterday afternoon?"

"No, Mr Thompson. Mr Bryant wouldn't let me come in. He said he had a lot of work to do and he didn't want to be disturbed. He said he'd probably stay on until tea-time. I asked him if I could just run the broom over the floor but he told me that the room wasn't really dirty, and to leave it till this morning."

"Has this happened before?"

"Oh, often. There's usually been quite a mess to clean up, but never one as bad as this."

"Yes, it really is rather disgusting. Well, see what you can do with it just once more, Mrs Richards. I'm sure it won't happen again," said Arthur grimly.

He marched back into his office and shut the door. "Blast Bryant! Why is it always Bryant?" He attacked his typewriter.

At nine o'clock Arthur visited the staff room for his regular morning five-minute chat with members of staff who were not on playground duty or busy in their classrooms. Peter Bryant was sitting in a sunny corner, leisurely smoking a cigarette. "Oh Peter, there are a few things I'd like you to do for me in a hurry. Would you come to office for a moment." Peter Bryant sat down in the head's office, lit up a cigarette without asking permission, and waited for Arthur to begin.

Arthur Thompson hesitated. He was not sure how to approach Bryant. From his observations in the classroom and in the playground he was convinced that Bryant had the makings of a good teacher. He appeared to try hard. Certainly his lessons and programmes seemed to be carefully planned: and there was no doubt about his interest in the form football team. On the other hand, his class was often unruly and progress in most subjects was far from satisfactory; also, he frequently said and did things which irritated others. In his five years of teaching he had been in three schools. His first appointment had been to a small school where he had alienated all the parents. The principal of the second school hastened to pass him on when his tardy and careless habits became obvious. The report written by his inspector had suggested that "Mr Bryant should seriously consider an occupation other than teaching." It was tacitly agreed that Peter was very much 'on probation' in Arthur Thompson's school.

"Look, Peter, Mrs Richards took me along to see your room this morning. It was in a disgusting mess."

"What's the state of the room got to do with her? She's paid to clean it, isn't she?"

"Yes, that's so. But it's really too much to expect her to clean up after your meal."

"I worked late last night. I knew you'd want everything just right, with the special inspection coming up."

"That's quite beside the point."

"I don't think so. Schools are not for cleaners. They are for teachers"

"For children, I think," snapped the head. "Now for goodness' sake try to show some common sense. A clean and tidy room is just as important for the kids as a clean and tidy notebook. You know as well as I do that the real test of your fitness to teach is being conducted in this school. I haven't spoken to you before, though goodness knows there are plenty of times when I should have done so."

Peter Bryant seemed chastened. "All right, Mr Thompson; I'll do my best."

Arthur looked sorrowfully at the unfinished letter in his typewriter and left to teach his own class.

At morning recess Arthur's deputy, Bob Somers, joined him for their traditional morning cup of tea. "What did young Bryant say to Mrs Richards

this morning, Arthur? All I heard was a sarcastic "Thanks very much!" when he came out of your room."

"Did he say that? I thought he left me a chastened young man. We'll have to watch him."

Bob Somers looked uncomfortable. "As a matter of fact there are a couple of things about Peter Bryant I should have mentioned to you earlier. We both know that his class is a shambles. I heard recently that he's been running you down at the top of his voice to a crowd of his mates in the public bar at the 'Imperial.' And only yesterday I heard a couple of members of the Anti-Flouridation League saying that they would report him if he continued to criticise them in class."

Arthur was staggered. "Why on earth didn't you tell me about the flouridation business straight away? I'm not worried about what he says about me in the pub. It's every man's right to criticise his boss. But the flouridation issue is another matter. Who told you about it?"

"Old Jacob Saunders. I didn't see any point in carrying tales. It's part of my job to protect you from petty details, isn't it? There's been no official complaint, and there's no harm done".

"This is hardly a petty issue. Old Saunders is sure to cause trouble. I'd better have a word with Bryant before we do hear something official."

Arthur once again called Bryant out of the staff room and asked him to come to his office. As succinctly as possible, the head told Bryant what he had heard. Peter Bryant seemed very upset. What's wrong with taking sides on an issue like this? You know as well as I do that flouridation of water supplies is strongly recommended by dentists and scientists."

"Of course I do; but the argument is a hot one just now. Why do you pick on our most controversial issue for discussion?"

"But I thought schools were the very places where controversial issues should be discussed. Do you mean we should only discuss events that are past, or that don't affect us directly? The syllabus says."

"I don't care what the syllabus says. Use your brains! You'll get yourself and me, too in trouble over this. Have you tried to give both sides of the argument?"

"Yes, of course. Very objectively, too."

"Thank goodness for that There's the bell. We'll talk about this again later on ..."

"Yes, all right. But would you mind not coming and pulling me out of the staff room every time you want to see me. The others'll think I'm being treated like an irresponsible kid." Peter walked out of the office towards the assembly area.

At tea time that evening Arthur could not resist the temptation to breach the topic of flouridation with his daughter, Jill, whose best friend was in Peter Bryant's class. Jill was full of ideas on the subject. "Mr Bryant says that people who don't want flouride in their water are 'crack-pots', she volunteered. "He says they're like witches in the olden days.

I think so, too. Don't you, Daddy? I want to grow up with strong white teeth like Mr Bryant's"

Arthur didn't reply. He was determined to confront Bryant with this version of his discussion next morning.

After tea the phone rang. It was Jacob Saunders. "Arthur? Oh, Arthur, that young Bryant on your staff seems to be stirring up trouble. He's been making all kinds of accusations against the Anti-Flouridation League. The League's pretty upset about it, you know. They even wanted to write to the Minister of Education, but as chairman I persuaded them to let me handle it. I told them that you were the man to put Bryant in his place....."

Arthur was silent for a moment or two. "This is a delicate situation, Jacob. Bryant is free to discuss controversial issues if he wants to Yes, I suppose it does depend on how he goes about it. Thanks for ringing me. I'll see what I can do. Whatever you do, don't write anything"

Arthur spent a sleepless night. He tossed and turned. Was Bryant worth protecting? Would he ever develop some sense? Did he really know enough about Bryant? Shouldn't his deputy have kept him informed of what was going on? Could he really throw his daughter's evidence at Bryant?

Was Bryant in the right? Was he letting himself be prejudiced by relatively minor issues, like the untidy room?

Sleep presented no solution.

Exercises

1. Identify the various examples of person perception touched on by this case.
2. What first impressions did you form of Peter Bryant from the discussion between Mr Thompson, the principal, and Mrs Richards, the cleaner?
3. If your first impressions of Peter Bryant changed, give reasons for this revision of your perception of him.
4. What do you consider to be Peter Bryant's perceptions of Mr Thompson?
5. Identify two events in the case study to support your view of Peter Bryant's perceptions.
6. What do you consider to be Mr Thompson's perceptions about his own position as principal?
7. Which aspects of the case would worry you most?
3. Which aspect of the case would you deal with first, and how, if you were the principal?
9. Identify the basic issues involved theoretically.

Case Study

Role Conflict

I went to teach a class of mixed-ability nine to ten-year-olds in a new semi-open plan junior school with very clear ideas what I was to attempt.

All children should learn the basic skills and numeracy. I believed that all normal children could master these skills but some would take longer than others. Consequently, the traditional classroom approach would be reversed: the amount of work would be the constant and the time taken to do it would vary with the individual child. In this way, the slow learner would not while away his time sharpening pencils because he would know that it was the work which had to be done, not the forty-five minutes to be filled as painlessly as possible. More importantly he would realise that the teacher expected him to do as much as any other child in the class and would not fall victim to self-fulfilling prophecies. Fast workers would be encouraged to help slower ones; differentials would be reduced and co-operation fostered.

Basic work was to be divided into daily 'work quotas' which, once finished, would leave the child 'free' to follow his own interest for the rest of the day. As much varied resource material as possible was to be provided so increasing the incentive to work at 'basics' while at the same time giving ample scope for each child to explore the world within the limitations set by the classroom and the chance to excel in whichever direction his or her talents lay. There was to be no subject status; whatever each child had to give was to be valued and appreciated, and a high standard of work was to be encouraged in each case. In addition to the materials I and the school could provide (clay, plaster, wood, paint, glue, paper, card, magazines, reference books) it was also hoped that out-of-school visits and trips could be included to broaden and enrich the class's experiences.

On the level of personal relationships, I believed that a true learning situation could only develop within an atmosphere of equality and 'openness'. I was the oldest and most experienced member of the group but it was intended that the emphasis would be on communal facilities and decision-making. The children should be helped towards autonomy, responsible decision-making and self-discipline and to this end I resolved to do as little of the traditional teacher organizing the classroom management as possible.

Finally, and encompassing all other considerations, I decided that nothing should take place in the classroom unless it was in the interest of the children I was attempting to educate. If at times this was not possible they should know whose interests were being served and why. Basic organization of materials was in their interests; concern with the appearance of the classroom was not.

Although a number of the objectives I set myself were achieved to a significant degree, in the final evaluation I must be judged as having been successful to the point when it became necessary to resign from my post. It is possible to identify the reasons for my 'downfall' and come to some conclusions.

Of crucial importance was the headteacher, supported by his deputy and his staff. He it was who, defined by all to be in a position of power, could insist that teachers did things 'his way'. At some pains to understand my deviance from the norm, he assumed at first that I simply did not understand what was expected of me and tried to point me in the right direction.

His path from kindly tolerance and advice to explicit authoritarian control is well illustrated by the example of the teacher's desk. As evidence of the equality of relationships within the classroom, I had placed the desk against a wall with the drawers facing into the room for maximum accessibility and the top to be used as an additional working surface for all. Such blatant disregard for normal classroom procedure did not pass unnoticed and Mr H. expressed his concern on the first day: 'It will never work. You won't be able to see the children when you are sitting there I'll help you arrange it ... Well, it's up to you. If you want any help, I'll help you move it'. Several subsequent references were made to it but I did nothing. On the third day he said: 'You must turn this desk round, you know you can't see the children why do you have it like this? And on the fourth day: 'One day you will be very tired and you will want to set the class off and then sit in your chair to rest while you watch them. You don't think you will, but you will!'

But his hints, suggestions and kindness did not have the desired effect and, after registration on the fifth day, he came in to look over the class and, after reorganizing the children's tables, he pulled the desk round, established it in the centre of the room and placed the teacher's chair behind it.

Both head and deputy head made much use of opportunities to make announcements to the class. On these occasions, the children were reminded to ask permission to speak to the teacher by the raising of one hand, and to conclude elicited responses with 'sir' or 'miss' was appropriate behaviour in school. So also was the realization that one did not leave one's place without permission, whisper when a teacher is speaking, or eat sweets in class. In this way I was also reminded of which behaviour I should punish and with reference to 'bright ones', 'lazy ones' and 'poor ones', which should reward. In an open-plan school other class areas are more apparent and the atmosphere is all pervasive. On the other hand, the layout of the school also meant that what went on in our classroom was apparent to other classes. The atmosphere which was developing there seeped out and affected, in some measure, the rest of the school. That the outside was of greater weight meant that the losses far exceeded that which was gained.

In spite of such pressures, it was still possible, more or less, to keep to my objectives. In the area of basic work the results were gratifying. In control of their own production, the children worked harder than before. This was particularly so of the 'poorer' ones, now freed from teachers' low expectations. Co-operativeness was encouraged and 'ex-top-table' girls worked alongside 'ex-bottom-table' boys to finish the job in hand. Recognition of all skills and talents allowed those to excel who previously would have had no chance of doing so in school.

In the 'Free Activity' area, enthusiasm was apparent but, as could be expected, continual use of materials like wood, clay and plaster soon resulted in the room losing the 'glossy appearance' of the other classrooms. Furthermore, in the interests of autonomy, and ignoring Mr H's instructions to appoint monitors, I encouraged the children to organise their own clearing-up operations and this resulted in a standard of finish rather lower than those of other teacher-organized classrooms. Nevertheless, the room was regularly cleaned, was of a reasonable standard of order and the standard was improving daily.

Others did not agree. Complaints by cleaners, either real or concocted were passed on by Mr H who although at first he had expressed pleasure at the

improved basic work by 'low ability' children, now used criticism of this work to back his insistence that we concentrate more time on traditional school subjects. He was particularly concerned that I was wasting time on children who would 'never master long multiplication at the expense of those 'higher ability' pupils who should be pushed.

So began a new phase in which my disobedience became more blatant and in which I found it necessary to put down my educational philosophy on paper for the benefit of Mr H. A series of verbal battles began which at his request, took place in his study and caused me to be absent from the classroom for long periods, which proved to be a great drain on my energy and enthusiasm.

After threatening to 'terminate my career' (an empty threat but I did not know it to be so) he then gave me permission to teach in my own way. However, at the same time he began to approach the children individually, encouraging them to go to him in his study to 'help' him, by organizing scrap paper or picking up litter, for which they received rewards in the form of sweets. Due in part to this underground opposition but also to my absences from the classroom and conflicting definitions of proper teaching, the positive results which had been apparent in the early part of the term had vanished and the behaviour of the class had become disorderly and disorganized. This, coupled with my inexperience and nervous exhaustion, helped to turn me into the worst kind of authoritarian teacher and provided further evidence to the children of the way they know teachers to be. It was a dismal end to the first half-term.

The start of the second half found me revitalized and full of enthusiasm. Having had official permission to teach my own way, I set about identifying those factors which prevented me from achieving my objectives and working out ways in which these opposing factors could be neutralized. The most potent were the frequent PE periods. Normal PE lessons necessitate strict control and an authoritarian approach: an 'adventure playground', once basic organization and safety points are covered, allowed me to continue the free spontaneous atmosphere I had fostered in the classroom. School assemblies, lessons with other teachers including the head and deputy head, school rules enforced by other teachers on their duty days, all served to remind the children of the continuing definitions outside the classroom; however, lunch-time 'trips' to a local disused brickwork and river were a delight to the children and myself alike and did much to reinforce the reality I was trying to create for them as did a Saturday trip to the sea to which the children in other classes were invited. The fact that nearly every child in my own class had the consent of their parents indicated no parental hostility to what I had planned. These innovations did much to maintain enthusiasm on my part, always at risk in the deadening institutional atmosphere of the school, but it was often a struggle to prevent others inputting their definitions to them. Mr H's interruptions of lessons and his verbal complaints continued and so, feeling reasonably confident of what was happening in the classroom, I moved the fight into another arena. It seems likely that this would have happened in time anyway.

After having been dissuaded by Mr H from sending a letter to the Senior Education Officer in which I requested that he come to the school to discuss the problem with us both, a country adviser arrived at the school when I and the class were timetabled at the swimming baths at another school. He examined the classroom and the children's work but the only intimation I received about his visit was from a child. Returning the following day, the country adviser discussed the position with me and advised me to work to

to the directions exactly as he planned; the children were not to do a 'basic stint' each day; I was not to bring materials into school unless first seen and approved by him; no record player was to be allowed in the classroom; PE was to be formally taught with 'free choice' at the end of the lesson; half a day each week was to be allowed for me to carry out my own ideas; strict discipline was to be enforced and children were to form lines at all times. These requirements seemed to me to be unreasonably by any standards and I refused to accept them.

The adviser said:

'You have to conform now If you don't compromise you'll never be a teacher you will not qualify Don't expect any more sympathy from those higher up: you'll get less. It will go to the Chief Education Officer - the Deputy Education Officer and so on up. Do you understand the consequence?'

I said that I did but would only compromise in the areas in which I had already done so, where such compromise did not contradict my basic philosophy.

A week later the Senior Education Officer came and produced similar arguments, concentrating on my inexperience and the necessity of conforming.

'It is arrogant to think you know it all. I am still learning. You are not prepared to listen'.

I have enough experience to formulate a philosophy but not enough to carry it out. This would come by carrying it out. Later he said that I must work under the reasonable directions of the head. But that's how I do work. When I am asked to do things which are not in the interests of the children I teach, I consider these unreasonable directions and that I am justified in not obeying him.

Once again, I was advised to obey Mr H's requests and once again I said that I was unable to do so. At this point my class was taken from me and I was made a floating teacher following the very close directions of the class teachers and required to give formal lessons. My timetable was overbalanced in the direction of RE, formal English, and PE with little art and craft. When practical work became unavoidable, Mr H took great pains to ensure that the period was spent doing clean, quiet work. On one occasion, I was instructed that a class of nine-to-ten-year-old boys were to make bookmarks. Pieces of yellow card were already cut to measure 70 cm. each and the sample one had been measured off by Mr H in inches with the border, slope of point, etc all marked in. He then demonstrated to me how to do this with a ruler and I could see that, done this way, ten minutes' work could easily take one hour. I was told how the borders could be decorated with pencil crayons (not paints) and he seemed not to notice the pathetic effect of these on the insipid yellow card. Each child was to write a proverb down the space left in the middle: 'Don't let them write anything or they'll write something stupid. Give them a choice of proverbs - I'll give you a list They'll enjoy doing this.' They did not. They thought it was cissyish and I agreed.

At least two of the teachers would have preferred the instructions to be more flexible but this was not allowed by the head. These two teachers privately expressed sympathy for my position but were not prepared to stand up and be counted.

In this situation I still contrived to teach my own way to some extent

but I was in a very vulnerable position and was easily prevented from doing so. In the case of my ex-class, attempts to teach to Mr H's close instruction predictably resulted in chaos. Eventually, I was brought to the point when I had to suggest that if he wanted this class taught in a formal authoritarian way he would have to do so himself because I was unable to. This followed a situation in which deviation from his wishes caused him to interrupt the lesson and countermand my instructions.

The situation was demoralizing and I was advised by Mr H that should I continue as a floating teacher under the present circumstances I should certainly fail my probationary year. There seemed nothing to be gained from staying on and this opinion was clearly shared by the Ministry who made special arrangements for me to leave as from the date on a letter of resignation, so waiving the usual term of notice required. It seemed that nothing was too much trouble to rid themselves of this irritating grain in the system. Before I left I witnessed my ex-class being successfully "re-socialized" by the deputy head and it seemed as if I had sunk without trace.

Having evidence of what I saw as unprofessional treatment, in that an adviser had been apparently called in without my knowledge, and an adverse report made, the contents of which had not been shown to me, I approached the union. They were prepared to help me find another post but, after several meetings, advised me that should I profer charges against Mr H. it was extremely unlikely that I would obtain a post anywhere.

And so I had been successfully prevented from carrying out a reasoned educational philosophy with which neither Mr H., the deputy head, the Education Officer could basically disagree. But it was simply not part of the taken for granted reality of school which they all shared and furthermore, I with my relatively low status in the hierarchic structure of the school, was in no position to redefine the situation. The authority which had been invested in him by the Ministry gave Mr H. the power to plan the classroom activities of his staff and insist that they accept his definitions of appropriate classroom behaviour. When this failed with an individual teacher, he had the power to enlist the support of others who would accept his definitions. It seems unlikely that the rest of the staff would come out in support of a probationary teacher in the face of this opposition, and it has been shown that the union was more ready to warn a probationer against complaining about a headteacher than to uphold its own Code of Professional Conduct.

(Hanson D and Herrington M)

Exercise

1. How might the respective positions of the new teacher and the Head-teacher influence them in their views of pupil learning in the classroom?
2. Could the teacher have done something, in spite of her philosophy on education which might have prevented the development of the conflict? If so what?
3. Construct a model or diagrammatic representation that illustrate the network of interpersonal relationship involved in the case study and indicate their relative importance or significance to each other.
4. (a) How would members of your group have responded to the situation if

you were in the position of the Senior Education Officer, faced with a head-teacher and teacher in opposition to each other.

(b) Give at least two reasons for your response.

(c) If group members do not agree indicate individual differences in proposed response.

Leadership

Leadership Styles

Three basic styles of leadership are often identified.

Authoritarian	Obedience is expected with no argument. An autocrat leader determines policy and makes all the decisions.
Democratic	The leader draws upon the power of the group, utilising the ideas and contributions of staff members. This approach involves consultation, discussion and involvement of staff in policy making and decision making. The leader is a moderator.
Laissez-Faire	The leader exercises minimum control allowing considerable individual freedom. The leader is a source of information who attends to administrative matters and acts as a resource person.

Bureaucratic leadership is sometimes added to this list. This is leadership by the book, observing regulations and maintaining the smooth functioning of the organisation. If this is leadership it is a style to minimise conflict and change.

Most administrators exercise a combination of these styles but visually one style will be dominant. In the case of all educational administrators there is a bureaucratic element as for example in the case of a principal who is charged with maintaining the organisation in accordance with legislated regulations. But there are clearly areas of autonomy and leadership styles will become evident in these areas. It is in the integration, balancing and adjustment of the components of leadership which will to a great extent determine the impact of the administrator as a leader of a school, an office or a department.

A categorisation of administrative leadership followed by many writers includes:

1. Nomothetic leadership - behaviour which stresses goal accomplishment, rules and regulations and centralised authority at the expense of the individual. Effectiveness is determined in terms of behaviour towards accomplishing objectives.
2. Idiographic leadership - behaviour which stresses the individuality of people, minimum rules and regulations, decentralised authority and highly individualistic relationships with subordinates. The primary objective is to keep subordinates happy and content.

3. Transactional - behaviour which stresses goal accomplishment but which also makes provision for individual need fulfillment. A judicious utilisation of the first two styles.

Exercise

James Hall, Vice-Principal at Mona Heights Junior Secondary School, sat in his office and pondered his position. He wished that there was wiser counsel available upon which he could call. One thing seemed certain - something had to be done!

Hall had been in the system for several years, starting as a classroom teacher and eventually becoming guidance teacher and Vice-Principal. His work in the community and in the school had given him a good deal of leadership opportunity, and both teachers and townsfolk regarded Hall favourably. He had recently married one of the teachers, and people assumed that he would stay in Mona Heights as Vice-Principal until the present Principal, Edmund Watts was promoted to another job. Although Watts had been in the community longer than Hall, few expected him to remain permanently; but practically everyone expected Hall to stay. Watts just didn't seem to "fit in" with the community. Not that there was much open antagonism, but rather, a lack of open acceptance.

The present problem facing Hall arose from the nature of Watts' philosophy. Watts had strong laissez-faire tendencies in his make-up and evidenced great reluctance to enforce school regulations among either teachers or students. Consequently, both groups were taking advantage of Watts, and morale was rapidly deteriorating. Watts seemed unaware of the situation, spending almost every day in his office and little time about the building.

Because Hall had "risen from the ranks", he enjoyed closer relations with the teachers than Watts and, as a result of teacher confidences, was constantly aware of the increasing difficulties. Just this morning a teacher had come into his office.

Teacher: "Can I see you for a minute, Jim?"

Hall: "Sure, have a chair!"

Teacher: "Do you know if Wattsie spoke to the janitor about leaving my classroom unswept and the desks not properly arranged?"

Hall: "I don't know. In fact, I didn't even know you had trouble with him".

Teacher: "Trouble! I should say so. This is the fourth time this year that I complained about it".

Hall: "Maybe he hasn't had a chance to see him yet".

Teacher: "I think he's afraid to speak to the janitor about this matter, just the same as he's afraid to speak to them about anything else".

Hall: "I'll speak to him about it and maybe we'll get this thing straightened out".

Teacher: "You know better than that, Jim. He won't do anything about it. I guess I just came in to blow off steam. I wish he'd get a better job so that you would take over. Maybe, he'll drop dead! Wouldn't be a bad idea, if you ask me. Well, I'll see you later".

Hall: "Be good now."

After the teacher had gone, Hall reviewed the conversation. It was the sixth such complaint from a teacher that week. All of them had shown impatience with Watt's failure to take action. Hall knew from his own experience that the complaints were usually justified. He had had similarly unsatisfying encounters. However, he doubted that the Principal was afraid. He believed that by nature Watts was infinitely more philosophical than executive and shied away from unpleasant personal contacts. Hall felt that Watts' behaviour was putting him in an awkward position.

That night at supper Hall and his wife had the following conversation:

Mrs H: "You missed the little 'incident' we had in the staff room today".

Hall: "I was pretty busy all morning. What happened?"

Mrs H: "The four new teachers from Kingston Teachers College got together and appointed student monitors for their classes and came down to the teachers' room for coffee. They stayed almost all period".

Hall: "I wonder if they are aware of the school rule against leaving classes without teacher supervision".

Mrs H: "They know all right, but figured that since Mr Watts has only been in the West Wing of the school, he probably wouldn't even know".

Hall: "I thought they were going to be real good teachers, too".

Mrs H: "They probably would if things weren't so lax. It's so bad now that the math teacher who has first period free isn't even going to come to school until 9.45. You ought to do something about it".

Hall: "That's just too much. I will do something about it".

But next morning Jim Hall could not determine what to do about it. If only there was some way to get Watts to exercise his authority without seeming to be undermining him, criticizing him, or "squealing" on the teachers. What to do?

Exercise

1. How would you explain the power structure at Mona Heights Junior Secondary School, taking into account all the individuals and groups

mentioned in the case-study?

2. What is your view of the staff perceptions of the performance of Mr Watts in his role as principal? Illustrate your answer with reference to his organisational ability and his attitudes to interpersonal relations.

3a. How would you describe Mr Watt's leadership style?

b. Give two reasons to support your answer.

4. What are your perceptions of Mr Hall's position as Vice Principal?

5. How would you resolve the problem facing Jim Watts and which is stated specifically at the end of the case-study?

Additional Case Studies

A variety of case studies were prepared for and by the group to illustrate role perception, role conflict and leadership styles. Two of these studies are reproduced below:

Case Study 1

Mrs Mary Jones a Vice-Principal had been transferred from a co-ed Junior Secondary School to Carapan Primary School, a girls school with an all female staff. Mrs Jones had had serious personnel problems with the Headmaster, staff and pupils at the school from which she had been transferred.

Mrs Jones was assigned to a class of 25 pupils, fourteen of them 11 year olds who were writing the Common Entrance Examination that year and 11 twelve year olds who had already written and failed the examination the previous year. All the pupils in the class were classified as under achievers.

Considering herself to be a competent Vice-Principal, after five years in that capacity, Mrs Jones assumed responsibility for a number of things in the school. She considered herself a good teacher and strict disciplinarian. She wished her class to achieve success in the examination so she concentrated on teaching the fourteen. She also wished her class to be well behaved so she exercised strong discipline on the eleven.

After three weeks at the new school Mrs Jones administered corporal punishment on Julie Brown, one of the eleven under-achievers in her class, and injured Julie on the upper arm.

Miss Doreen Brown, the child's mother came angrily to the school the following day, complaining to Mrs Jones about the treatment she had meted out, and demanded an explanation. Mrs Jones impatiently told her that she had done nothing wrong. The child herself was to be blamed for the injury she had received because she knew that she should have stood quietly and received her punishment. She had been disobedient and should not have raised her arm to parry the blow. Mrs Jones further told Miss Brown that she had no more time with her since she had her work to do. The Vice-Principal then turned away and left the parent standing in the school yard with a number of curious children about. The parent angrily threatened to go to the Ministry about the matter, and left, taking Julie with her.

Miss Brown went immediately to the Ministry and spoke with the Chief Education Officer threatening to go to the police. He at once arranged an investigation by the Supervisor of that district at which the Principal, Vice-Principal and parent would be present.

The investigation took place the following day. It was revealed that the Vice-Principal, also the pupil's class teacher, had struck the child and injured her and that she had been aware of the injury at the time and did nothing about it. She had not informed the Principal and had abused the parent.

The Supervisor decided that Mrs Jones was at fault on a number of counts. The child had been injured, although unintentionally, and should have been treated. The parent had requested an explanation and should have handled the interview with the parent. Mrs Jones had been discourteous to the parent and should apologise to her.

On each count the Vice-Principal responded. The child had no one but herself to blame for the injury which did not seem serious at the time. The parent should train her child properly so that she would not be constantly disobedient in school and have to be punished so often. Finally as she was Vice-Principal with responsibility for discipline in the school so she did not have to refer this matter to the Principal. The Principal was not present when the parent had come although the Senior Vice-Principal was there.

The Vice-Principal refused to apologise to the parent and felt the Principal should support her in this. It was her opinion that if she apologised she would lose face and would be unable to function effectively as a Vice-Principal in the school.

Mrs Jones apologised then but afterwards she refused to have Julie in her class, sent all pupils in need of the slightest punishment to the Principal and no longer assumed responsibilities for anything in the school.

Exercise

1. Identify the perceptions of the Vice-Principal in terms of her role in relation to (a) the Principal; (b) the pupil; and (c) the parent.
2. Do you consider the class teacher to have acted indiscreetly in her treatment of the parent. If yes, what other alternatives could she have adopted.
3. Do you feel that the Chief Education Officer acted correctly by indicating an immediate investigation rather than referring the Principal.
4. How would members of your group have responded to this situation if you were in the position of the Supervisor faced with a teacher of this type having regard to her professional background? Give reasons for your response.

Case Study 2

Mr Jim Peters, Education Officer for the West Clarendon district ran his fingers through his greying hair, looked over the top of his feet propped up

on his desk, and said to his friend, "Tom, I've a problem on my hands and I don't know the answer. Our new high school in Campbellville will be ready by September. It's a good school, and a good fast-growing middle class residential district. You'd be amazed how that area has grown. The Government's new industrial estate not only brought a great many new people to West Clarendon but the higher wages have meant that many people have been able to move out of the more run-down sections of the city and build themselves modern homes. My wife was saying the other day that while there is a lot of charm to the big old frame houses, yet the spic-and span fast-growing Campbellville also has an appealing air of being well kept and on its way".

"Anyway, my problem is that I have to recommend a principal for the new school soon".

"That shouldn't be too difficult", said Tom Hughes, a longtime friend of Jim Peters and an Education Officer for the neighbouring district. "The position is a bit of a plum, isn't it? A new modern building. One of the largest schools in the country. Chance to grow up with the Campbellville district Top salary, I suppose..."

"Yes the salary isn't too bad. The Principal will be put on the highest scale. This is partly why we have had a large number of applications for the new principalship".

"There are some likely looking candidates; a couple of them with outstanding records. One man especially impresses me. You probably know him Smith from Jonesville School. I met him informally the other day. He's young and personable and ambitious, with an amazing record for a thirty-five year old".

"Yes, I know Smith. He has done well since he became a teacher".

"Yes, his application is highly recommended by a few outstanding people. The boy seems to have experience, gets along well with people, gets things done".

Hughes looked quizzical. "Doesn't sound as if you would have too much trouble recommending Smith for the principalship!"

"Perhaps not. But it's a delicate situation here in Campbellville. The area is very conservative: almost ingrown, you might say. But Smith has a big strike against him from the first: He's out from an entirely different area of the country. And the people would prefer someone they know rather than someone they don't. And since this is the Minister of Health's district, they are going to try and get the Minister to intervene for them and some of them already seem to have a candidate in mind, Henry Stevens, the son of the Chairman of the Union of Local Authorities. And to add to this Henry is very keen on the job and his father is anxious for him to get it and with all his connections and his popularity in the area he is likely to have his way. His father has the ears of the Minister of Health".

"But how effective do you think that Henry Stevens might be?"

"Not very effective at all. Although he is now the head teacher of a small school he is a bureaucrat with no imagination and no ideas. He certainly will not be good for the school at least in my judgement".

"But you know how powerful the Minister of Health is? If he agrees to

support Henry Stevens for the job there is no way that Smith will get it. And what is worse for me is that if the Minister of Health feels in any way that I am opposing his candidate then it can have serious repercussions for me. For one thing the promotion which I am expecting next year to Senior Education Officer will never come through because he will see that I am again in such a position, much less a stronger position, of voicing an opinion which might threaten him."

Exercise

1. What advice would you give to the Education Officer?
2. On what basis should his recommendation be made?

C. SUPERVISION

By far the largest part of the course was devoted to an examination of the work of the school supervisor, be he or she principal, or education officer, or inspector. And to consider how best the elements of the management process may be applied to specific tasks or functions common to most educators in different national settings.

Definitions

Supervision is the name given to the activities that contribute to the improvement of the instructions and programme of a school system.

There is a common dimension in the expected role behaviour of those who are supervisors regardless of their position in the school system. The common element ... is the determination of ends and the assessment of results.

Principles underlying effective supervision (identified by the course participants)

The list which follows applied to 'in school' and 'out of school' supervisors - principals, inspectors, advisers and education officers.

1. Involvement of staff in goal setting
2. Full participation in the development of programmes and procedures to attain desired goals
3. Assisting with the implementation of the programme
4. Encouraging creativity and initiative
5. Development of mutual trust
6. The identification and promotion of leadership potential
7. The acknowledgement of the worth and contribution of the individual
8. Possessing the qualities of consistency, flexibility and sincerity
9. Self evaluation
10. Careful planning and preparation of all activities
11. Stimulation of self reliance and individual responsibility
12. Participation in decision making and problem solving

The role of the school supervisor

Whilst prescriptive roles may be established for the school supervisor there are areas of considerable autonomy and scope for initiative and personal commitment. A fuller understanding of the role and functions of the supervisor may be appreciated in a variety of ways:

(a) The application of role theory may help define the supervisors role through self-perception and the perception of others. This approach may be particularly helpful in situations of conflict where mutual understanding of perception may assist resolve a problem.

(b) A careful analysis of the functions of the supervisor will assist the definition of role. Each task will have its objective and the procedures by which the objectives may be met. Each stage in the process will have implications for the work of inspector, education officer and principal.

(c) An examination of critical incidents or problem situations may help to clarify the role of the supervisor and in particular the relationships amongst officers in a group set. It should highlight expected standards of behaviour or procedure.

Supervision and the improvement of classroom instruction

A variety of techniques may be employed to assist in the improvement of classroom instruction. Some of the more usual include:

Classroom visits - pre-visit meetings - post visit meetings

Self evaluation

Peer group meetings and evaluation

Staff meetings

Staff surveys

Workshops and in-service exercises

Reports

Whatever the technique, supervision involves careful planning, observation, assessment, modification and execution of changes. This requires the acquisition and maintenance of skills to enable observation of the teaching-learning process in an objective manner. For example, if the supervisor is concerned with solving a specific instructional problem a series of steps might be taken:

1. Identify the problem - taking counsel from those working in the school, from professional standards and, where appropriate, research findings.
2. Diagnosing the problem - clarifying the exact nature and reasons for the existence of the problem.

3. Considering alternative solutions.
4. Selecting the appropriate solution in consultation with everyone affected.
5. Implementing the solution.
6. Evaluating the solution with all concerned in its implementation.

Case Study

Mr Davis, Education Officer responsible for secondary schools, feels that he should not interfere with the internal arrangements for supervision of instruction in the schools. He delegates that responsibility to the principals concerned. His main input is to visit the principals in their office; but not to intrude into teachers' classrooms.

Calvin Senior Secondary School has an enrolment of 702 students and a staff of 45. Mr Wentworth, the Principal, is hard pressed for time to do regular supervision of instruction with his staff. He feels that the teachers should be competent enough to do their best. He scarcely sees his teachers perform, except when making annual reports on them for the Ministry of Education.

Many teachers agree that there should be some form of supervision, but could not say how or what form. They find that they are not given any assistance with problem solving in the classroom, but have to rely on their own individual initiative. A teacher of commerce said that there was evidence of too much wastage of time and materials in her department; but there was nothing being done about it since there was no one directly assigned as Department Head.

The Principal's deputy is responsible mainly for student affairs and services and does not assist in supervision of instruction. She points out that the Principal himself cannot adequately supervise instruction in such a large school, but her hands are tied.

Apart from this apparent weakness there seems to be a measure of goodwill between students and staff at Calvin.

Questions

1. What arrangements can the Education Officers make to help improve instructional supervision?
2. Suggest two or three techniques that the Principal of Calvin could employ in helping to improve instructional supervision in his school.
3. What changes in the internal organisation could be made by the Principal to improve instructional supervision?
4. Should the Deputy assume responsibility for instructional supervision?
5. What are some of the problems the Principal faces when making annual reports on teachers?
6. Do you see any need for the Ministry of Education to devise a policy

to co-ordinate supervision in the secondary schools? Why? Suggest some steps that are necessary?

7. What could the Education Officer do so that teachers obtain more assistance in problem solving?

8. What are some of the limitations that affect the Principal's ability to adequately supervise instruction more effectively? How can these limitations be managed?

The School Staff Meeting

Planning

1. Adequate notice of the meeting in the form of a well prepared agenda must be circulated to all members of the staff.

2. The Agenda should show the time for the start and for the conclusion of the meeting.

3. The meeting must be convened with a clear set of objectives.

4. The Principal should consult with administrative and professional staff on the issues to be dealt with at the meeting.

5. Notice of specific issues should be given to staff well in advance of the meeting.

6. There must be adequate physical arrangements for the meeting.

7. Staff meetings should be held at least once a month.

8. There should be a secretary/member of staff to record the minutes of the meeting.

9. Agenda must make provision for 'Any Other Business'.

The Meeting

10. A decision should be taken that no member should leave the meeting before the agenda is covered or before specific issues have been discussed.

11. The meeting should be conducted in an atmosphere that allows for free and frank discussion.

12. Opportunities should be given to any member who wishes to make a contribution during the meeting.

13. Issues should be dealt with as quickly and as decisively as possible.

14. Status should not impede decision making.

15. Personality clashes must be discouraged.

16. Follow up action should be clearly defined and a time limit

set for any such action.

17. The Principal should provide opportunities for members of staff to chair meetings.

18. A report of follow up action should be made available to members of staff at the next meeting.

Supervision and the curriculum

'In school' and 'out of school' supervisors have an important role to play in curriculum development and innovation. However, because of their position, principals and district education officers are often more concerned with the effectiveness of instruction, although this cannot be separated from the curriculum.

The participants to the training course broke down their participation in curriculum matters under two broad role heads:

Headteacher

Selecting material to be taught
Development of subject syllabus
Organising programmes which will involve the community
Supervising the implementation and development of the curriculum
Encouraging experiments in new methods
Recommending suitable texts and materials
Holding staff meetings for discussions on curriculum, methods and procedures

Education Officer

Assisting in the solution of curricular problems.
Assisting teachers in the interpretation and implementation of the curriculum.
Facilitating the introduction of programmes designed to improve learning.
Encouraging principals and teachers to initiate programmes related to student learning.
Providing curriculum guides for teachers.
Co-ordinating curriculum development programmes at primary level.
Assessing outcomes and adequacy of programmes.
Evaluating effectiveness of programmes.
Reviewing weaknesses in curriculum implementation and providing specialist assistance in strengthening areas of weakness.

Exercise

1. What are (a) Headteachers (b) Education Officers perceptions of their role in curriculum activity?
2. To what extent, if any, should Headteachers and Education Officers duplicate their roles?
3. How far should/do Headteachers and Education Officers influence the type and degree of instruction given in schools?

Curriculum innovation

Some of the activities identified by the participants are concerned with innovation, a process in which a number of stages may be discerned;

1. Initiation - a decision, within or outside the educational system which determines that particular innovations are required.
2. Development - objectives are determined, materials produced and appropriate teaching and learning methods developed. Trials are conducted and after evaluation, revised materials are distributed.
3. Diffusion - diffusion of ideas beyond those involved with the development process.
4. Implementation - a decision is taken to implement the change in schools.

Exercise

1. Are these stages recognisable in recent curriculum developments with which you are familiar?
2. Who is responsible for making decisions and providing leadership at each stage?

Case Study - Strategies for Innovation

The following case study attempts to highlight:

1. Strategies of curriculum innovation which have been tried in the Eastern Caribbean.
2. A basis for discussing the advantages and disadvantages of different strategies in the curriculum development process.
3. The contextual factors which impinge on curriculum innovation and which may influence the strategy which is finally adopted.

The territory of Grenados in the Eastern Caribbean has a severe reading problem. Teachers have been pressing the Ministry of Education for specific

assistance. Reports by field officers of the Ministry of Education have confirmed that the problem is widespread and that urgent remedial action is essential. Under this pressure, the Ministry had decided to transfer Mr Charles Mason from his substantive post as Headteacher to tackle the problem. Mr C. Mason has had successful teaching experience as Head of Department, and has recently completed studies in Curriculum Development with particular reference to reading.

Mr Mason's first step was to carry out a national survey to establish the nature and extent of the reading problem faced by the pupils. Concomitantly, he collected complementary data on reading materials, teacher knowledge and competencies in reading, general teacher qualification and experience. Based on the data collected on teacher characteristics, he had selected a cadre of resource persons drawn from a cross-section of the various schools. These resource persons were all trained teachers, experienced and reasonably thought of as classroom practitioners. However, they had had no formal training in either curriculum development or reading.

Mr Mason saw his main task as helping them to acquire the specific knowledge and skills needed to tackle the reading problems. To achieve this, he would involve them in workshops and other in-service activities on real reading problems faced by teachers. He would further attempt to ensure relevance of all the training activities by involving as many classroom teachers as practicable. In these ways, Mr Mason felt he could enhance their professional competence, even granted their different entry levels, as well as gain their commitment to the planned innovation. He expected slow progress in the early stages but he was heartened by enthusiasm shown by the resource persons and the teachers for his participatory strategy. However, by the end of the second term, Mr Mason was a very worried man. He was sure the teachers had enhanced their knowledge in various aspects of 'reading'. But there were few concrete results to show for the hard work which had been put in by all for two terms. This, despite the fact that the training sessions had stressed teacher involvement and always focused on real classroom needs. The problem reached a head at the materials workshop, designed to produce instructional materials for use in term 3. The teachers did produce many items - over 100 in fact - but all at the same cognitive level. As a result, the intended instructional booklets could not be made. There would be yet another term without badly needed materials.

The teacher-participants appreciated the reasons for the delay in producing the booklets - but their confidence and enthusiasm had been shaken. Perhaps they had bitten off more than they could chew, perhaps Mr Mason should have done like Mrs Springer. In her social studies infant project, she had devised actual materials first, and then had organised training sessions in using the materials she had devised. Like Mr Mason she only met her teachers monthly but at least her materials provided support throughout the month. Mr Mason couldn't help being aware of these undercurrents - the odd complaint about transportation, the decrease in task-oriented behaviour, the losing of tempers on trivia. He could sense too that the Headteachers were becoming somewhat less accommodating. He was sure it would only be a matter of time before the Ministry personnel knew all this. How could he arrest the rut?

He could follow Mrs Springer's strategy. He was sure that by working full-time in his Easter-Vacation he could construct the booklets in time for his third time. Furthermore, he could use his access to schools and relevant Ministry data and facilities, to maintain relevance, and some teacher input in the design of the materials. He could even try to use as many of the 100 items originally produced by the teachers as possible. In short he was sure

he could salvage the situation. But he was still undecided. His experience as a head of department, and later as a headteacher, had taught him that real involvement was crucial to acceptance. The field experience component of his studies had shown him at first hand (a) how the task-oriented involvement of ordinary classroom teachers in curriculum development had enhanced their professional growth and (b) the salutary effect, on teacher self-concept, of producing curriculum materials for actual classroom use throughout the system.

Further, the prevailing them/us attitude towards the Ministry of Education might be generalised to the materials he was contemplating.

Thinking about the problem was OK but he realised he must do something. He decided to have one more attempt at a practicable strategy - then he would simply have to take the bull by the horns.

He could try a different tactic. He could try to get a small cadre of persons working full-time on materials development. He could involve the more able teachers.

Further, if the group operated from his Teachers College there could be many positive spin-offs. But once more he became undecided. The strategy of full-time release of practising teachers for curriculum development work had never been tried before. Headteachers would be sure to raise questions - not to mention the Ministry itself, especially in the present tight economic situation and the strict Ministry of Finance monitoring of Establishment matters. Further, could a junior convince senior Ministry personnel against this background? Relations between the Ministry and the Teachers' College had always been cordial rather than professional. His strategy could then be easily misconstrued by the college staff. In any case, how could one initiate collaborative professional dialogue between the College and the Ministry granted existing hierarchical relationships on a purely personal level; mightn't his colleagues view him as wanting to engage in empire building? After all, curriculum development activity had been organised by the Ministry for more than 30 years without a curriculum unit, teacher task force or anything else.

Case Study - Primary Science Curriculum Development in a Small Island State

Abstract

The study seeks to describe the rationale, and the strategy used in the development of a primary science curriculum, and to identify roles in its development and implementation. The territory and its system is described in general terms and the overall strategy is evaluated.

Background

The territory concerned is a small Caribbean island group with a population of 14,000.

There are nine government primary schools operating for 5-11 year olds and six privately (church) owned primary schools. The government schools provide places for 1,485 pupils with an average teacher/pupil ratio of 1:27. At the age of 11+ children move to the one secondary (comprehensive) school. This caters for 1,160 pupils and has a teacher/pupil ratio of 1:14.5. The system at present is undergoing some change, to cope with increasing numbers and identified needs.

The primary schools are generally in good condition and, in relative terms, are reasonably well provided with resources. Although science facilities are not provided at the primary level, some teaching of science was in evidence before this curriculum development exercise. The secondary school is well equipped to cope with post primary science programmes up to G.C.E. 'O' and 'A' level.

In addition a Teachers Centre, attached to one of the primary schools, offers supportive facilities to all teachers and is the focus of territorial in-service programmes. In addition it contains resources in the form of books, tapes, films and the essential hardware to accompany them.

Rationale for Change

The major thrust for the development of a curriculum to replace an out of date syllabus (1972) came from the Chief Education Officer although it was evident that teachers, both primary and secondary, endorsed the concern exposed by the Education Department. The primary school wished for a new curriculum:

- (a) To provide a programme more relevant to the needs of the pupils.
- (b) To provide a programme more biased towards the local environment.
- (c) To provide a programme within the expertise of the teachers and within the scope of the available resources.

The secondary school teachers considered that if a science curriculum was well founded at the primary level, then there would be less difficulty experienced by entrants to the secondary school.

In addition, it was felt that because recent developments had occurred in other areas of the curriculum science should also be reviewed. This was particularly so having recognised the possibility that suitable scientific experiences could be used to further the development of skills in literacy and numeracy.

The following extracts from the Introduction to the Curriculum Guide further explain the rationale for change.

The primary schools of are the first formal steps in the education system, the ultimate aim of which is to prepare children for a rapidly changing democratic society. They will need to be able to adapt to these changes, critically appraise information and make reasoned judgements if they are to play a full part in their society. An education through science can promote these intentions while at the same time developing an interest and background in science.

In developing this science curriculum, the following points have been recognised:

- every child has individual levels of ability and competence and these should be developed to their fullest potential;
- every child has the right to the best education that is possible;
- every child has the right to an education which reflects the aspirations of his country.

Strategy for change

The overall strategy can be conveniently divided into four stages, and although, chronologically, they occurred at four different periods the process was ongoing. (See flow diagram p)

Stage 1

This consisted of a series of discussions with key personnel including the Chief Education Officer, Primary School Principals and teachers, science teachers from the Secondary School and personnel from the Teachers' Centre with the Consultant to Caribbean Regional Science Project (CRSP). The general consensus was that change was due, but there was some divergence of thought in which direction change should be pressed. Agreement was reached that a workshop of teachers to produce a curriculum would be a valuable exercise. The approval and encouragement of the C.E.O. for the exercise at this stage was a key factor in the organisation of the workshop.

Stage 2

As a result of the preliminary discussions it was evident that there were some prerequisite tasks which needed to be tackled before the workshop. Together with a suggested outline programme a set of discussion points was sent to the C.E.O. from the C.R.S.P. Consultant.

Pre-requisites for a workshop

Discussion and consideration should be given to the following points:

- (a) The purposes, goals and intentions of a course in science education at primary level.
- (b) The role of the teacher as an organiser of learning experiences rather than a purveyor of knowledge.
- (c) The areas of content which are considered essential in any new development.
- (d) The teaching methods to be employed.

This information was passed to the Teachers Centre where information was distributed, discussion sessions inaugurated and feedback compiled. This stage not only obtained information but maintained the level of motivation initially stimulated by the preliminary meetings.

Stage 3

This stage involved the following personnel in the development of an outline curriculum.

All Government Primary School principals

All Government Primary School teachers

Secondary School Science teachers

Teachers Centre personnel

Education Officer

Reading specialist

Consultant to CRSP

Working as a team for 5 days, these 60 odd educationists developed an out-line curriculum which included:

- (a) overall aims
- (b) specific objectives
- (c) curriculum design
- (d) sample learning activities
- (e) sample assessment procedures
- (f) outline evaluation procedures

These components were incorporated into the Primary Science Curriculum Guide, and it provided material for three age groups, 5-7 year olds, 7-9 year olds, and 9-11 year olds. Appendix A indicates the overall aims and the curriculum design.

In addition, it was suggested that follow-up courses be organised at the Teachers Centre by the secondary school science teachers to promote:

- (i) Improvisation of apparatus.
- (ii) Skills and techniques of teaching scientific content.
- (iii) Utilisation of local resources and resource personnel.
- (iv) A forum for the discussion of difficulties.

A list of basic equipment required by the schools for this curriculum was prepared at the request of the C.E.O.

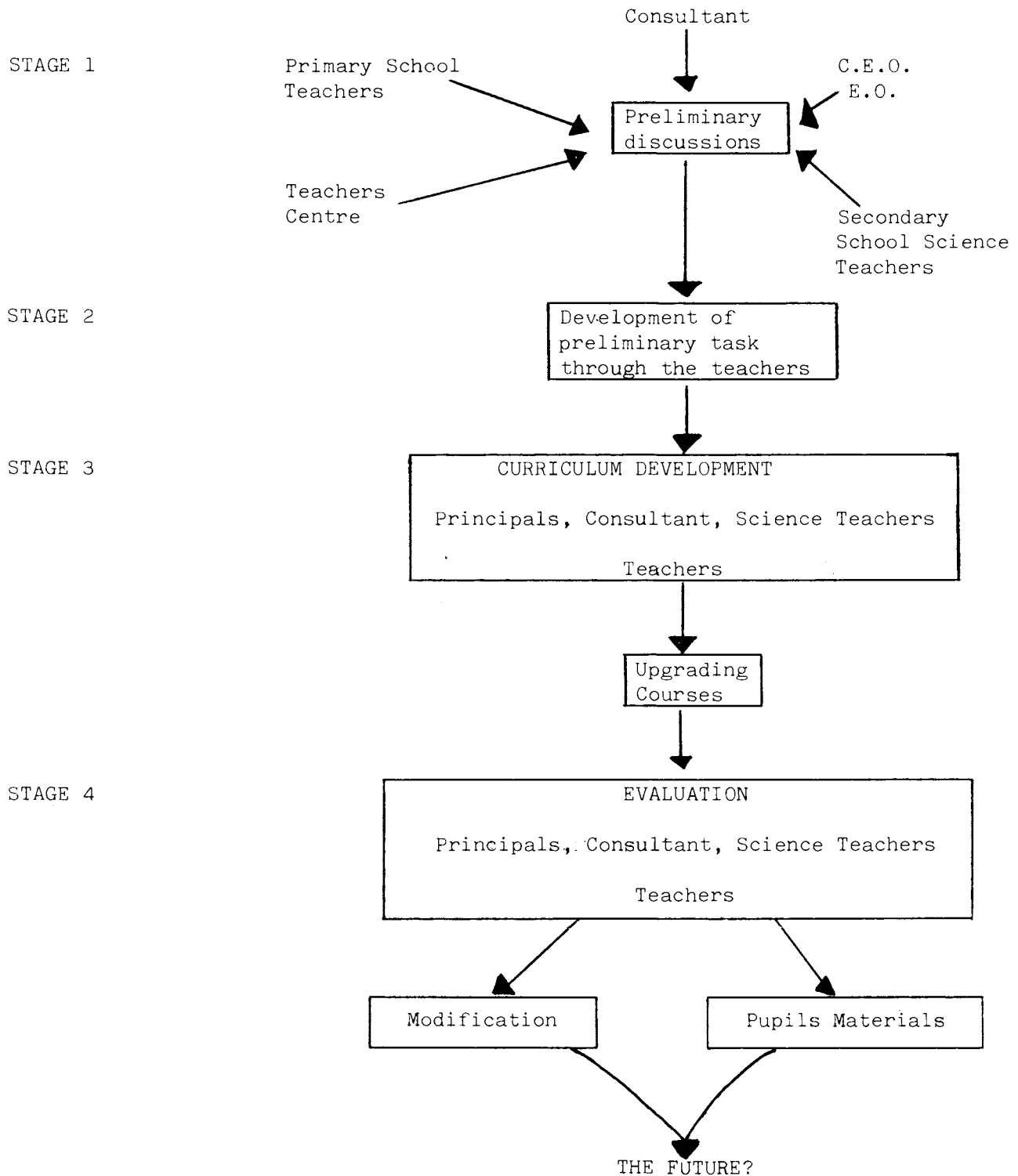
Stage 4

During the year that followed teachers were requested to implement the curriculum and to evaluate the success of the materials. In this latter context evaluation forms were forwarded to the C.E.O. for onward distribution to teachers via the Teachers Centre. The feedback received led to an evaluation workshop which set out to:

- (i) Evaluate the aims and objectives of the course in terms of the needs of the pupils.
- (ii) Evaluate those learning activities which had been taught.

- (iii) Incorporate modifications into the curriculum.
- (iv) Discuss additional learning activities and assessment instruments in terms of the agreed aims and objectives.
- (v) Plan future work.

MODEL OF STRATEGY



This workshop was successful to the extent that modifications were incorporated, new learning materials developed, and some booklets for children were developed. The curriculum has been accepted by all primary teachers who "seem to be reasonably satisfied with it". There is a need for more in-service courses to upgrade the skills of teachers in science.

Tactics of Change

At the tactical level it is obvious that a key role was performed by the CEO. Without the approval of this senior technical officer the programme would not have been developed and implemented. Although, not a science educationist by training the CEO is a highly professional person who saw the need for this development and offered whole hearted support throughout the exercise. The supportive services provided by the Education Department, in terms of resources and facilities were of the highest order. An EO from the Education Department was present at the workshop and gave moral support and by her presence demonstrated the approval of the Department.

The use of the Teachers' Centre as the venue was a useful device in that many of the teachers felt at home having used the Centre on previous occasions. Additionally the reprographic facilities at the Centre gave instant dispensation of materials produced so that at plenary session meaningful discussions could proceed. The Warden of the Centre, besides demonstrating the official approval of the programme, turned out to be stimulator of ideas. The presence of the Reading specialist, who was well known to teachers, and who had just completed a workshop on reading skills was a useful addition to the team.

The teachers were given a rapid rundown on educational theory (as reminders to trained teachers and as new information for untrained teachers) and an outline of the classical approach to curriculum development. It was made clear that there is no mystique about curriculum development and that no one can claim to be an expert in curriculum development. To the contrary they were made to consider themselves experts on their territory and their children. To make the best use of the time they were presented with a set of aims which were modified to suit the expressed environmental needs and aspirations of their pupils, and a possible arrangement of content, which they developed. Working in groups, after agreeing a design, specific objectives, sample learning activities and assessments were discussed and written.

The science teachers from the secondary school provided a two fold advantage;

- (1) as resource personnel
- (2) as liaison between primary and secondary sectors.

In this latter context there had been little contact between teachers at these levels and mutual resentment had built up. This feeling of "us and them" still exists but the presence of secondary school science teachers went some way to break down the barriers.

The role of the Consultant in these exercises was of a catalyst to stimulate innovation. The original development and the latter evaluation was mainly the work of the primary school teachers. The success of the implementation is a measure of their involvement in, and commitment to, the curriculum.

- (b) understanding those concepts and generalisations of relevance to their environment.
- (c) solving problems of a scientific nature found in their environment.
- (d) finding patterns in their investigational work.
- (e) communicating their ideas to others through discussion, diagrams, graphs and written accounts.

2. Process Aims

At the end of the course pupils should be able to demonstrate their ability in using the following scientific processes

- (a) observation
- (b) measurement
- (c) recording
- (d) classification
- (e) formulation of questions
- (f) formulation of hypotheses
- (g) inferring
- (h) experimenting
- (i) following directions

3. Attitudes Aims

At the end of the course pupils should be able to demonstrate

- (a) creativity
- (b) open-mindedness
- (c) curiosity
- (d) environmental concern
- (e) aesthetic awareness
- (f) self concept
- (g) value judgements

Additionally pupils should demonstrate

- (h) their concern for the implications of scientific developments on the community
- (i) the concern for all living things

Supervision: Evaluation and ways of improving the quality of instruction

Sources of data used in assessing educational leadership

Educational leaders who work in school, in a set of schools, or in a school system, already have available much information for making evaluative statements about the quality of instructional leadership and for improving teaching and learning.

The following types of data are usually available in many Caribbean territories:

1. Distributions of pupils by age and grade.
2. Results of achievement tests administered system-wide (e.g. common entrance, school leaving, etc.).
3. Scores obtained by pupils in different grades for each school.
4. Extent of retention at each grade level, and reasons for retention.
5. Professional preparation of teachers in college.
6. Complaints made by parents; by teachers; by pupils.

Careful analyses and use of such data can help determine how adequate are the leadership practices. However, in order to ensure that evaluation contributes optimally to the improvement of leadership behaviours, more data should be obtained.

The following representative procedures for obtaining additional data are recommended:

1. Use of checklists and rating scales.
2. Use of questionnaires and interviews.
3. Analyses of logs, anecdotal records, reports of activities.
4. Public opinion polls, surveys by professional persons.
5. Use of observers to analyse participation patterns.

Nature of procedures used for assessing instructional leadership

Obtaining a analysis and interpreting data in order to assess leadership for instruction is a complex task:

1. Leadership behaviour is developmental; it is continuously emerging and developing in order to be responsive to the changing goals and successive levels of accomplishment of the group. Further, as people work together in

defining, clarifying and achieving goals, the goals themselves undergo changes and modifications.

2. Widely varying situations in schools and school systems require specially prepared evaluation procedures.
Techniques and procedures developed and used at one period of time in one place, may not be appropriate at another period in another place. Further, actions of persons and of groups must also be evaluated in terms of the extent to which decisions (of prior evaluation procedures) are translated into action.
3. Teaching-learning processes are complex.
Using evaluation procedures to improve leadership for instruction is not simple because;
 - (a) educational goals are not unitary but multiple;
 - (b) learning takes place not only (in scheduled classes) in schools, but also outside schools.

Purposes for conducting assessment of educational leadership

Despite the complexities of the tasks, evaluation techniques and procedures must be used by persons of the school community to improve the effectiveness of instructional leadership. The leaders need:

1. To know which leadership behaviours result in better teaching and learning, and which are ineffectual.
2. To determine other ways of providing leadership which would result in greater gains.
3. To know about the nature and scope of present conditions.
4. To identify guidelines for future action.
5. To determine the value of various leadership behaviours.

Evaluation techniques and procedures are the ways of obtaining, analysing and interpreting data so that leaders can meet these needs.

Another major reason for the use of evaluation techniques and procedures comes from this consideration:

Persons in official positions frequently fail to recognise the differences between their own behaviour and the behaviour which they know to be desirable. (Wiles, Kimball and Grobman, Hulda. "Principals as Leaders". Nation's Schools 56: 75-77; October 1955)

The major implications of this finding are:

1. Data evaluating leadership behaviours should be obtained from many members of the group.
2. Leaders should engage in activities designed to

improve their own perception of their effectiveness.

Criteria used when assessing instructional leadership

Evaluation procedures always require a set of values. These values are usually stated as a set of criteria - which provide both a description of present status and an identification of needed future efforts. Three central ideas pervade the criteria that should be used in the evaluation procedures:

1. The basic goal of education is behavioural change within learners.
If the instructional programme is effective, then learners should gain more understandings, develop wholesome attitudes, use skills more effectively, and so on.
2. The heart of the programme of leadership for the improvement of instruction is teacher effectiveness in the classroom.
3. The continued growth of present leaders and the development of new leaders are essential for progress.

Some useful criteria for evaluating instructional leadership have been stated as follows (ASCD, Yearbook 1960):

All interested individuals, community groups and staff members:

1. Are actively involved in the cooperative definition, clarification, achievement and evaluation of educational goals and objectives (Goals).
2. Share in the development and regular review of the school system organizational structure, channels of communication, rules of procedure, and resources available for furthering the educational enterprise (Structure).
3. Participate appropriately in the leader behaviour and definition of all role assignments required by the educational enterprise through growth in individual skills and talents. As a result of their perceptions concerning demonstrated competences and appropriate leader behaviour, they participate in determining who shall be appointed to official educational leadership positions (Roles).
4. Support and encourage growth in human relations skills, cooperative planning, creativeness and experimentation by all staff members and others concerned with the school or school system (Ways of Working).
5. Participate in establishing and regularly utilizing appraisal practices which are appropriate for the instructional leadership procedures in the educational enterprise (Evaluation).

Self evaluation

Increasingly supervisors at all institutions and at all levels are encouraged to practise self evaluation as means of improving their own perception of their own and their institution's needs.

Initially, for example a simple check list, may clarify the self perception of an adviser or district education officer and point him or her towards those tasks which need to be tackled more effectively.

Check-list for Self Evaluation of a Supervisor

	Satisfactory	Improving	Improvement needed
(1) I assist principal and staff to improve the learning outcome of students.			
(2) I provide opportunities for the professional development of principal and staff.			
(3) I contribute to curriculum development.			
(4) I facilitate the interpretation and implementation of ministry policy.			
(5) I have clear objectives for my visits to schools.			
(6) I assist the principal in organising the school for effective administration (supervision and evaluation).			
(7) I keep adequate record of my observation during school visits.			
(8) I assist in fostering good interpersonal relationships.			
(9) I show interest in the extra curricular activities of the school.			
(10) I encourage teachers to make optimal use of available resources.			
(11) I communicate the needs and problems of the school to the proper ministry personnel and ensure that necessary action is taken.			
(12) I meet with parents who might need information on the interpretation of Ministry policy.			
(13) I encourage principal and staff to help students to attain high level expectations of performance.			
(14) I assist principal and staff.			

The design of such a form will itself help clarify the roles seen as appropriate for the supervisor or for the institution. A group of participants to the course attempted to design a self evaluation checklist for a headmaster. This was the result.

Self-Evaluation Schedule for the Headmaster

The Headmaster can carry out self-evaluation by rating himself against criteria of desirable supervisory and administrative performance. This grading can be done on a five-point scale:

1	2	3	4	5
Very good	Good	Satisfactory	Unsatisfactory	Poor

Professional Growth of Staff

1. Am I giving praise often enough and emphasizing the good aspects of a teacher's work?
2. Am I providing opportunities for teachers to develop potential leadership?
3. Do I encourage teachers to read professional books and magazines, to attend workshops, to pursue higher studies and to affiliate with professional associations.
4. How far do I undertake the organising of in-service training within my school to take care of the immediate need of staff and pupils, and to contribute to staff development generally?
5. Am I creating an atmosphere where teachers feel free to raise questions, admit weaknesses, try out new ideas and seek assistance?

Classroom Instruction

1. Do I organise my supervisory tasks in such a way that sufficient time is left for me to do classroom teaching and demonstration lessons?
2. Am I visiting each classroom often enough and long enough so as to allow me to make an objective and valid judgement on what the teacher is trying to do and to what extent his efforts are successful in changing pupil behaviour in a desirable direction?
3. Am I providing adequate instructional materials to my teachers?
4. Am I providing the teachers with the necessary help in the use of these materials, as well as giving them advice on methods and how to deal with individual children?
5. Am I encouraging co-operative planning and sharing of ideas among teachers for the improvement of instruction?

6. Am I encouraging co-operative, and critical thinking in the class-room among both pupils and teachers?
7. Am I continuously monitoring student behaviour and ensuring the improvement in student learning?
8. Am I making the necessary efforts to implement and improve the curriculum so that it meets the needs, interests and abilities of the students?
9. Do I take the initiative and responsibility in bringing about proper pupil and teacher orientation in the light of stated national goals and educational policy?
10. Is my time table so formulated that it makes optimal use of the available staff and other resources and ensures that the varied talents of pupils are catered for?
11. Do I continually make sure that staff and pupils are clear about their roles and more specifically the general objectives of the school?
12. Do I maintain close liaison with the Ministry and my supervisor on matters affecting the school?

Community Relations and Resources

1. Do I believe in the worth of each member of the community?
2. Am I exercising leadership in the community?
3. Am I encouraging staff members to exercise leadership in the community?
4. Am I making effective use of community resources?
5. Do I keep my school records, including financial statements and any other necessary data up to date with a view to enlightening the public as to what is going on in the school and also for the information of the Ministry?
6. Do I take an interest in the establishment and maintenance of good school-home-community relationships and in particular the affairs of the P.T.A?
7. Do I sufficiently involve the community in articulating the aims and objectives of my school, bearing in mind national goals and policies, so as to make the instruction of the children more relevant to the needs of the community?

Physical Facilities

1. Do I inspect the physical plant and facilities regularly enough to ensure the safety and well-being of staff and pupils?
2. Do I encourage staff and pupils to take pride in the upkeep of the plant, furniture and facilities within the school?

3. Do I take steps to ensure the proper maintenance of the building and its facilities by making regular reports and requests to the Ministry and thenceforth following this up regularly to ensure that such maintenance is done?

In answering each of these questions the Headmaster would need to tabulate the ways and means by which he attempts to meet the aims and objectives described. Only then can he or she assess the commitment made to the criteria in question.

Lesson evaluation

A framework for lesson evaluation

Objectives

- (a) What were the teacher's objectives for this lesson or unit of work?
- (b) Did the pupils know what they were doing and why?
- (c) How did/will the teacher assess whether the objectives have been achieved?
- (d) How do these objectives relate to the learning outcomes expected for these pupils over the whole term or year?

Preparation

- (a) Did the learners know enough/have the appropriate skills as a basis for this lesson? Would other preparations have increased the learning opportunities?
- (b) Did the teacher and pupils have ready the necessary materials and equipment for the lesson? Would other preparations have increased the learning opportunities?
- (c) Did the teacher prepare the content of the lesson adequately?
- (d) Was the teacher prepared for any problems or difficulties which might reasonably have been expected?

Environment

- (a) Does the teacher use the environment, inside and outside the classroom, as a resource for teaching? What display material is available and in use?
- (b) Was the room organized in the most appropriate way for this learning activity?

Lesson content

- (a) Is it accurate?
- (b) Is it meaningful to the pupils? Does it link up with their

experience?

(c) Does it interest the pupils of all ranges of ability? Are they frequently distracted?

(d) Is the selection of material and examples appropriate?

Working with the whole class

(a) Does the teacher speak too long? Too loudly? Give well thought out instructions so the pupils know what to do.

(b) Do the questions encourage different pupils to contribute to the lesson? Are questions framed so that pupils can answer without having to guess what is in the teacher's mind? Does he/she praise good answers?

(c) Is the blackboard used effectively? Do pupils spend too much time copying? Are other visual materials used where appropriate in the lesson?

(d) How does the teacher respond to interruptions and disturbances? Does he/she maintain control and reinforce acceptable behaviour?

Working with groups and individuals

(a) Does the teacher use small groups where appropriate? Do the children work well under this arrangement, or is closer supervision needed?

(b) Are individual pupils helped with particular problems they have encountered? What attempt is made to diagnose their difficulties?

(c) Is individual initiative encouraged? Does the teacher show interest in them as individuals?

(d) What happens to the rest of the class when the teacher is helping one individual?

Discussion

(a) Can the teacher relate what happened to the planned objectives? Can the teacher suggest what might be done to follow up where the lesson succeeded and to remedy where it failed?

(b) Can the teacher indicate what might be attempted differently or done better with a similar lesson next year?

(c) What is the teacher's attitude to the pupils, to the subject, and to his own career?

A framework for the assessment of performance on teaching practice

This framework provides a basis for discussion both for college tutors and experienced teachers:

Stage 1 - Pre-operational

1.1 Diagnostic competence: Awareness of the nature and needs of students.

- ability to analyse and use environmental background of students.
- ability to determine students' level of attainment.
- ability to identify students' unique learning styles and problems.

1.2 Subject matter competence.

- acquaintance of teacher with the fundamental ideas and methodology of the relevant subjects of the school curriculum.

1.3 Planning skills.

- ability to state objectives in accordance with knowledge about nature and needs of students.
- ability to select and organise content for sequential and cumulative learning, i.e. to allow each successive learning experience to build on the preceding one.
- ability to choose/create appropriate materials and opportunities for learning.

Stage 2 - Operational

2.1 Teaching competence

2.2 Motivation skills (arousing, maintaining students' interest in pursuing learning goals).

Ability to;

- prepare students for classroom activities or establish a pre-disposition to respond to learning.
- hold students' attention by varying teaching behaviour and learning activities.
- recognise and reduce non-attending behaviour.
- make lessons relevant to students' intellectual, emotional, social, and other needs and concerns.
- teach so that students will experience success.

2.3 Questioning skills

Ability to:

- ask probing questions which elicit more than superficial responses.

- question for divergent or open-ended responses.
- ask higher order questions which require evaluative responses or application of concepts or principles.
- encourage student-initiated questions.

2.4 Grouping skills

Use of knowledge of group processes and procedures to organise group work appropriate to learning tasks.

2.5 Problem solving skills

Ability to create the setting for learners to practice the skill of problem-solving from identifying a genuine problem to arriving at solutions.

2.6 Use of varied learning resources

Ability to obtain and effectively use a variety of appropriate learning resources

2.7 Closure

Evidence that the major points (concepts, principles) have been pulled together at appropriate stages of the lesson to enable learners to see the interrelatedness of old and new knowledge.

2.8 Classroom management and organisational skills

Attempts to make proper physical arrangements, maintain discipline create right classroom atmosphere and conduct class activities efficiently.

2.9 Teacher/pupil relationship skills

Ability to create a psychologically safe atmosphere in which each pupil is accepted as he/she is, to accommodate pupils' ideas and to cater for their personal problems and needs.

Stage 3 - Post-operational

3.1 Assessment competence

Use of appropriate variety of assessment devices to ascertain whether objectives have been achieved and awareness of the value of data collected for subsequent teaching-learning activities.

4. General

4.1 Personality characteristics

Evidence of personal integrity, emotional stability, maturity and positive attitude towards teaching as a profession.

4.2 Teacher/staff relationship

Efforts to cooperate with the Principal and staff and to participate in normal school activities.

Supervision and Change

The participants to the course were and are in positions of leadership, educational leadership, which recognises at least five main functions:

1. To help the people of the school community define their educational goals and objectives.
2. To facilitate the teaching-learning process and develop greater effectiveness in teaching.
3. Build a productive organisational unit.
4. Create a climate for growth and emergence of leadership.
5. Provide adequate resources for effective teaching.

These functions impinge on the work of all supervisors. This section examines them in relation to the headteacher or principal.

The pressures upon the headteacher are changing; the expectations of parents, of the education hierarchy, of employers and of the students in his or her charge place new responsibilities on the headteacher's shoulders.

Participants examined selected responsibilities and broke these down into a number of specific behaviours which must be fulfilled in order to match the responsibility.

Development of Curriculum

The New Headteacher:

1. Plans and organises the curriculum in terms of the needs and interests of the pupils, teachers, and the community in which the school is located.
2. Ensures that pupils, parents, teachers and resource persons in the community cooperatively participate in planning and defining the curriculum of the school.
3. Participates with other persons in the school community in formulating goals and objectives of the school which are in keeping with the national goals and educational policy.

4. Ensures that the curriculum is flexible and responsive to the changes in the community.
5. Coordinates the work of the different departments in order to ensure that the activities of the school are in keeping with stated aims and objectives of the school.
6. Ensures that the curriculum is based on the abilities, interests, and ways of learning of the pupils.
7. Ensures that the suitable resources (staff, teaching-aids, equipment, etc.) are available for planning and executing the curriculum.
8. Works with teachers to define the context, the experiences, and the teaching methods that seem most suitable to achieve the objectives of the curriculum.
9. Regards evaluation as an integral part of the teaching/ learning process and thinks of evaluation in terms of diagnostic, formative and summative activities.
10. Uses and encourages his staff to use a variety of test instruments to collect information about the pupils' knowledge, abilities, and attitudes.
11. Provides opportunities for teachers to acquire new subject matter and new knowledge about learning and teaching in their subject area.

Administering of Students:

The New Headteacher:

1. Know, accepts, and respects the abilities interests and aspirations of each student.
2. Stimulates, encourages and builds upon the strengths of each student.
3. Knows how to involve students in planning and decision-making within their experience and level of maturity.
4. Recognises student's weaknesses, and assists the student in overcoming these.
5. Recognises good work and good effort, and praises the student for these.
6. Provides an atmosphere in which the student is motivated to develop his abilities, and engage in activities centred around his special interests.
7. Makes provision for the health, safety, and welfare of each student within the school.
8. Creates opportunities for each student to develop proper values and acceptable social attitudes through cooperative

activities in which students participate in different ways.

9. Establishes procedures for collecting information about the interests and aspirations of each student and sharing the information among staff members.

10. Provides opportunities for the student to assume leadership roles in his class, in the school from time to time, and also in the community.

11. Accepts, and shares with the staff, the responsibility for the guidance and discipline of the students.

Administering of School Building & Facilities

The New Headteacher :

1. Organises regular checks on the state of repair of the school buildings and takes prompt action for correcting defects.

2. Studies, with staff members, the adequacy or inadequacy of the physical plant and facilities and plans for the best use of scarce resources.

3. Interacts with official and unofficial agencies which possess the expertise and resources to carry out with despatch, repairs or redecoration when needed.

4. Encourages all persons in the school community (pupils, teachers, parents) to take proper care of and develop deep pride in the school building and facilities.

5. Fosters in janitors, caretakers or ancilliary staff, a sense of pride in caring for the building and facilities.

6. Ensures that the building is provided with adequate and suitable facilities, equipment and materials for conducting the programmes of the school.

7. Encourages members of the community to develop respect for and pride in the school plant and facilities.

8. Endeavours to make the school a part of the community by making the school plant and its facilities available to responsible community groups (ex-pupils, parents, scouts, etc.).

9. Organises, in collaboration with staff and pupils, regular fire-drill routines.

Managing of School Business

The New Headteacher:

1. Knows and uses proper managerial techniques in day-to-day running of the school.

2. Makes adequate use of the skills of members of staff to manage the

affairs of the school.

3. Keeps in touch with all school activities through the staff members who are responsible for conduct of the activities.
4. Encourages teacher participation in all aspects of school life.
5. Is constantly seeking to find and use new management strategies for the effective running of the school.
6. Uses his knowledge of the abilities, aptitudes and interests of his pupils to improve the efficiency of the school.
7. Knows the set of official rules and regulations under which the school operates, and interprets these to staff, students, and parents.
8. Ensures that school records and documents are kept tidy, accurate, and up-to-date and that the schedules for posting of these records to teachers within the school, to the filing places, and to the Ministries, are maintained.
9. Encourages teachers, pupils, parents and the community at large to participate and become involved in the affairs of the school.

Performing of Duties Related to Special Fields and Services

The new Headteacher:

1. Cooperates with personnel of Health and Social Services in arranging for medical diagnosis and treatment of pupils.
2. Organises the school programmes so that the work of Special Services personnel (such as school psychologist, speech therapist, and guidance officers) can be easily accomplished.
3. Conducts special assemblies and programmes related to important national and international events (such as Caricom Day, Statehood Day, etc.).
4. Ensures that the school-meals programme is properly organised and conducted within the school.
5. Makes adequate arrangements to accommodate and assist student-teachers from teachers' colleges or other training institutions.
6. Encourages the conduct of research on aspects of teaching and learning within the school.
7. Fosters pupil and teacher involvement in activities conducted within the community such as music, special festivals, Christmas programmes, carnival celebrations, etc.

Organisational Change

Many of the behaviours recognised by supervisors may not in practice be operative. It is necessary to institute change. The course participants

examined two examples.

Exercise - Curriculum Development

Many people in the community complain that our present school curriculum is too academic and does not make provision for teaching pupils practical skills which will enable them to become useful, self employed citizens. They observe, too, that a large number of students obtaining GCE 'O' levels cannot find work after leaving school. As a positive response to this criticism it is necessary to consider introducing more practical subjects in our secondary schools.

List seven obstacles to a change which you have decided to initiate in your system and suggest ways of overcoming them.

Obstacles

1. Lack of material resources
2. Lack of financial resources
3. Lack of physical facilities
4. Shortage of trained personnel
5. Traditional stigma of manual tasks
6. Reluctance to depart from traditional programmes
7. Veneration of G.C.E. 'O' level exams

Ways of overcoming them

1. Apply for external aid
2. Seek voluntary contribution in terms of manpower, finance, material from businesses, P.T.A., self help programmes

Use available resources on a shared basis.

(a) Part time utilization of persons with technical experience and qualifications from the business sector.

(b) Initiate training programmes on day release basis.

Mount public relation programmes justifying the need for persons with these skills and improved financial returns for persons pursuing courses.

Mount public relation programmes which show relevance of practical subjects to community.

Pursuit of appropriate exam programmes in practical subjects. Establish local or regional certification programmes.

Exercise - Managing of School Business

Proposed Change: Existing school hours are 8.30 a.m. - 3.00 p.m.

A study group attending the course decided to change the above to 7.30 a.m. to 2.00 p.m.

Reason for change of the school hours:

- (a) To prevent congestion in buses
- (b) To reduce incidence of absenteeism among staff members
- (c) To allow both students and teachers to be more productive by using the hour gained after school in doing gardening, repairs at home, household chores and studying.

Obstacles to change

The group identified the following to be affected by this change of school hours.

- (a) Parents (b) Teachers (c) Students (d) Transport (e) Canteen Services.

- (a) Parents

Working parents would resist it because it would adversely affect their working hours. They would have to get up earlier and send their children earlier to school. They would experience some concern about their children's safety.

Proposed Action

The Group decided that the method of persuasion would be used to convince the parents of the necessity for this change in terms of the three reasons stated above. Their children's safety would be guaranteed because of proper supervision by staff on their arrival at school.

- (b) Students

Students might find it difficult to get up early. This might lead to unpunctuality.

Proposed Action

This could be overcome through P.T.A. meetings where parents would be encouraged to cooperate.

- (c) Teachers

Some teachers would resist the proposed change of increased responsibility placed upon them. Others who are far from the school might be late.

Proposed Action

The School Principal would have to persuade the teachers by explaining the whole aim of the change. He would use the services of

those members of staff known to be in favour of the change to influence and persuade those teachers who seem reluctant and unconcerned.

(d) Transport

The most important obstacle here is the unavailability of transportation because of the rush hours.

Proposed Action

Approaches would have to be made to the appropriate transport authority to change their schedules to provide school buses for the earlier start of school.

(e) Supportive services e.g. the canteen

There might be a disruption of the organization of school meals.

Proposed Action

The persons concerned would be asked to bring forward the canteen hours by one hour.

The group felt that changes of this type in schools should be initiated by the Principal with the cooperation of his staff.

The stated aims/reasons for the change must be made clear to everyone who is or is likely to be affected. If this is not done it would be difficult to bring about change.

Change Institutions

Within the Caribbean as with other parts of the Commonwealth, change can be effected through a number of institutions ranging from the classroom, through the school, a group of schools, a whole school system, professional associations, curriculum development units, teacher colleges, to units within a Ministry of Education. Change may be initiated too by groups outside the educational system such as community groups, parents and employers.

One of the best known means of planning and initiating change is the in-service course. Groups on the course examined the pre-requisites for (a) in-service activity within a school and (b) in-service activities within a school system.

The results of discussion are listed below:

(a) In a school

Planning

- (i) INVOLVEMENT of staff, students and community at all stages.
- (ii) IDENTIFICATION of needs of staff, students and community by means of surveys, interviews, etc.
- (iii) LISTING of problems identified from survey.

- (iv) SELECTING a particular problem or a group of related problems.
- (v) ESTABLISHING clearly defined objectives for the in-service programme with respect to the selected problem.

Organising

- (i) STAFF MEETINGS in small groups and large groups.
- (ii) ALLOCATING specific duties to individuals and groups according to skills.
- (iii) UTILISING outside expertise and resources if necessary.
- (iv) ESTABLISHING a time frame.
- (v) SETTING UP mechanisms for feedback.
- (vi) SPECIFYING the procedures and foci.

Conducting

- (i) IMPLEMENTING the programme.
- (ii) MONITORING at every stage.
- (iii) EVALUATING its effectiveness.
- (iv) USING FEEDBACK for modifying programme.
- (v) POST MORTEM ANALYSIS for future planning.

(b) A school system

Planning

- (i) CONCEIVING ideas necessary for the successful execution of the programme.
- (ii) IDENTIFYING training needs through surveys, questionnaires, interviews, observations, test results.
- (iii) ANALYSING data received collaboratively from:
 - Education Officers, head teachers, teachers, parents, students and community.
- (iv) FORMULATING clear and realistic goals and objectives.
- (v) ESTABLISHING collectively a priority rating of training needs identified.
- (vi) ASSESSING the feasibility of the programme within the constraints of the human, financial and other resources.

Organising

- (i) DECIDING the form of the programme, e.g., workshop, clinic, seminar, visitations, etc.
- (ii) SELECTING resource personnel from within the system and the community.
- (iii) RECRUITING resource personnel from overseas if local personnel are unable to meet the training needs identified.
- (iv) DETERMINING suitable venues for meetings taking into account distance and available transport.
- (v) IDENTIFYING the target groups.
- (vi) OBTAINING financial and material resources.

Implementing

- (i) BREAKING DOWN functions into specific tasks.
- (ii) ENSURING that materials for the programme are available in good time.
- (iii) DELEGATING roles and functions of all persons involved.
- (iv) SETTling deadlines for the completion of each task.

Evaluating

- (i) MONITORING progress at regular intervals to determine necessity for modification.
- (ii) ASSESSING to what extent a completed programme has achieved original objectives.
- (iii) RECYCLE the results within the system.