

CHAPTER 3

MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP : A SYNOPTIC VIEW

In the last chapter five task areas were considered in which educational leadership is required by school principals and by education officers and inspectors. Attention was given to the extent to which, and the means by which, previously agreed objectives influence or determine behaviour in these specific areas. It may be noted that there are common features in what is required of the educational leader in the different task areas.

Management

To understand better the process and procedures involved and their inter-relationships, this chapter looks at some of the concepts, and modes of thought, of management theory (or administrative theory as some would prefer to call it). For this purpose the term management, which can be defined in a number of different ways, is used to refer generally to the sequence of related processes whereby activities are planned, implemented and monitored in order to achieve the objectives of the organisation as efficiently as possible. Management is thus concerned with the wellbeing of the organisation as a whole, and it is therefore pertinent to consider whether a management approach will provide a framework for understanding better the tasks of educational leadership.

The Management Cycle

Let us begin with a simple input-output model of organisation.

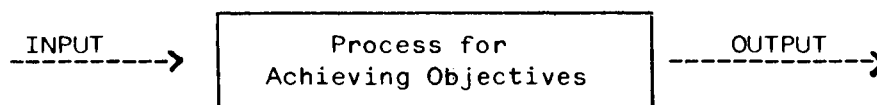


Figure 1 : The Basic Model

The main input in the case of education consists of the newly recruited students, the "black box" in the middle of the diagram represents the school in which the process of education takes place, while the output consists of the school leavers as they emerge into the wider world several years later, or

proceed to another institution of learning, as the case may be. Through the passage of time the outgoing students will generally be older and bigger than incoming students. In accordance with the particular objectives of the system they will also, it is hoped, be better informed, more skilled and more mature in outlook.

In its rudimentary form, the model as described does not show how the objectives of the system are 'fed in' so as to influence the process of learning, or whether there is any corresponding 'feed-back' to regulate the process. Both a 'feed-in' and a 'feed-back' have to be added to provide the cyclic sequence of processes linked to objectives which may be derived from our definition of management. An imposing superstructure can thus be mounted on the basic input-output model to provide what may be called the management control loop or cycle.

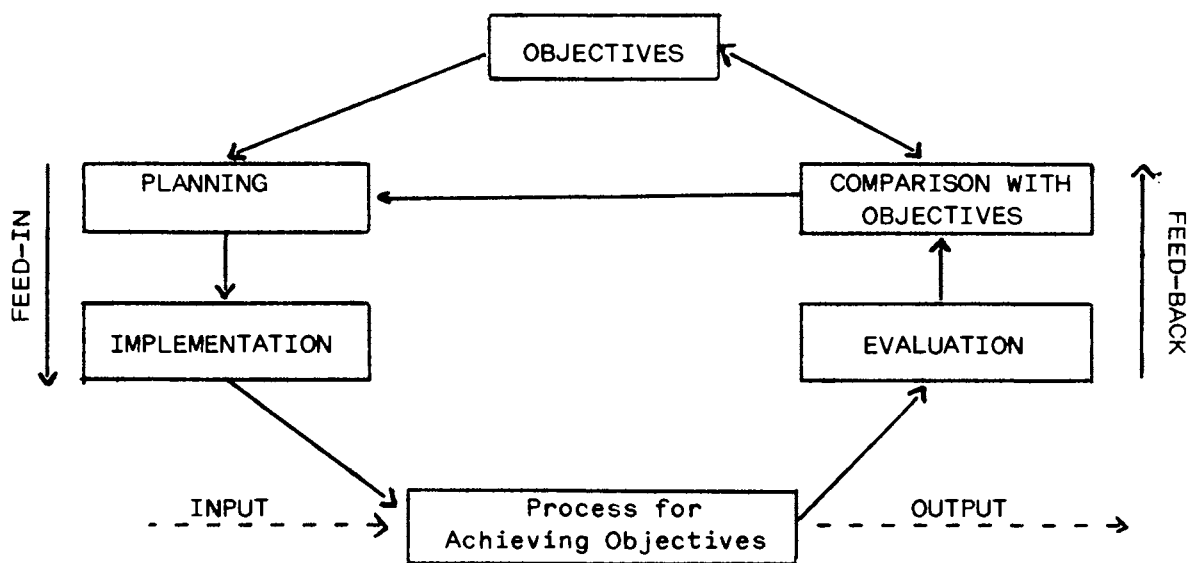


Figure 2: The Management Control Loop

- | | |
|-----------|--|
| Feed-In | The process begins with a stage of developing and clarifying objectives as discussed in Chapter 1. There is then a planning stage, during which different modes of proceeding are worked out and considered before agreement is reached on a plan of action. Implementation decisions follow and the necessary organising takes place to produce the required effect on the process for achieving objectives in the 'black box'. This completes the 'feed-in' process. |
| Feed-Back | Quality control of the output is provided at the evaluation stage by its assessment against input, followed by a comparison with objectives, when the outcome achieved is measured against the outcome specified as a target in the objectives. There are then two possibilities: |

1. If the "feed-back" is positive, i.e. the objectives are being satisfactorily achieved, the loop is completed and the process continues without any need for adjustment.

2. If the "feed-back" is negative, showing that the objectives are not being achieved, there is a need for further planning; hence the horizontal arrow from the 'Comparison with Objectives' box to the 'Planning' box in Figure 2. Plans have to be made and tried out to deal with the unacceptable under-achievement. For example:

(a) A small modification of procedure is tentatively tried out. If the "feed-back" is promising, some further adjustments may be made, an equilibrium situation being reached as with a thermostat.

(b) If minor changes prove unsuccessful, a more radical solution will have to be sought, possibly involving increased resources. This too will be similarly cycled through the management loop, and adjustments tested if conditions appear favourable.

(c) If several changes prove unsuccessful, and given the limitations of the input to be processed and the finite resources available, it may be decided as a last resort that the objectives themselves have to be re-examined. They may be found to be ambiguous or they may be unrealistic in practice. Assuming that re-consideration leads to a clarification or a modification of the objectives, the management cycle can be re-activated as before, until a stable equilibrium situation is eventually reached.

These three methods of dealing with discrepancies between what is achieved and what is desired may be depicted pictorially in a flow diagram. The main stages are shown in Figure 3.

Change Factors A warning needs to be given that, in organising a school or a district educational system, it is unlikely that a neat control loop mechanism can be relied on to operate satisfactorily for any length of time without some unpredictable event disrupting its operation. A thermostat-type arrangement of this kind requires a stable, well regulated organisational structure within a predictable environment, such as is assumed in classical management theory. Without going into the matter too deeply, it is as well to appreciate that the management theorists of today pay more attention than their predecessors to change factors, both internal and external, and the complexity of their inter-relationships in managerial situations. Some of them (e.g. Burns and Stalker, 1961) differentiate between a 'mechanistic' structure of the type we have described above, appropriate in stable conditions, and a more flexible 'organic' or 'organismic' form to handle problems which cannot easily be broken down into separate parts or distributed hierarchically. Other writers (e.g. Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967) emphasise the environmental context and recommend a 'contingency model', which recognises that structures, even within the same organisation, will vary according to the problems with which they have to deal.

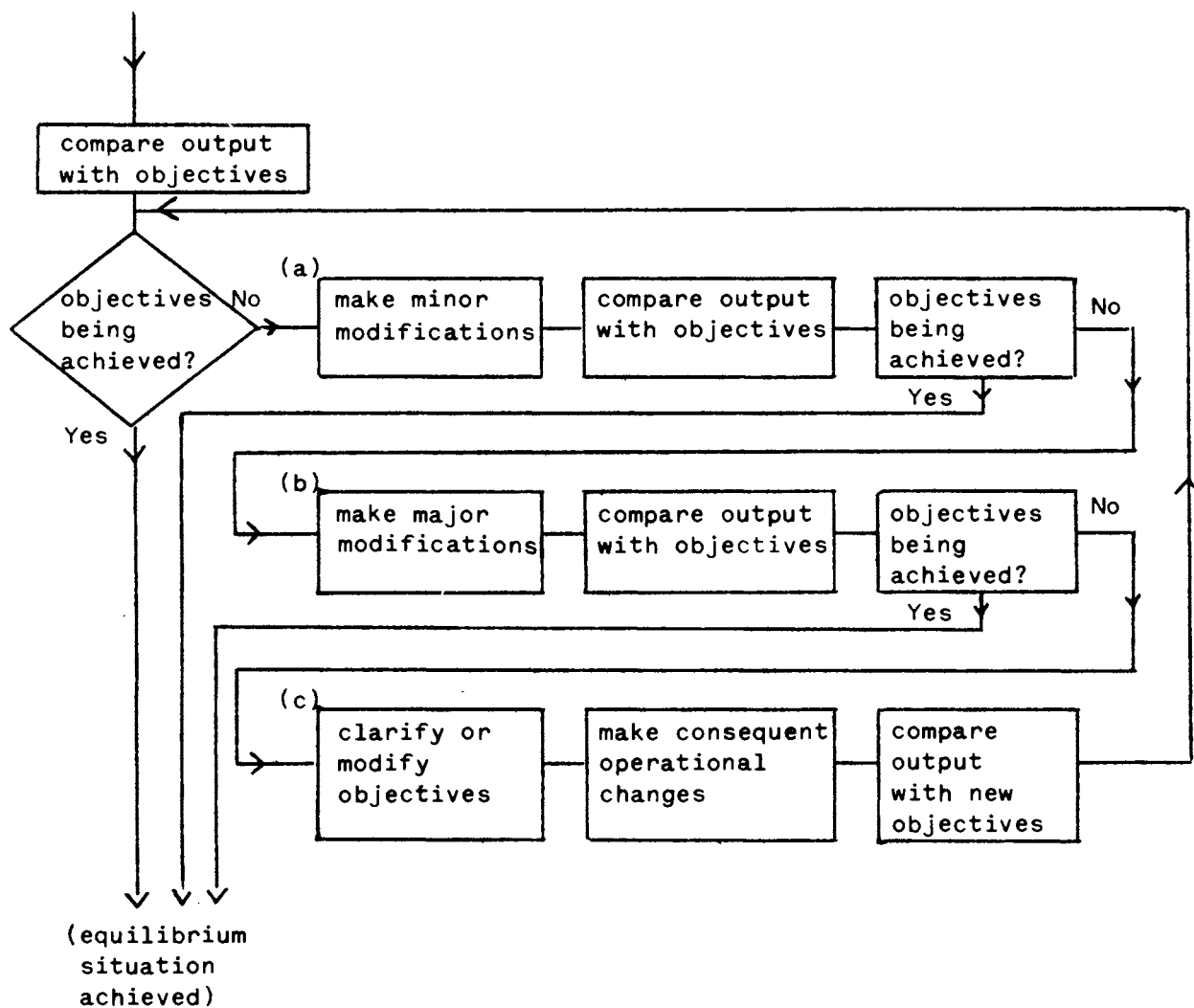


Figure 3: Making Adjustments: A Flow Diagram

Perception of organisational reality may also differ markedly among participants, and attention is consequently directed to the ways in which individuals and groups exert influence within organisations, according to their particular perspectives, interests and power resources (Greenfield 1975).

Provided it is accepted that alternative models or organisation can offer further insight from different perspectives the management control loop can still be a useful concept for our present purpose, but subject to three qualifications.

1. In conditions of rapid change it can only provide a first approximation to organisational operation in practice.
2. The differences and variety of educational goals and objectives, and the special characteristics of the various groups with which educational leaders in schools and district offices have to deal - students, teachers, parents and community representatives - pose special problems in applying a tightly structured model.
3. Because schools can increasingly be regarded as professionally staffed organisations, some structural looseness must be assumed and may well be desirable. It is still relevant to think in terms of management loops or cycles, but with the proviso that there should be sufficient flexibility to enable the growing professional expertise of teaching staff to make its due contribution to the school's decision-making process.

An analysis in greater detail will be provided later in the chapter on the elements involved in planning, in organising for implementation and in exercising a control function, which are the main elements of the management cycles we have described. But first of all further consideration is given to the concept of 'decision-making', which is a familiar term in the management textbooks, as it is in daily life. Some of the management authors use the expression, it should be noted, in a more restrictive sense than will be the case here.

Decision-making: a number of approaches

Decision making in educational administration, as in all human activity, is a continuing, pervasive activity. Decisions are involved for instance in each of the questions posed in the last chapter.

Many decisions in daily living are made instantaneously, almost without thought, as in the case of an experienced person driving a car or riding a bicycle. It is as though one is programmed to respond in a given way, given certain stimuli, just as a computer can be programmed so that, given a set of numbers, it immediately provides their sum, mean and standard deviation.

Programmed Decisions

In administration also, one may have programmed decisions. In dealing with college applications, for example, a clerk may check whether the applicant has the required basic qualifications. If so, the application is further processed, references are sent for, and interviews arranged. If not, a formal rejection letter is sent, politely pointing out that the applicant is not eligible for the course desired.

Non-Programmed Decisions

Programmed decisions are usually routine solutions to problems which arise frequently in the organisation. In many cases, perhaps in all cases, they could be computerised, and may well be so in the future, but human intervention would still be necessary in exceptional cases. In the above example, for instance, there might be a college applicant, possibly from another country, for whom it was not immediately apparent whether or not his qualifications satisfied the basic requirements. A non-programmed decision would be required in this case, which, if not regarded as important, possibly itself a significant decision, might be made on a one-off basis by the clerk or the clerk's supervisor. On the other hand, if the decision were thought to raise a matter of principle, creating a precedent for future cases of a similar nature, it might be decided to refer it to higher authority, perhaps even being placed on the agenda of the governing body of the institution. Once decided at high level, the outcome could, if desired, be written into the programme determining the subsequent decision making of the clerk (or the computer).

Routine Work

A rather different problem arises when even routine matters are dealt with as though they require individual attention at a high level. The situation is epitomised in what has been called Gresham's Law of Planning, which states that the routine work of administrators will tend to drive out non-programmed decisional activity. The point is one which may have immediate application in the school and the district office.

1. A school principal can be personally so heavily involved in form filling, absentee returns and other paper work for the central office, for which there is always a pressing deadline, or in the issue of exercise books, chalk and other consumables, that he has no time to think creatively about his role as professional leader in the school.

2. Similarly, in the district education office, it may be easier for the education officer and the inspector, conscious of directives from above and pressures from below, to work very cautiously within a previously established structure of decision taking, rather than to find time to ask pertinent, but potentially disruptive questions as to whether the regulations need to be changed or used in a new way to achieve different objectives.

Both situations provide examples of senior educationists being content to operate at the level of repetitive and routine procedures, whereas it would be more appropriate for them to exercise their educational leadership in more creative ways.

There are broadly three approaches to non-programmed decision making which the educational leader can adopt.

The rational approach

This may be regarded as the ideal mode of proceeding if resources are plentiful and there is ample time for the consideration of alternative solutions. In a well known description by March and Simon (1959) three main phases of rational decision making were identified as follows:

Problem Recognition

(a) The phase of problem recognition, during which the administrator first becomes aware that something is unsatisfactory or less satisfactory than it might be, and secondly, is able to identify the problem. The recognition of the nature of a problem and even of its existence, is largely a matter of judgement based on informed experience and general alertness. Exceptionally there might be some trigger mechanism, such as a warning signal in the case of unauthorised entry or when radio-activity reaches a certain level. In general it is probably true that the identification of the basic problem, which may differ from the problem as presented, is the most difficult part of the exercise.

Search for Solutions

(b) If the problem is new and unusual, the phase of search for possible solutions may be a lengthy and arduous task, which may tax the readiness of those involved to think creatively along new lines which others might dismiss as impractical. In theory, all possible solutions are considered, the advantages and disadvantages of each being analysed and appraised.

Choice of Solution

(c) The phase of determining which solution to adopt in the given circumstances is likely in large measure to involve a human judgement of relative value. The process is rational to the extent that the decision maker takes account of the information assembled and the analysis and appraisal undertaken during the second phase.

The 'satisficing' approach

In practice few decisions are made strictly in accordance with the rational model. Because of the pressures upon him, the busy administrator may have to rely on his own previous experience and decide what he considers to be the basic problem by intuition and in accordance with his own interests. At the second stage, he will not want to consider the whole universe of possible solutions, but only those he considers most likely to solve his problem. The third stage will probably end abruptly, for he will almost certainly stop looking once he has found a solution which he regards as satisfactory. He is unlikely to go on testing other solutions to see whether they are even better. Using a word introduced by Simon, the busy administrator is more interested in 'satisficing' than in optimising. The 'satisficing' approach may thus be regarded as an adaptation of rational decision making to take account of the constraints often encountered even when attempting to plan for the long term.

The incremental approach

The incremental approach is essentially the acceptance of the idea that in many real life situations it is only a very small step, rather than a radical change, which is likely to be acceptable to the different groups which the leader or administrator has to try to satisfy. His analysis is therefore deliberately limited to the consideration of alternative solutions which are only slightly or incrementally, different from the status quo. The decision maker is therefore not expecting to find a complete solution to his problem, but will be content for the present with the incremental improvement which is possible within existing constraints. As external conditions permit, further small changes in the desired direction may become possible, so that improvement is achieved not by a continuous process but through a succession of small steps. This is a strategy which is sometimes called 'disjointed incrementalism', after Lindblom (1959); a more familiar description is "the science of muddling through". The above account of the approach will be recognised by experienced principals, education officers and inspectors as a fair description of what tends to happen in practice when constraints and pressures are too great for radical change to be possible. In such circumstances the educational leader needs to cultivate an awareness of what can reasonably be achieved in the short term, but without compromising his commitment to well considered long term educational objectives.

Conclusion

Three approaches to decision making have been considered which those with leadership responsibilities in school systems might adopt when a routine or programmed solution is undesirable or not available. It has been suggested that each approach has relevance under different circumstances. It has also become clear that decision making in its various guises is a universal all-embracing activity which is involved in all aspects of educational management. These aspects are now examined in greater detail.

Decision-Making

Consider the major non-routine decisions in which you have been involved as principal/education officer/inspector in the last year.

1. Could any of these matters have been dealt with equally well by general procedures or regulation and hence, possibly, at a less senior level?

2. Of the problems which in your view required a non-programmed solution, to what extent did you adopt (a) the rational approach, (b) the satisficing approach, (c) the incremental approach? In the light of later experience, can you pick out any instances in which a different approach might have been better?

Processes of Educational Management

The discussion of the management control loop or cycle, as exemplified in Figure 2, (p 38) may be summarised by saying that, following the determination of objectives, there are essentially three stages or processes of management. These are:

1. The Planning Process
2. Organising for Implementation
3. Exercising Control

In terms of the input-output model, the first two stages relate to the 'feed-in' while the third relates to the 'feed-back'. In the rest of this chapter, each process will be discussed in turn.

Under the second heading attention will be given to the management processes of communicating, delegating, consulting, involving and co-ordinating.

Under the third heading consideration will be given not only with evaluating what is being achieved but also with effecting change. The first section, however deals with the planning process by which objectives are transformed into specific programmes.

1. The Planning Process

Educational planning is usually undertaken with the implicit assumption that something more ambitious is going to be attainable than is implied in the incremental approach which, as we have noted, has been characterised as "the science of muddling through". Though concessions may have to be made in practice to the softer expediciencies of 'satisficing' and 'incrementalising', the planner's ideal is always the rational model with its three phases of problem recognition, search for possible solutions, and solution adoption.

Planning Framework

Whatever the size of the project and whether the planning is done by specialists or by educational leaders at school and district levels as part of their normal work, educational planning has to take serious account of the general aims and objectives of the system, and how these may develop during the lifetime of the project. Within this framework the basic problem to which the educational planner is expected to supply solutions is usually fairly precise and generally of a reasonably long term nature. It is often assigned to him by a person in authority, so that Phase 1 of the rational approach (problem recognition) presents little difficulty. The essential planning required is the working out in detail of possible solutions (Phase 2), for the final choice of the solution to adopt (Phase 3) may well again be made by the presenters of the original problem.

Example: Planning for new secondary schools

Let us assume that the problem is the planning ab initio of new secondary schools for a district which already has primary schools in operation or under construction. Clearly there are a large number of variables to be taken into consideration. These will include:

1. The resources likely to be available for capital development in each year of the project.
2. The number of students who will complete their primary education over the next x years, and the proportion of them for whom secondary provision is to be available.
3. Possible sites for the building of schools, bearing in mind:
 - (a) Cost
 - (b) Accessibility
 - (c) Reasonable proximity to feeder primary schools and homes of the student population.
4. Views as to the desirability of large, medium sized or small schools.

Alternative Models	The planners may be well advised to get clarification on the last point before they proceed very far, but even then the number of theoretically possible solutions to their problem will be infinite, allowing for all minor variations. What they are likely to do is to work on a number of alternative models which cover the main possibilities. As each alternative is developed, choices have to be made at every stage, and again it will not be practical to cover every possibility. At each sequential step, therefore, a judgement has to be made as to which variants to follow up at the next stage, which means that other possibilities are cumulatively foreclosed. The final outcome of this work will be a number of discrete models for the siting and building of secondary schools, with a number of variants indicated, in relation to alternative decisions, within the major models. For each model and variant the estimated total cost will need to be known, and an analysis provided of its merits and demerits as a solution of the planning problem. Any attempt to quantify the strengths and weaknesses of the models in terms of a single overall utility function poses severe difficulties, because of the assumptions which have to be made concerning the relative weighting of different factors. It is usually better for such matters to be assessed during the third phase of decision making by whoever has to decide which of the solutions to accept and adopt. It is legitimate for the planners to offer a recommendation, based on their detailed knowledge of the alternatives, but it would normally be a matter for disquiet if all but one of the models had already been discarded, leaving only one model for final consideration.
Quantitative Techniques	Planning of the kind indicated in the above example requires considerable expertise. In a number of countries educational planners have emerged as an identifiable group and a number of sophisticated quantitative techniques are available to them including critical path analysis, linear programming, mathematical modelling, simulation techniques, and output budgeting.
Co-ordination	In order to achieve effective articulation between planning and the general administration of education, it is important that the planners should interact with those who will make decisions on adoption and those involved in implementing the plan adopted. By doing so they will become aware at an early stage of options on which detailed work would be wasted either for political reasons or because of practical considerations unknown to the planners which would make the option unworkable in practice. It is equally important that educational administrators, who have to brief planners and who are involved in the implementation of planning schemes, should have some understanding of the type of thinking and the procedures that are involved. They can also help by giving advice on the variables which should be built into the planning scheme and those which can safely be ignored.

Planning Instructions

Educational planning also occurs whenever an educational leader in the school or the district office makes thorough preparations before taking action, organising his decision making in sequence in a systematic way. How this can be done will be shown by giving planning instructions under five headings and then giving an example of a planning exercise similarly structured.

Clarify Objectives

State the specific objectives of the activity being planned in relation to the overall educational objectives of the school or district.

Identify Options

Give consideration to alternative ways of achieving the objectives.

Assess which of the options would be most effective and consider what consequences would be likely to follow in each case, including the possible disruption of other programmes. Some of these unintended consequences might be useful; others might be better avoided.

Examine what resources are needed for each option in terms of time, personnel, facilities and equipment.

Consult those affected for their views, as appropriate. Those who have been involved at the planning stage are likely to be more committed to implementation.

Choose Preferred Options

Select between the different options, bearing in mind effectiveness, unintended consequences and the necessary resources.

Specify Activities

Identify the activities needed to implement the agreed line of action.

Work out the order in which the activities follow one another, which activities can be undertaken at the same time as others, and which are dependent on the completion of another task. In the example which follows these relationships are shown in a simple flow chart arranged in a linked sequence from left to right, simultaneous activities being linked in parallel.

Estimate a notional duration for each activity and then, having regard to the planned sequence and the possibility of undertaking specified activities simultaneously, work out the minimum overall time required.

Identify the 'critical path', i.e. the set of activities for which it is essential that they be completed on time for the minimum overall time to be achieved.

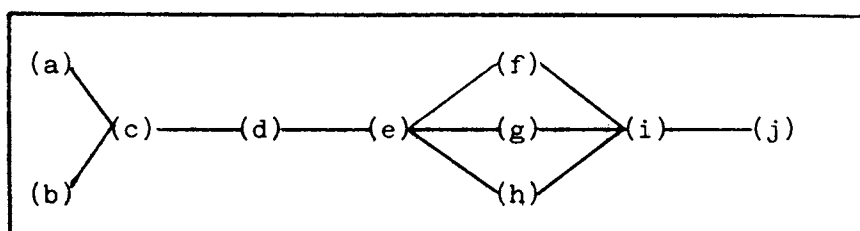
If the overall time is too long to be acceptable, consider what activities can be omitted or shortened. Consider also whether additional resources would speed up activities belonging to the critical path and hence shorten the overall time.

Monitor Progress	Decide in relation to the stated objectives by what criteria the programme of activities will be evaluated. Good planning requires agreement on evaluative criteria <u>before</u> the programme of activities is begun. Having regard to the criteria of evaluation, establish a monitoring system to obtain 'feedback' on progress so that necessary adjustments can be made as the project develops. Example: Planning an in-service course for secondary principals. The following is broadly set out in accordance with the five stages described above.
Clarify Objectives	At the end of the course principals should be able to: (a) Exercise professional leadership in the area of curriculum. (b) Translate an official syllabus into an effective and dynamic school programme.
Identify Options	(a) Inspector spends a week in each school working with principal on school programme. (b) Run course in term-time for two weeks at a residential centre. (c) Run course on a day basis over a series of weekends. (d) Use two weeks of long holiday for course. Consider the effectiveness of the alternatives, and also the resources needed and the unintended consequences. Option (a) will be very slow to fit in all the schools and the principals will not be able to influence each other, so the effectiveness of the programme will be reduced. Option (b) will disrupt school programmes and will be the most expensive to arrange as accommodation is not easily available in term-time. Option (c) will enable principals to apply the course as it proceeds and is, therefore, effective provided the course venue is within easy reach of all participants. Option (d) will enable participants to work together for a sustained period but effectiveness is reduced if the course is too much separated from their school situation. <u>Consult:</u> principals, district inspectors, director of in-service training in the ministry, district education committee, and the nearest teachers' training college.
Choose Preferred Options	<u>Decision:</u> Combine vacation courses, option (d) with day visits to follow-up the course in the schools involved, if funds and accommodation are available. Otherwise, try option (c) for a smaller number of participants.

Specify
Activities

- (a) Draft an outline programme of the course.
- (b) Ascertain if accommodation and facilities are available.
- (c) Obtain authorisation/funds from ministry/district.
- (d) Notify principals.
- (e) Plan the detailed programme in conjunction with principals/inspectors.
- (f) Send out invitations to speakers from the ministry, and the community, and act on replies.
- (g) Prepare case study material.
- (h) Make arrangements for catering.
- (i) Hold the course.
- (j) Complete follow-up activities.

Flow chart of above activities:



Note: In this example activities (a) and (b) and activities (f), (g) and (h) could be run simultaneously.

- (a) Would you agree with the order of activities for this project?
- (b) What notional times would you allow for each activity?
- (c) How long would you have to allow from the start of (a)/(b) to the start of activity (i)?

Monitor
Progress

Before the course: Check on completion of specified planning activities within the notional times allotted and prepare forms for evaluation of course by participants.

After the course: When visiting the schools to follow up the course, discuss with principals what initiatives they have taken, how they have involved their staff and what progress has been made in increasing the effectiveness of the school programme overall or in one area.

Planning in the task areas of educational leadership

This section of the planning process is completed with an exercise in three parts based on the example given above, followed by a case study which provides an example of the kind of planning which is required when a school is being enlarged. The case study is, in fact, a sequel to the Abakelion District case study in the previous chapter (p 29).

Exercise

The example on pages 50 to 51, on the provision of an in-service course for secondary headteachers illustrates the planning process in the third of the five task areas of educational leadership considered in Chapter 2, the area of Staffing Matters.

1. Undertake a similar planning exercise in another task area. For example, in the Community Relations area; planning a school open day.
2. Consider whether a similar planning process is applicable in the Curriculum Area in the preparation of the school timetable. What are the problems involved?
3. Sketch out a planning exercise in the area of Resource Management, in the provision of teaching space and facilities for:
 - (a) A new intake to a primary school.
 - (b) A new group of adult learners.

Case Study: Planning within a school which is being enlarged

The Minister of Education has decided that the Abako High School (see page 29 above) shall be enlarged to take three forms of entry. So as to cater for children from other parts of Abakelion District boarding accommodation will be provided for the extra 35 pupils per year. The Chief Education Officer has written to the Principal, Mr Nkongo, informing him of this decision as follows:

"As you know, the development of secondary education in Abakelion District has been under close consideration in the Ministry. In the light of the planning review, the Minister has decided that the best way of meeting district needs for the foreseeable future is by adding a third stream of 35 pupils and providing boarding facilities to accommodate this addition to your intake."

"The building work will be undertaken in two phases. Phase 1 will include two dormitory units, for 35 boys and girls respectively, and kitchen facilities. Phase 2 will commence two years later and will provide two similar dormitory units so as to accommodate the extra

intake for the full four-year course. Dining hall facilities will have to be erected on a self-help basis by the school with community support."

"In making this decision, the Minister was concerned that the development of boarding facilities should not detract from implementation of education policy to make schools less reliant on government subsidies and to integrate the activities of the schools more closely with the life of the community. These goals will be given increased emphasis in our programmes. In some instances it has appeared, however, that boarding schools tend to be more isolated from the community than day schools and to foster false ideas of an elite. This Ministry will be concerned to see that neither of these results follow at Abako."

"An inspector from the Ministry will be visiting Abako High School with the District Education Officer in a month or so, to discuss with you some aspects of future school organisation in relation to the proposed developments. In preparation for this meeting it is suggested that you should draw up a draft plan for the future organisation of the school. You may make specific recommendations, but should give attention to the various alternatives that might be considered. To assist you in your planning, you are informed that the teaching establishment will be increased by two in each of the first two years of the new intake and by one in each of the two following years."

The District Education Officer has confirmed that he and the Ministry Inspector will be arriving in four weeks time, which is eighteen months before the first boarders arrive. You are the Principal, Mr Nkongo, and you are asked to prepare the first draft of the paper you will put forward for discussion with the Inspector and the Education Officer, taking whatever preliminary steps you regard as desirable. Background information on the school is provided overleaf in an extract from a previous inspection report and a summary of present staffing. If the information provided is not sufficient, make further assumptions, which you should state clearly, as you find necessary.

Your draft should include consideration of the implications of the planned developments on the school and staff as constituted at present. Among the matters you might consider are the following:

1. As the school expands, what changes, if any, in the curricular arrangements are possible and might be desirable? Should you consider, for instance, the provision of some choice for senior students, should there be some form of streaming, or should there be any other form of differentiation?

2. Having regard to your proposals concerning curriculum development, indicate the qualities and subject expertise you would welcome in the six additional members of staff who will be joining you. Differentiate, if you are able to do so, between your requirements in the first two years and in the latter two years.

3. As the school staff increases from 12 to 18, is it desirable to think in terms of a more differentiated staff structure? Should there be a designated deputy principal? Should there be subject departments/year tutors?

4. (a) What alternatives are open to you with regard to the organisation of the boarding unit? Bear in mind that if staff are rostered to undertake boarding duties in turn, no special allowances will be payable. If members of staff have designated responsibilities for the boarding side, allowances could be expected to be available.

(b) Recommend a scheme which you would consider to be effective but also acceptable to the Ministry on economic grounds.

(c) Draft appropriate duty statements outlining the responsibilities involved.

(d) How would you plan for boarders themselves to undertake some responsibilities, bearing in mind that the extra ancillary staff permitted will be for cooking duties only?

5. What plans do you propose for informing parents of the considerable changes which are imminent, and for mobilising community support for the expanded school?

6. Are there any planning implications in the fact that the proposed expansion will occur gradually over a four year period?"

If the exercise is undertaken in a group training session, there should first be some time for individual consideration, followed by group discussion. One member in each group should then take the role of the Principal in explaining and discussing his draft plan with the Ministry Inspector and the District Education Officer, played by other members of the group.

Appendix

Extract from previous inspection report: Abako High School

Organisation

This is a high school for 280 boys and girls. There is no streaming at present. The classes are Forms I to IV and the same subjects are taught throughout. The organisation of subject departments has only just begun with English under the principal. No schemes of work were available for inspection.

A prefect system operates. The prefects - six in number (including the senior prefect) are appointed by the staff. Form monitors are elected by the pupils.

Breakdown of subjects taught in the school

Subject	Periods per week				Duration
	Form 1	Form 2	Form 3	Form 4	
English (E)	7	7	7	9	35 minutes
Maths (M)	6	6	6	6	"
French (F)	5	4	4	4	"
General Science (GS)	4	4	4	4	"
Religious Knowledge (R)	3	2	2	2	"
Geography (G)	4	4	4	4	"
History (H)	4	4	4	4	"
Physical Education (P)	2	2	2	1	"
Swahili (S)	3	3	3	3	"
Civics/Government (C)	2	3	3	3	"

<u>Current Staffing</u>	<u>Qualification</u>	<u>Subjects</u>	<u>Teaching Experience</u>
1. Mr Principal	B.A. Dip.Ed.	E	11 years
2. Mr A	B.Sc. Dip.Ed.	M/GS	5 years
3. Mr B	B.A.	E/G	1 year
4. Mrs B	Teachers Certificate	E/H/P	2 years
5. Mr C	M.A. Dip.Ed.	F/C	4 years
6. Mr D	Teachers Certificate	P/S/C	1 year
7. Mr E	Teachers Certificate	G/H	7 years
8. Mr F	B.A.	E/R/S	2 years
9. Miss G	B.A.	M/F	3 months
10. Mrs H	Teachers Certificate	M/R/C	3 months
11. Mr I	B.A. Dip.Ed.	E/G/H	3 months
12. Mr K	B.Sc.	M/GS	1 year

2. Organising for Implementation

To clarify the concept of organising, one may begin with a dictionary definition of the verb 'to organise'. The idea commonly expressed is that of bringing various elements together in a way which establishes a pattern of relationships, e.g. "to arrange or constitute in inter-dependent parts, each having a special function, office or relation with respect to the whole." A simple example may be helpful.

An experienced former football player brought together a group of boys in an inner city area who had previously had little contact with each other. He thought he would try to get them interested in playing football. By dint of hard work, a thorough knowledge of the game, plenty of enthusiasm and a persuasive manner, the old football player won the confidence and co-operation of the boys. He gradually organised what had previously been a random group to become a cohesive and effective football team. The team, it will be noted, had a well defined agreed objective, namely, to win as many games as possible against opposing teams. Their success in achieving this objective would then be regarded by the team and its coach as a measure of the team's effectiveness.

The word organisation can then be used to signify an arrangement of separate parts or units which together contribute to the achievement of a common purpose or objective as though they constitute a simple entity. The assumption of a common purpose, though probably justified in the case of the football team, may not always be warranted when the parts or units are people. The conflict of interest which arises when a common perception of purpose is lacking is a source of many of the problems which are found in human organisations. Even where there are publicly agreed objectives for the organisation, one needs to take careful note of whether the objectives are fully agreed by the membership.

In looking more closely at the process of organising as undertaken by the educational leader at school and district levels, it is useful to distinguish between a long term or structural aspect, and a short term or adaptive aspect. The two are considered in turn.

The long term aspect

One can envisage two very different situations which a newly appointed educational leader might have to face:

1. He might be taking up a post as the first head of a new district office or as the first principal of a new school. It will then be his particular task as leader to create and initiate the broad structure of relationships within which the work of the new organisation will proceed. The 'initiation of structure' has indeed been claimed to be one of the two basic dimensions of leadership, the other being 'consideration' for those who are followers. Both are

important. When the new leader is putting forward his initiating structures, it will be wise for him also to show his consideration for the views of others by being sufficiently flexible to modify his proposals to take account of unintended and undesired consequences pointed out by colleagues.

2. If the educational leader is taking over an existing district office or the principalship of an existing school, he will inherit a well established organisational structure which has developed over a period of time and which may, or may not, be relevant to the current aims and objectives of the system. The new leader will need time to review and understand how the system is working, and to form a personal assessment of where it needs to be strengthened or changed. At the same time he will be building up a personal relationship with his new colleagues which will be essential if, reverting to our definition of organisation, they are together to "contribute to the achievement of a common purpose or objective as though they constitute a single entity". In such circumstances, to operate through a series of small incremental changes over a period of time and as circumstances permit, may be more productive than seeking to effect radical change at great speed.

The short term aspect

The district officer, the inspector and the principal have to be concerned not only with broad structures and arrangements of a long term nature but also with the task of organising as it happens in daily life. Arrangements have to be made and modified to meet the exigencies of the moment, and it is unwise for the leader, in pursuit of long term objectives, to be so remote and insulated from the interruptions, discontinuities and sudden emergencies of the outer office that he does not know what is going on in his organisation from day to day.

On the other hand he would be unwise to organise things in such a way that all decisions, however, trivial, have to be made by him. This point will be considered again later. The leader who wishes to decide everything in his organisation puts himself, and probably others, under great strain. This is likely, in the long term, seriously to endanger his health. His main organisational task should be not to make all decisions but the development and maintenance of the decision-making structures, just as his main leadership task is to harness those structures for the achievement of the agreed educational objectives.

For those whose main concern is with education and its provision, phrases such as "organising for implementation" and "the development and maintenance of the decision-making structures" may seem rather remote and managerial. In the

rest of this section these abstractions will be considered in more specific terms under four headings:

Communicating

Delegating

Consulting/Involving

Co-ordinating

As reassurance, each aspect will be considered in an educational context, using illustrative examples as appropriate.

Communicating

The main aspects of the roles of the principal and the district officer/inspector as communicators will be identified first.

The Principal

Within the Administrative Structure

1. The principal has a basic communication role in relation to those to whom he is responsible in the administrative structure. It is through him that information, guidance and directives will come to the school from the central office, and it is his task to explain and interpret such messages within the school. Equally important is the quality of the communication from the school to the central office, for which the principal is also responsible. This implies much more than accurate form-filling and the regular despatch of statistics. It is on the principal's skill and initiative as a communicator and interpreter that his administrative superiors must largely rely for their understanding of his school and its problems.

The Local Community

2. Outside the school the principal has a further representative role to play, interpreting the school to the community, while communicating to the school the expectations and concerns of the community. This does not require that he should claim exclusive rights or competence as a communicator, or act as a 'gate keeper' in an almost literal sense, preventing the contact of staff and students with the outside world. It means rather that as the professional and administrative head of the school he will be particularly well placed to initiate and facilitate communication. It may be mainly as a courtesy that visitors to the school will call on him first, though one can envisage circumstances in which the principal would deny an irate parent access to a particular member of staff, and would prefer to deal with the complaint himself. Outward official letters will usually be written or signed by him, subject to some delegation of specific types of letter in larger schools, and in that sense there is a control aspect to his communication role.

Within the School

3. The system of formal communication within the school is the responsibility of the principal. This includes the filing and record systems, the notices and information sheets (which must not become so numerous or voluminous that no one reads them), and the oral communication at school assemblies and other occasions.

Staff,
Students and
Parents

4. The principal has a more general responsibility for encouraging the flow of information and discussion among staff, among students and between staff and students. He may also need to be involved in a similar role in relation to parents through a Parents' Association or Parent Teacher Association.

The Education Officer/Inspector

Within the
Administrative
Structure

1. The regional or district officer/inspector provides a two-way means of communication between the ministry and the schools, and between the schools and other government departments at district/regional level. At its simplest the role is that of postman, but it may also have a significant interpretative aspect both ways.

A Filter

2. He acts as a filter, ensuring that messages which need re-directing or to be handled differently are appropriately dealt with. This aspect requires sensitivity and good judgement, for any suggestion that legitimate communication was being impeded would rightly be a matter of disquiet.

A Linking
Agent

3. As a linking agent he can initiate contacts between one school and another, and between schools and people outside the school system, whenever the transfer of ideas and experience can help to achieve the educational objectives of the region/district.

Spokesman

4. There is also a communications role at regional/district level with other officials, with public representatives and with boards/committees, in relation to which the officer/inspector is the spokesman of the educational system.

Two-Way
Communication

Both at the school level and the regional/district level, perhaps the most important point to be made is that the communication must be two way, both vertically and horizontally. This is particularly important, as was emphasised at the 1978 Regional Training Course for the Commonwealth Pacific at Suva, Fiji, in widely scattered communities where schools, and even district administrators have to operate in relative isolation. In such circumstances effective communication becomes crucial. This must mean, at a minimum, that:

1. People have the specific information they need when they need it.
2. People know what to do with the information when they have it.

3. The person who sends information is in turn informed that it has been received and what action is being taken as a result.

The Regional Training Course at Suva, to which reference is made above gave particular attention to the procedures which might be adopted in relation to two situations in which effective communication is of great importance, namely:

- (a) Conducting a meeting
- (b) Interviewing candidates for a post

The following is taken from the report of the course, Educational Administration and Supervision (Commonwealth Secretariat 1979).

Conducting a Meeting

Preliminaries

1. Notice of the meeting or invitation to attend the meeting should be sent at least seven days before the date fixed for the meeting. The notice should contain the agenda, some information on the special topic, if there is one and the minutes of the last meeting, if it is a regular group.

Members should be invited to make contributions to the agenda.

2. Ensure that the meeting place is prepared and ready at least half an hour before the scheduled time.

3. Paper should be available, and, if the meeting is likely to last for more than an hour, some refreshment should be provided.

4. If there is to be a speaker then the members who are to welcome the speaker and to move the vote of thanks should be identified and informed. Someone should be available to receive the speaker on arrival.

Role of the Chairman

1. Create an easy atmosphere such that it encourages freedom to communicate. Be businesslike yet friendly.
2. Guide the flow of discussion, shifting questions around. Keep order.
3. Clarify questions or ask the questioner to state a question another way.
4. Keep the group on the topic.

5. Look into the face of participants. Be sensitive to restlessness, boredom, squirming in chairs.
6. Encourage participation by all present. Control the over-talkative, seek contributions from the shy, or less articulate members.
7. Be on the look-out for camps - the alignment of members in sub-groups.
8. Look out for potential leaders within the group. Even leaders who disagree may be used to help clarify a position.
9. Work towards a consensus.
10. Summarize the discussion from time to time. This may be done by the secretary also.
11. Ask questions that get members to state areas of agreement then work towards more agreement where it has not yet been achieved.
12. Make a final summary. The meeting should reach a conclusion. If consensus is not reached the meeting may be adjourned and members arrange to meet again for further discussion.
13. Minutes of the meeting should be circulated before members meet again. The minutes should state decisions, points of agreement and disagreement, proposals, recommendations but not dialogues.

Interviewing Candidates

Preparation

1. Review all the information about the persons to be interviewed. Study the applications and read the references.
2. Make a list of the candidates in the order in which they are to appear and know the names.
3. Within the room place the chair exactly where you would like the candidate to sit.
4. Prepare a format for recording information or scores. Decide on criteria, for example:
 - Communication
 - Interest
 - Knowledge of the position sought
 - Experience

Each member of the panel may select one area for initiating discussion but other members may be invited to participate.

5. The Chairman must direct the interview.

The Interview

1. Welcome the candidate by name and try to put him/her at ease. Avoid flattery.

2. Do not appear rushed, impatient or display dissatisfaction or confusion.

3. Avoid expression of approval or disapproval of the candidates responses.

4. Have a few questions handy in case the interview dries up, but use responses to let the interview flow.

5. Do not convey your decision one way or the other to the candidate.

6. The panel should compare notes after each candidate has been interviewed.

7. The candidates may be asked to remain and await a decision, or they may be told that they would hear from the panel. If a decision is made, the candidate chosen should be recalled and briefed as is necessary.

Communication

1. In your own school or a school under your supervision, examine the process of communication in each of the five task areas considered in Chapter 2; curricular issues, student welfare, staffing matters, resource management, community relationships.

With regard to each area, consider:

- (a) What written communications were made in the last month?
- (b) What feed-back was invited?
- (c) What feed-back was received?
- (d) What meetings were arranged?
- (e) What subjects were discussed?

2. A principal may be able to take this a stage further by noting all oral communications he makes during one working day. In each case note:

- (a) Which task areas were dealt with.
- (b) With whom he was communicating.
- (c) Whether he was passing on or receiving information or giving instructions.

3. In the light of this data, what conclusions can be drawn about the flow of information upwards, downwards and sideways? Are those affected by proposed changes informed or consulted? Is feed-back adequate?

Delegating

The main topics to be considered are delegation, and with the allocation of responsibilities within a school, but the same principles can be applied to the regional/district office also, and to the inspectorate.

In every school, apart from a one teacher school, there is division of work in relation to the teaching function. Except in a very small school, there also has to be some delegation or allocation of responsibilities in administrative matters. This can be done for particular tasks as they arise, according to who happens to be available, but it is often found that a better way is to plan well ahead and to delegate a general area of responsibility after due consideration to a person who will then be able to acquire specialist knowledge and expertise in that area.

A number of general points can be made concerning delegation:

Clear Specification

1. Delegation needs to be in specific terms, with clear specification of the matters delegated and any time limit or other conditions involved. If A delegates to B the situation must be clearly understood, not only by A and B, but also by C, D and E, who, in relation to matters in the area of delegation, will now need to make contact with B rather than A.

Accountability

2. When A has delegated to B, it is important that he should appreciate that he has not lessened in any way his own personal responsibility to higher authority for the matters delegated. If the pastoral care of students is delegated to the deputy principal, the deputy principal is accountable to the principal, and not directly to higher authority, for the exercise of his responsibilities. It is not possible for the principal to evade his own general responsibility by saying that these matters are now dealt with by someone else. However superficially attractive it might be to "delegate and forget", educational leaders should be warned that such a precept is highly misleading, it stores up trouble for the future and is foolhardy to adopt.

Accounting Procedures

3. A clear understanding is desirable about the way in which B's accountability to A is to be achieved. It would be inappropriate, and would largely defeat the purpose of the delegation, for the delegator to observe and check every move made by the delegatee, or for him to intervene or resume control as soon as any sign of difficulty appears. Presumably delegation would not have occurred without A having some confidence in the ability of B to accept and exercise responsibility, subject to being able to seek advice if necessary. From time to time or at agreed intervals a formal reporting and accounting procedure would usually be appropriate. In the early stages taking a friendly

interest from some way off, but sufficiently near to provide help if necessary, will be a better stance for the delegator than constantly getting in the way or breathing down his junior colleague's neck.

Training and Resources

4. The delegator must learn to accept that on occasion duties delegated will be done less well than if one did them oneself. Given that no one person, however gifted, can do everything in a school or education office, the human frailties of one's colleagues is a limitation that has to be lived with, and preferably without blood pressures excessively rising. It shows the need, however, for:

- (a) A to prepare B for his new responsibilities and to provide any necessary training.
- (b) A to ensure that he has provided B with the necessary resources as well as the authority required to carry out his responsibilities.
- (c) A unobtrusively to keep the situation under review when he becomes aware that problems are being experienced.

In accordance with the above, the allocation of responsibilities to the deputy principal, if there is one, and to other senior colleagues, needs to be carefully worked out and precisely stated, so as to avoid misunderstanding and conflicting perceptions as to who is responsible for what. It will be appropriate, and may be necessary, for important personnel matters of this kind to be discussed and agreed with the district education officer or inspector. This will apply particularly if grades of salary are involved, as they may well be.

The Deputy Principal

Basic Responsibility

Where the post of deputy principal is designated, the most obvious part of his responsibilities is to deputise or stand in for the principal when the principal is away from the school because of official business or indisposition. What other administrative responsibilities are entrusted to the deputy principal and to what extent his teaching load is lightened for him to be able to carry out these responsibilities varies greatly even among schools of the same size and type in the same country. Much depends on the personal relationship between the principal and deputy principal, and on the administrative tasks which the principal wishes to undertake himself.

Other Responsibilities

In many schools the deputy principal has responsibility for the day to day running of the school in the sense that he will normally be the person who will be approached in the first instance by staff and students when problems arise, and he may well have a maintenance role in relation to the school buildings, the stock-taking of furniture and

equipment, and liaison with the school caretaker and the cleaning staff. In some schools he will have responsibility, working closely with the principal, for timetable planning and construction, and he will frequently be the person who makes day to day timetable adjustments, such as arranging for relief teachers during the absence of staff.

Channels of Communication

The deputy's role can thus frequently appear to be just a collection of small administrative chores, many of which might be done by a person of less seniority and experience. It may be desirable for the principal and the deputy to consider together how such a situation can be avoided, such as by some rotation between them, or among the deputies if there is more than one deputy, of some of the more mundane tasks. But whether or not it is noted in a job description, there is one great service to the school which a deputy principal can perform, and that is to ensure that there are adequate channels of communication between the principal and staff and among the staff themselves. He can thereby help to create good staff relationships and an organisational climate conducive to task achievement. A further possibility which fits in with this concept is for the deputy principal to be responsible for staff development, including activities within the school as well as external courses.

Heads of Departments

Whereas there may be deputy principals in primary or elementary schools as well as in secondary schools, the concept of headship of department will be particularly relevant at the secondary stage, where there is the possibility of staff specialisation by subject area. If there is a well developed departmental system, the general principle is that the heads of department are responsible for all aspects of their subjects as taught in the school. This may be expected to include the following duties:

Syllabus

1. To draw up a syllabus or scheme of work in association with departmental colleagues and ensure that it is annually reviewed. The syllabus should be sufficiently detailed to indicate the work to be covered by each class during the year, and should deal with method and technique as well as with content.

Quality Control

2. To allocate teachers to classes in the department and check the quality and the standards of work which obtain. This includes supervising from time to time the setting of classwork and homework and the marking of exercise books across the department.

New Staff

3. To supervise the teaching of all departmental staff, giving particular attention to the development of new and inexperienced staff.

Inter-Departmental Co-ordination	4. To liaise as appropriate with other heads of department to draw up joint courses and methods of assessing such courses.
Assessment	5. To be involved in relation to his subject in any external examination arrangements, and to arrange such tests and examinations in his subject area as are agreed to be necessary for internal assessment.
Stock	6. To requisition books, stationery, apparatus, etc. needed by the department, and ensure that stock lists are kept up to date.
Meetings	7. To arrange regular departmental meetings at which professional as well as procedural issues are discussed with colleagues, and to attend head of department meetings called by the principal.
Professional Development	8. To keep abreast of the relevant curriculum developments in his/her area, and to encourage colleagues to do likewise. The head of department should actively encourage the in-service training of departmental colleagues.

Such specific delegation and acceptance of responsibilities does not always occur by any means, and it is possible for a departmental structure to be an empty shell which contributes little to the achievement of the school's objectives. It is for the principal to see that this does not happen by encouraging heads of department to accept full managerial responsibility for the work of their subject colleagues. He/she must also prepare them for doing so by appropriate training.

Other Staff Roles	As set out above for the headship of department position, duties can be drawn up for house masters/mistresses, year masters/mistresses, heads of upper/lower school, form teachers, and so on. If there is due consultation, and there are opportunities for guidance and in-service training where necessary, it will usually be found that staff will welcome a clear indication of what is expected of them.
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School Handbook

When progress has been made in the task of defining staff roles, many schools find it helpful to put these role descriptions together in a staff handbook, together with other information about school procedures. Each member of staff would have a copy of the handbook. A copy is then given to new members of staff, and is carefully explained to them by the principal or deputy principal as a part of their induction into the school.

Delegation

1. Referring back to the Case Study on page 52, the Ministry was impressed by the draft plan which you, Mr Nkongo, the Principal, produced for the future organisation of Abako High School. It was also felt that you will need the assistance of a designated deputy principal in order successfully to carry out the expansion of the school and the other developments you have suggested.

It has therefore been decided that one of the first two of the six additional posts to be made available to the school will be at deputy principal level, it being made clear that any of the existing staff may also apply. You are therefore invited to draft a job description for the deputy principal position which will be circulated with details of the post if approved by the district officer and the ministry inspector. Prepare your job specification.

2. You are preparing a staff handbook for the school of which you are principal, or a school for which you are responsible. Using the description that has been given above of the head of department position in secondary schools as a general guide, prepare job descriptions of the roles which in your view need to be included in the handbook. Indicate the main headings of the other information you would provide in the handbook.

Consulting/Involving

In most countries today there is increasing support for the view that all engaged in any enterprise, whether commercial, social, political or educational, should have some part in the decision-making process which will affect their daily life. The desire to be consulted and involved may extend more generally, as noted in the previous chapter in relation to several of the task areas of educational leadership. In education the interest of parents and community, as well as of staff and students, has to be considered.

Participation and Educational Objectives

There is a sense in which the growing desire to participate is an indication of the success of the educational process itself, in that one of the general goals implicit in most educational objectives is to enable people to think for themselves, relying on their own judgement. Educational leaders at school and district levels who in the past adopted, and may have needed to adopt, a rather directive style of working, will have some difficulty in adjusting to a more participative approach, but this is something with which all administrators have to come to terms in the modern world. In education, if we are to be consistent with one of our almost universally agreed goals, we should find it possible to make a positive and welcoming response to an understandable desire to be involved, when expressed by relevant groups.

Final decisions will in many cases still have to be made by boards or officials vested with formal authority; but the involvement of a wider constituency on major issues, though it takes time, is often helpful because it draws attention to aspects and perspectives on a complex problem which might otherwise be overlooked.

Authenticity

Pretended involvement, however, which is merely a public relations exercise, is a dangerous expedient and can easily be counterproductive. If consultation is to be beneficial, it is important that all invited to contribute to the discussion should see at the end of the day, not that their own views have necessarily prevailed, but that the participative process was genuine, i.e. that the vital decisions had not been made beforehand. This requires an openness of mind and an integrity of approach, summed up in the term "authenticity", on the part of all the participants, those consulting and those consulted.

This discussion is particularly relevant to:

- (1) The relationship of the school principal to the teaching staff of his school.
- (2) The relationship of a subject inspector to the subject teachers in his area.

The Pace of Change	In both cases it may be argued that the speed of change in education and the increasing complexity of school activities make it more necessary than ever before that the practitioners in the classrooms should be consulted and involved when major changes are contemplated.
New Teaching Methods	It may also be noted that new teaching methods in both primary and secondary schools almost invariably presuppose a more co-operative team approach and more sharing of responsibility among colleagues than has usually been customary. This may be coupled with a steady improvement in the quality of initial and in-service teacher training in many countries. These factors combine to enhance the sense of professionalism among teachers, which becomes manifest in a strengthened desire for more consultation and participation.
Curriculum Development	The success of a curriculum development project, and of curriculum implementation generally, depends on getting accurate and constructive feed-back from the teachers in the classroom. This means that establishing two-way communication is vital for the subject inspector.
Staff Expertise	Staff involvement also has advantages from the principal's viewpoint. It provides him with a useful check on his own judgement and enables him to make full use of the ability and accumulated expertise of the more experienced teachers through occasions which may indirectly contribute to the professional growth of the less experienced teachers. Whether it happens in staff meetings, in a working group or during informal staff room conversation, ideas of value are likely to emerge, and suggestions from staff may show ways of improving existing procedures and future plans.
Staff Support	Another benefit of consultation for the principal has been well described in a paper published by an association of headmasters or school principals.

"Consultation will be found of value... not only because it will produce new ideas and valid criticisms but also because it will permit the headmaster to measure the response of his colleagues to suggestions and assess their attitudes to the matters under discussion. It may provide the headmaster with an opportunity to win willing support for an innovation which would otherwise be accepted only grudgingly. On the other hand, it may show him that a proposal needs to be modified, even if he remains convinced of its wisdom in the abstract, because he recognises that his colleagues have not been persuaded of the desirability of giving it the whole-hearted support without which it will be unsuccessful. The opinion of the staff is a factor in almost every situation which a headmaster is required to assess and needs to be taken into account before he reaches a decision. Sometimes, by giving his colleagues information or offering them a reasoned argument, he will be able to change their views but he will hardly ever be in a position to ignore them." (Head Masters Association, United Kingdom 1972)

Staff
Development

As already implied, consultation with staff may also be seen as an aspect of staff development, both for the principal and for his colleagues. In this respect the value of informal contacts should not be underestimated. Research in one educational system has shown, for instance, that a principal who wishes staff to try out new ideas and media is more likely than less innovative principals, in that system at least, to be available informally to staff, such as over a morning cup of tea or coffee in the staff common room. Whether or not that particular result is more widely applicable, the principal who is prepared openly to discuss with staff the factors which have to be weighed up in reaching an important decision will be encouraging his colleagues to feel involved in the school community and to be committed to the welfare of students. The experience and insight obtained by staff will also provide good preparation for some to undertake more extensive responsibilities in the future, whether in their present school or elsewhere.

Staff
Meetings

Apart from the informal encounters which can occur naturally, regular staff meetings are a useful means of ensuring effective consultation. They should be arranged, whenever possible, sufficiently far ahead for it to be possible to avoid clashes with other commitments. An agenda should be circulated or displayed beforehand, and if a major topic is to be discussed it may also be helpful for a paper to be prepared and circulated to provide a focus for relevant discussion. Other points concerning the preparing and chairing of meetings, made in the section on 'Communicating', will also be applicable (p 62).

It is particularly important in relation to a staff meeting that the status of an item on the agenda should be clearly understood by everyone. Broadly there are two possibilities:

1. The issue may be placed on the agenda to be decided by the meeting, under the chairmanship of the principal. The chairman might, or might not, give some guidance, but it would be understood that a decision was essentially for the meeting. If a consensus view was not reached, the matter might be taken to a vote, or, if regarded as of sufficient importance, deferred to another occasion to allow for informal discussion or for further information to be available. The type of question which might be referred to the staff for joint decision-making in this way could include, for instance, the timing of examinations, or when to take a permitted additional half holiday.

2. The issue may be placed on the agenda for general discussion and to sound out the views of staff before the principal himself comes to a decision, which will be based largely, but perhaps not exclusively, on his

assessment of the merits of the viewpoints expressed at the meeting. Questions which would clearly come into this category would be those the principal regarded as so important that he would not feel able to accept a decision with which he himself did not agree. These might include the procedures to be adopted for ensuring student safety while on the school premises, or for evaluating staff, both of them matters on which it can be held that the principal has a precise personal responsibility.

The important point is that the principal should make it perfectly clear beforehand whether a particular matter comes up for discussion in the first or second category. Few situations are more conducive to a rapid deterioration of principal-staff relationships than for a matter of interest to the staff to be discussed with the apparent intention of coming to a decision at the meeting, and the principal then announcing, when the trend of the discussion goes against his personal view, that the occasion is simply one for obtaining staff views, i.e. that it comes into category (2) rather than (1).

Consultative
Committees

Whereas the small school will rely mainly on informal contacts, together with some staff meetings, for consulting and involving the teaching staff, a large school will need a carefully constructed pattern of consultative committees with clear terms of reference. The structure would certainly include meetings of the heads of subject departments and of the senior teachers responsible for pastoral work. There would also be committees for specific purposes, perhaps on an ad hoc basis and possibly involving the co-option of students, for musical and dramatic activities, games, outdoor pursuits, and the school fund. Temporary working parties might be set up for specific purposes, such as to look at the school's arrangements for having homework done and marked, or to review the internal examinations, and consider whether they should be replaced, wholly or in part, by continuous assessment. Such a working party might arrange to obtain the views of students and parents, and it is again possible to envisage that in some cases parents or students might be co-opted on to the working party. A full staff meeting would still be of value from time to time as an occasion when the whole staff came together, but would be used mainly for symbolic purposes, for providing information and for explaining policies in relation to objectives that have already been fully discussed in smaller groups. The whole process will be more formal than in a small school, but may be no less effective in mobilising the co-operation and involvement of the staff in achieving the objectives of the school.

There are two final points to be made:

1. Staff will vary in the extent that they wish to participate, and it is only realistic to recognise this. Consultation and involvement require time and effort, both at meetings and in preparing for them by reading and sometimes drafting papers and writing up minutes. The point applies also to student and parent participation, which we do not consider in detail, as witness the uncertain fortunes of student councils and the various proportion of parents likely to be actively involved in parent associations. If involvement is to be effective whether consultative or participative, those concerned have got to take the trouble to become well informed and to "think through" the points at issue, otherwise their comments will neither be helpful nor merit serious consideration.

2. Once a decision has been reached, whether following consultation or by joint decision-making processes, it is desirable that the final outcome should be made known as soon as possible. This applies particularly to those who contributed to the discussion whether their views prevailed or not. We therefore come back to the importance, for the "organisational health" of school and district of communicating, the first of the four components of organising for implementation to which consideration is being given.

Consulting/Involving at Abako High School

1. In preparing your draft plan for the future organisation of the school (p 52), you did not consult with your staff or inform any of them about the new developments. From the Ministry side there would have been no objection in your doing so, but you feared that consultation would have slowed up the decision making, and you had only four weeks to produce a plan. You have wondered since whether you made a mistake for which you will have to pay in due course. Did you?

2. Neither did you consult nor inform staff when you were asked to draft job specifications for the proposed post of deputy principal, (p 70). You are fairly confident that you made the right decision in this instance. Did you?

3. Last week the Ministry publicly announced the decision to expand Abako High School and the consequent building and personnel plans. The further decision to appoint a deputy principal, allowing both internal and external candidates to apply, was also announced. Since then you are aware that the staff are very exercised about the whole matter and particularly about the fact that they had not been told anything in advance of the public announcement. The timing of the announcement took you yourself by surprise, but should you then have taken any steps to establish communication with the staff?

4. Today the two longest serving teachers, Mr. E. and Mr. A. came together to see you on behalf of the staff to say that the staff welcome the new developments but are upset that so much seems to be happening without their being consulted or even told. The staff now formally request a meeting with you to discuss the future development of the school, about which several of them apparently have some ideas to put forward. You say that you will consider the matter. There are two separate issues here:

(1) Should you agree to the request for a staff meeting to consider the future organisation of the school? If so, on what basis, consultative or participative?

(2) Should you tell staff of the extent to which you are already committed with respect to future plans through Ministry acceptance of your draft proposals, of which your staff are not yet aware.

5. At the end of your joint meeting with them both Mr. E. and Mr. A. request a short individual meeting with you. Each of them informs you that he will be a candidate for the new deputy headship and asks you to act as a confidential referee. You naturally agree in both cases, and subsequently learn that they will be the only internal candidates. In different

ways both of them, in your view, are serious candidates. Mr. E., though a non-graduate, has other things in his favour. He is a very conscientious member of staff and is an excellent teacher who is well-liked by students and gets a good response from them. He has a good relationship with staff room colleagues, and has been particularly supportive and helpful to the three latest recruits to the staff, Miss G., Mrs H., and Mr. I.

Mr. A. is a maths/science graduate who obtains good examination results by driving the students hard. He is meticulous and methodical in his organisation of science activities, and has done some useful analysis for you with regard to timetable organisation in the last two years. His one weakness is that he is not particularly liked by staff or students, who find him a bit cold and inhuman.

Knowing that the recommendation that you make is likely to be influential, should you:

- (a) Give preferential support to Mr. E.? You may or may not consider it relevant in coming to a decision to know that, if not appointed deputy principal, Mr. E. will probably remain in post but is likely to become quite disaffected because of his keen disappointment.
- (b) Give preferential support to Mr. A.? You may or may not consider it relevant that, if not appointed deputy principal, Mr. A. will probably seek a post elsewhere, which should not be difficult for him to obtain as mathematics and science teachers are in short supply. This also means that finding an adequate replacement may be a problem.
- (c) Give general support to both Mr. E. and Mr. A., without indicating a preference and giving no positive lead to those making the appointment?
- (d) Advise the board to look to an external appointment as being preferable, other things being equal.
- (e) Consult with anyone before making a recommendation, or is this a matter on which you should decide your attitude without involving others?

Co-ordinating

Assume that, making full use of appropriate consultative processes, duties have been delegated and areas of responsibility have been allocated. Consequent on the division of labour involved, means must now be devised to relate the various differentiated parts to each other, if they are to work together effectively to achieve common objectives. Diverse activities have to be connected; relevant resources have to be mobilised, so that they are available at the right place at the right time. This is the co-ordinating aspect of organising.

There are essential co-ordinating functions to be performed both at district and at school levels. To carry out these functions effectively the educational leader needs:

- (a) To have clear priorities based on goals and objectives of educational policy, so that what is important is not permanently shelved, because it appears less pressing.
- (b) To be thoroughly familiar with the strengths and weaknesses of his organisation, so that he can make sound judgements as to how best to respond to a developing situation or sudden emergency.
- (c) Most of all, to keep a judicious balance between the uniformity of over-co-ordination which stifles effort and the disarray of under-co-ordination which results in confusion and wasted effort.

Over-
Co-ordination
and Under-
Co-ordination

This last point often presents difficulty, and requires further consideration. In each of the five task areas of leadership considered in the last chapter, it may be expected that government regulation at different levels will require some degree of uniformity, and education officers, inspectors and principals all have responsibilities for ensuring that regulations are carried out. The difficulty in a given situation lies in determining how far the supervisor should go beyond an insistence on regulations in operating controls in the interest of co-ordination.

The problem arises in a variety of circumstances as follows:

Community
Effort

1. It would clearly be wasteful of community effort, and damaging to future self-help activities, if a village were allowed to build a school for which no teachers could be recruited, or where such recruitment would damage existing schools or would require recruiting wholly untrained staff. There is thus a case for some co-ordination at district level across the three task areas of staffing matters, resource management and community relationships. On the other

hand it is questionable whether all school related projects with local community support require approval at district or higher levels. It would be difficult to sustain an argument for a high level decision, for instance, if the purpose were simply to extend the bookshelves in the school library or stock them with more books. The problem is where to draw the line between under-co-ordination and over-co-ordination.

Staffing
Matters

2. A sensitive issue is how much co-ordination is required at district level in staffing matters, for example, in the use of voluntary help or para-professionals in schools. Can each principal be left to co-ordinate the help offered in, say, coaching a school football team, or providing instruction in traditional art forms and local culture? Clearly a district sports day, music or art festival requires to be co-ordinated by a supervisor (or a teacher acting in a similar capacity) at district level, but should the corresponding activities in the different schools be subject to co-ordination? Cannot teachers be allowed to develop their own particular areas of interest in sports, music and the arts within the framework of each school's objectives? What policy would apply across other subjects of the curriculum? What aspects determine the degree of district/regional co-ordination required - safety, resource implications of requests for equipment, the relative importance of the subject?

Adult
Education

3. Adult education in many countries depends heavily on voluntary effort as limited government resources are allocated to areas of higher political priority. What aspects of adult education activity should be co-ordinated through district/regional officers, and how can this be done so as to stimulate rather than stifle voluntary efforts? Co-ordination of activities in further education is equally necessary to avoid wasteful duplication of courses, but is perhaps easier to accomplish since the institutions involved are more closely under government control.

School Visits

4. In an urban area career preparation and civics teaching for secondary students may be considerably strengthened through carefully planned visits to local industries and branches of local government. At what level do these activities need co-ordinating? Possible answers to this question would be:

(a) By the district or regional supervisor to ensure that schools make good use of these opportunities and do not over-burden a particular service.

(b) By the principals, to ensure that transport and insurance are available for school parties, if necessary, and that the balance of the school programme is maintained overall.

- (c) By the teacher himself contacting the institution beforehand, sending a message of thanks afterwards, arranging the timing, "squaring" other teachers, and ensuring that preparation for the visit and follow up are provided.

Any move outside the school boundary requires co-ordination. If there are too many levels of co-ordination involved and restrictions to overcome, the teacher will not try again and a useful learning exercise for his students is lost. But if there is too little co-ordination, the experience is wasted for the students, other teachers' programmes are upset, and community goodwill may be lost. The balance of co-ordination is crucial.

Agricultural Education

5. In a rural area any practical experience of agriculture requires thorough co-ordination of activities inside and outside the school. Whether livestock is reared or crops grown, arrangements must be made for supply and marketing, for care of the project during school vacations, for assistance from the agricultural department or advisory service when required. Equally important is the continuation of these support services to help school leavers who want to continue using the skills and knowledge they have acquired in farming. This follow-up work is essential if the practical experience is to be of lasting value. It depends critically on co-ordination between schools, agricultural extension services and in some cases farmers' co-operative organisations.

School Rules

6. Within a school, when one teacher is consistently late, another keeps his class working 10-15 minutes beyond the end of every lesson, and a third does not insist on boys wearing the type of trousers prescribed in the school rules, co-ordination is disrupted in various ways. Again it may be asked whether it is necessary for all staff in the school to follow the same practice in each of these areas. The same question can be posed for the district and, indeed, for the country as a whole.

In all the examples given above it is salutary to bear in mind that the justification for the co-ordination provided must be, as with all aspects of organising, that it enables organisational objectives to be achieved more effectively. In seeking to identify the narrow band between over-co-ordination and under-co-ordination, it will be found that two contrasting, but equally important, key questions are implicit in the examples that have been examined. They are:

Key Questions

1. Would a variety of practice in this instance tend to impede the achievement of the agreed organisational objectives?
2. Would an insistence on uniform practice in this instance tend to discourage local initiative relevant to the achievement of the agreed organisational objectives?

Conclusion

If co-ordination is needed, it is then a sound principle to co-ordinate at the lowest level at which a common policy is required. Thus, if there is a good case related to the achievement of educational objectives for the same rules concerning school uniform to apply throughout a school district, co-ordinate at district level. If the case is that the same rules should apply within each school but that variations are permissible across schools, co-ordinate at school level. If no connection is identified between school uniform and the achievement of educational objectives, the need for co-ordination disappears.

Co-ordinating

Examine the form below as a method of co-ordinating activities relating to different task areas.

1. How many of the task areas considered in Chapter 2 are involved in this example?
2. What changes would you make in the design of the form?
3. Is such a form useful/necessary in primary school, secondary school or further education college?

Specimen form

Arrangements for School Visit

Any teacher planning a visit for a group of pupils should complete part A of this form at least one month before the visit.

PART A

1. Teacher responsible for arrangements _____
2. Other staff expected to accompany group _____
3. Number of pupils _____ 4. Class _____ 5. Date of visit _____
6. Time of leaving school _____ 7. Expected time of return _____
8. Place to be visited _____
9. Education purpose _____

10. Transport required? YES/NO
If yes, give details _____
11. Expected cost per head: To pupils: _____
To school: _____
12. Signature of Head of Department _____ Date _____

Submit this form to the Principal's office.

PART B

This part will be completed by the Principal

13. This visit is not approved because _____

14. This visit is approved, subject to the following _____

15. Cost up to the limit of _____ may be charged to _____
16. Clearance with District Education Officer required? YES/NO
obtained _____ (date)
- _____

PART C

To be completed by the Head of Department at least one week before the visit.

17. Name of contact at place to be visited _____
18. The following arrangements have been made for classes not attended during the visit

19. Pupil's preparation for the visit _____

20. Pupil's follow up of the visit _____

This form when completed will be sent through the Principal's office to the District Education Officer for record purposes.

Note: The Head of Department must ensure that a message of thanks is sent to the person visited afterwards. This should be done and a short report of the visit submitted to the Principal within one week of the visit. In case of any accident, a full report with names of witnesses must be submitted immediately.

3. Exercising Control

Definitions

Organising has to do with establishing and maintaining structure; with creating the machinery which can be used for achieving a variety of objectives. Exercising control encompasses the variety of means that can be used to exert influence, to ensure that organisational structure and process are used for the achievement of given objectives, in this case the educational objectives of school and district, within the framework of national educational objectives.

The exercise of control must depend in the first place on obtaining as accurate a picture as possible of what is happening in the organisation and then of developing effective means of achieving whatever change may be required in a desired direction. Two aspects will be considered:

- (a) Evaluating performance
- (b) Effecting change

Evaluating Performance

Four Stages

Evaluation for our present purpose is to be interpreted as the process of making a judgement about the effectiveness of an organisation or activity, with a view to taking appropriate action. Effectiveness here is intended to refer to the extent to which objectives are being achieved as determined by measurement against some criteria. Four stages are thus involved in evaluation:

- 1. Deciding on criteria.
- 2. Gathering appropriate information.
- 3. Making a consequential judgement on effectiveness.
- 4. Taking appropriate action.

The Evaluators

The criteria adopted in evaluation may well be differently selected according to who is involved in the evaluating. A key question with regard to the assessment or evaluation of any activity is therefore the identity and perspective of the assessor or evaluator. Possible answers in the case of the school would be:

- 1. External assessors monitoring the achievement of national objectives on behalf of central government.
- 2. District or regional inspectors, whose viewpoint reflects their attempt simultaneously to monitor achievement and to assist the school to be more effective.

3. School board or committee or governing body, whose members require information on a school's progress as a basis for their decision making.
4. Parents, initially, when this is relevant to making a choice of school, and then to make judgements about their particular child's educational needs.
5. Students, continuously making judgements which are largely based on personal experience in the organisation.
6. Employers, their viewpoint related to their need to recruit employees with particular skills.
7. The principal and teaching staff, for whom the main purpose of evaluation is to provide feed-back for improving effectiveness.

Criteria of School Effectiveness

In many countries there is considerable debate about the criteria of school effectiveness, the viewpoints of different groups being rather predictable. It is likely for instance that each of the seven evaluator groups identified above would have a different emphasis over the whole range of possible criteria.

A useful broad distinction, first introduced in industrial evaluation but which can be applied to education, is that between "product criteria" and "process criteria":

Product Criteria

Product criteria as applied to schools, consist of the objective outcomes of schooling, as evidenced for instance in the published results of external examinations, and for secondary schools in the percentage of leavers who obtain posts (and what kind of jobs) or proceed to further and higher education (and at what level). Objective behavioural criteria can also be devised, such as the number of students involved in social work in the community, the number of complaints concerning student behaviour from residents in the area, and the number of students in trouble with the police.

The seven evaluator constituencies would all have to accept the numerical evidence of the different product criteria which could be devised, but would differ in their interpretation of the relative significance of the information collected. This would apply particularly to the behavioural criteria.

- Process Criteria Process criteria are criteria related to the processes of schooling. Examples of process criteria are:
- a. Student (and staff?) absenteeism rates.
 - b. Measures of punctuality at lessons
 - c. The number of books borrowed per term from the school library.
 - d. The proportion of students who participate in some form of extra curricular activity.

Many of the evaluatory questions asked in Chapter 2 also come into this category. As in the case of product criteria, the fact that there can be no one definitive overall process criterion of schooling leaves the choice of criteria and the interpretation of their relative significance a matter for judgement and debate.

Collecting Information Having decided on the product and process criteria to be adopted (stage 1) it is not difficult to gather a mass of appropriate factual information (stage 2). Some of the more obvious sources of data will be standardised tests, internal and external examinations, and pupil record cards. Assessments by school inspectors and any self-evaluation exercises conducted by the school staff themselves are also invaluable in process assessment

Interpretation As already suggested, it is the third stage of interpreting the performance data so as to be in a position to make a judgement of organisational effectiveness that is likely to be the most contentious part of the exercise. In particular one has to exercise extreme caution in the comparative use of output data between institutions. A simple example will illustrate the point.

Example

Two secondary schools, A and B, have exactly the same percentage of the age group who proceed to higher education. An outside observer might thereby conclude that judging by this criterion the two schools are equally effective. In this he would be mistaken.

School A is in a remote sparsely populated rural area, and has only basic facilities. The students have few opportunities for broadening their experience, and the standard of achievement on entry to the school tends to be low. School B is in an affluent suburb of a large city, and is well equipped with the most up-to-date facilities for learning. The students have many advantages even before they come to the school, and this is reflected in the generally high standard of attainment on entry.

This information puts the evaluation data in a very different light. The percentage of the age group who proceed to higher education may be highly commendable for School A, in view of the difficulties with which the school has to contend. For School B exactly the same figure provides a cause for disquiet and further examination, being far below what might be expected having regard to its circumstances. Taking account of all the circumstances, it is difficult to resist the conclusion that School A is more effective than School B.

A conclusion that may be drawn from the above is that it is not the outputs of two schools which can meaningfully be compared, but the difference between the output and the input in the two cases, and even then there will be other factors in the environment of the schools to be taken into account in making a judgement based on the data. Regard for the context is also of importance in interpreting measures of process variables. Some sensitivity to the significant variables is an essential part of the process of understanding a school, as every experienced school inspector will know.

Lesson Evaluation

A more limited example of evaluation, where the variables can more easily be controlled is provided by the evaluation of the work of a particular individual on a particular occasion, such as the assessment of a teacher taking a particular lesson. A possible framework for lesson evaluation is given as an example at the end of this section. It is concerned almost entirely with process criteria. Another point you may wish to consider is whether it might not be helpful to agree the evaluative framework beforehand with the teacher, and then to involve him/her with the evaluation afterwards in making a joint assessment. This is akin to the managerial concept of Management by Objectives (MBO), which requires the basis for evaluation to be agreed between the individual whose work is to be examined and the person to whom he is accountable. The key areas in which performance is to be assessed are jointly identified and agreement is reached on the criteria to be used. Do you see this principle having wider application in education?

School Self-Evaluation

The Evaluators	A meaningful evaluation of an entire school on a systematic basis is a much more difficult task because of the diversity and complexity of the data which even a small school will provide. There is some evidence to suggest that a promising approach is for a school self-evaluation exercise to be mounted jointly by the principal and staff, with some involvement also of an external consultant such as a suitably qualified university research worker. Whether or not a school inspector could successfully take on this external consultant role might depend on the relationship he was able to achieve with the staff of the school. The appropriate relationship would be one which would be well worth cultivating by the inspectorate.
Deciding Criteria	Let us suppose that the inspector or other external consultant is able to help the principal and his staff to identify a framework for the evaluation which can be generally agreed. In doing so it might well be that something on the lines of our five task areas and the sets of questions enumerated in Chapter 2 would be found relevant. It would probably be the principal and teachers who would be most aware of the contextual factors which should also be taken into account in interpreting data.
Gathering Information	A proposal which might emerge would be that at specific intervals (e.g. every three or four years, but this would be for negotiation) a school would complete a major review of its working and its level of achievement, with a view to establishing its objectives realistically for the next period of three or four years. Providing a statistical data base for the review, there would be systematic monitoring of certain aspects of school process on an annual basis, including an analysis of examination results and statistics concerning leavers. During each 3-4 year period different aspects of life of the school would also in turn come under scrutiny, use being made of temporary working parties for that purpose. Finally, an attempt would be made to provide continuous evaluation of any major innovation introduced, such as a new science curriculum or a scheme of computer assisted learning.
Judging Effectiveness	The inspectors particularly associated with the school would be able to provide assistance as consultants during the main triennial or quadrennial review, when the information provided by the three types of mini-assessments (annual statistics, working party reviews of particular aspects, continuous reviews of major innovations) would be collated and synthesised. The main responsibility would however be that of the principal and staff. It is envisaged that the completed report would be discussed with district officers as a basis for future allocation, but it would be helpful for it also to be considered by the parents association, and by the committee or board or governing body with an interest in the school.

aking Action The fourth and final stage is the taking of appropriate action, which will broadly be of two kinds. The evaluation exercise can firstly contribute to the requirements of public accountability, as part of the process whereby the educators account to government and/or to public representatives at district level for the way in which they are carrying out their responsibilities. The resulting action in this case will be that of the body or group which receives the evaluation report.

The second way in which the evaluation provides a basis for action is by providing 'feed-back' to the principal and staff, which becomes a part of the school's management control cycle. In so far as the review reveals areas requiring some improvement or calling for more radical changes, possible remedies can be formulated, tested out on a trial basis, and then fully adopted if the trials are favourable. The evaluation thus becoming a basis for organisational renewal.

District/Regional Office

In conclusion, it should be noted that evaluation is a process which is just as applicable to the district/regional education office as to the individual school. Product outcomes in this case could include the identified educational outcomes of each of the schools of the district, e.g. the total academic outcome as indicated by the examination results of the district, the district situation with regard to the placing of school leavers in employment or in further/higher education. Product criteria might also be advisable in relation to district educational activities not carried out in schools, e.g. pre-school activities, and adult literacy activities within the community. Process criteria, in addition to measures of within-school processes, might appropriately include measures of communication between the education office and the schools and also of communication to central and regional government and between the education office and the community.

Evaluating Performance

Examples of frameworks for evaluation which have been drawn up for three different situations are given below:

- (1) Lesson evaluation
- (2) Curriculum evaluation
- (3) Contrasting criteria for evaluating "good" schools

In each case you are asked to consider:

1. How would you modify or extend the frameworks in the context of your educational system?
2. With whom should you consult in the process of revision?

(1) An example of a framework for lesson evaluation

a. Overall

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

b. Preparation

- (i) Did the learners know enough/have the appropriate skills as a basis for this lesson? Does this apply to all or some of the pupils.
- (ii) Did the teacher and pupils have ready the necessary materials and equipment for the lesson? Would other preparations have increased the learning opportunities?
- (iii) Did the teacher prepare the content of the lesson adequately?
- (iv) Was the teacher prepared for any problems or difficulties which might reasonably have been expected?

c. Environment

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

d. Lesson content

- (i) Is it accurate?
- (ii) Is it made meaningful to the pupils? Does it link up with their experience?
- (iii) Does it interest the pupils of all ranges of ability? Are they frequently distracted?
- (iv) Is the selection of material and examples appropriate?

e. Working with whole class

- (i) Does the teacher speak too long? Too loudly? Give well thought out instructions so the pupils know what to do?
- (ii) Do the questions encourage different pupils to contribute? Are questions framed so that pupils can answer without having to guess what is in the teacher's mind? Does he praise good answers?
- (iii) Is the blackboard used effectively? Do pupils spend too much time copying? Are other visual materials used where appropriate in the lesson?
- (iv) How does the teacher respond to interruptions and disturbances? Does he maintain control and reinforce acceptable behaviour?

f. Working with groups and individuals

- (i) Does the teacher use small groups where appropriate? Do the children work well under this arrangement, or is closer supervision needed?
- (ii) Are individual pupils helped with particular problems they have encountered? What attempt is made to diagnose their difficulties?

- (iii) Is individual initiative encouraged? Does the teacher show interest in them as individuals?
- (ii) What happens to the rest of the class when the teacher is helping one individual?

g. Discussion

- (i) 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?
- (ii) Can the teacher indicate what might be attempted differently or done better with a similar lesson next year?
- (iii) What is the teacher's attitude to the pupils, to the subject, and to his own career?

(2) An example of a framework for curriculum evaluation

The following scheme requires evaluation data to be collected systematically to cover teachers' comments, students' attainments and public reaction.

a. Aims and objectives

- (i) Are they clearly formulated?
- (ii) Are they understood by teachers?

b. Curriculum content

- (i) Are the teachers familiar with the subject matter?
- (ii) Is the work at the right level for the students?

c. Teaching methodology

- (i) Are teachers using appropriate methods for this curriculum?
- (ii) Do the teachers require opportunities for further training in methodology?

d. Behavioural objectives

- (i) If objectives have been specified in the curriculum, are they being achieved?

e. Teachers' reaction, involvement and comment.

f. Public reaction, involvement and comment.

(3) Two contrasting sets of criteria for evaluating
good schools

The two sets of characteristics given below are taken from an account of a questionnaire survey of Inspectors and Supervisors in the Asian Pacific Region given in the Report of the 1975 Commonwealth Regional Seminar/Workshop in Educational Administration and Supervision in Kuala Lumpur. The statements in the first column were volunteered as key characteristics of a good school by supervisors in one country and the statements in the second column by supervisors in another country.

A	B
1. The provisions of the Education Ordinance and Regulations are complied with.	1. Use of a curriculum suitable for the children that broadly follows national policy but is adapted as necessary.
2. The administration and organisational ability of the Head Teacher.	2. Students and teachers have clear lines of communication.
3. The facilities, equipment and supporting materials for the teaching of the subject.	3. Relevant curriculum developments and changes: meaningful displays.
4. School functions are held with a view to promoting better co-operation and understanding between the school and parents.	4. Involvement of parents and pupils in school running and development (including policy).
5. Right attitudes towards education on the part of the teaching and administrative staff.	5. Provision for the full use of each staff member's characteristics and abilities.

1. Compare and contrast the two sets of criteria. Do they exemplify different assumptions about what schools should be doing and how they should go about their work?
2. Having regard to the governmental and social context of education in your own country, what would be your criteria for evaluating good schools?

Effecting Change

This is the last connecting link in the management control loop, the final component without which the control aspect of management would be ineffective. It is through providing the effective leadership which results in planned change after an evaluation has been completed that the education officer, inspector and principal fully demonstrate the power of the management approach exemplified in this chapter. Many of the ideas have already been mentioned or are implicit in earlier discussion. The management cycle whether applied to the individual's work or to the whole organisation, is essentially concerned with the management of change.

Typology

In a well known typology of ways of achieving change, proposed by Chin and Benne (1976), three distinctive types of change strategy have been identified:

1. Power-coercive, in which the agent of change uses his superior power within the organisation to compel change.
2. Rational-empirical, in which reliance is placed on producing convincing arguments in favour of change.
3. Normative-re-educative, in which the emphasis is placed on changing values and attitudes to be in favour of change.

In accordance with traditional management theory, hierarchical authority in an organisation implies the availability of power-coercive methods if all else fails. In a professionally staffed organisation, however, such as most educational organisations would claim to be, coercion can be remarkably ineffective, and is liable to result in deep resentment, and even active resistance, to an extent that is cumulatively likely to block or neutralise the intended change, irrespective of the merits of the proposal. The ill-considered threat of compulsion can even create opposition among staff members who have to implement an organisational change for which they are unprepared, whereas a more tactful approach might well elicit at least passive acquiescence of change, even if those concerned are not fully convinced of its desirability. The idea implied in the above remark is that in between active acceptance and active rejection of a change proposal, there can be a "zone of indifference" in which those who do not favour the change will still be prepared to accept it if it is presented in a sensible and friendly manner.

In an educational matter of importance, to achieve only the passive acceptance of the majority of participants would be an unsatisfactory basis on which to proceed. The educational leader must therefore be prepared to use a combination of rational-empirical and normative-re-educative methods. These in fact are the methods largely used in the professional training of teachers which may thus be regarded, at least in part, as a process of anticipatory control through self-

regulation. Such considerations apply even more clearly to the in-service training of teachers, which usually takes place with a view to introducing a major curricular change.

Professional
Authority

The implication of the argument is that educational leaders who, as a result of an evaluation of the present situation, wish to initiate change (thereby beginning a new control cycle, involving planning to achieve revised or clarified objectives, organising for implementing change, and effecting control of the change process) are well advised to rely less on their authority of position, i.e., their bureaucratic authority within the school system, than on their professional authority as educationists, who are themselves convinced by rational argument and because of the educational values they uphold, of the merits of the changes they are presenting to the teachers. They have the difficult task of reconciling professional considerations with organisational requirements, a task which requires skill, wisdom and integrity. They are the "professionals-as-administrators" who, because of their understanding of, and credibility with, the professionals in the classroom, are specially qualified, it has been argued (Hughes, 1978), to be in charge of the relevant professionally staffed organisations, i.e., schools. The validity of the argument depends, it will be noted, on the extent to which the professional-as-administrators retain their standing and credibility as educational professionals.

Staff
Involvement

In the discussion of Consulting/Involving consideration has already been given to some of the advantages for the organisation of staff involvement. There is evidence from a number of fields that staff involvement can be particularly useful in the management of change. It seems that by far the best strategy in reducing staff resistances to change is to involve the teachers themselves in working out the required changes and their resource and training implications. Not surprisingly those who have contributed to working out a strategy of change are generally more co-operative in the implementation process than those who consider that the new proposals have been adopted without adequate consultation.

To the above result it needs to be added that it has been found that there are at least two reservations which have to be made. They are as follows:

Genuine
Consultation

- (1) The proposed change agent has to convince the teachers that his own mind on contentious issues is not closed, and that he is prepared to consider and respond to a reasoned argument or an alternative proposal. Any suspicion that what is presented as consultation is only a post facto public relations exercise to fool the teachers is likely to produce a strongly adverse reaction.

- (2) To achieve change with staff co-operation some attention to "organisational health" is desirable, organisational health being a concept which relates to an organisation's ability to adapt to its environment. Where a regular pattern of consulting and involving is already established, it may be expected that the principal and staff will be able to handle the strain involved in change processes consequent on a self-evaluation exercise. If however, the school has been under the tight control of an authoritarian principal, it would be unrealistic to expect it to be able to respond overnight to a different kind of regime. The conclusion to be drawn is not that there should be no participation but that participation as a change strategy should be introduced gradually, with appropriate preparation at each stage.

Staff
Development

The emphasis is thus once again on the staff development necessary to enable schools and the school systems of districts to develop the organisational health to effect change, both the change due to external factors and the internal change arising from demands to match achievement to educational objectives. In this task educational leaders at district level, and particularly the inspector, can provide invaluable guidance and assistance in a consultant capacity and through the provision of in-service courses. Even more crucial, because he is nearer to the action, is the role of the school principal, whose professional leadership enables others to grow professionally as they learn to accept responsibility through their participation in the implementation of change in their schools.

Effecting Change

You are asked to revert to your role as Mr. Nkongo, principal of Abako High School.

At the meeting held with the Ministry Inspector and the District Education Officer some weeks ago to consider your draft proposals for future school organisation, (see p52), the Ministry Inspector made the suggestion that you should consider the possibility of a staff development programme for your staff as a whole to prepare them for change. You did not take any immediate action, but now consider that a decision should be made one way or the other. In view of the recent staff unrest you are uncertain whether any initiative on your part in the matter would be well received.

- (i) Are you now in favour of taking any action?
- (2) If so, should you prepare a programme for action and then present it to staff for discussion?
- (3) Should you, on the other hand, involve the staff in the preparation of the programme?
- (4) Briefly outline the course particulars of the staff development programme which in your view, would be most helpful.

CONCLUSION

This chapter began by considering the management control loop and its applicability to education. Following a discussion of decision making as a widely applicable concept in school administration, consideration was given to planning, organising for implementation and exercising control as the three major processes involved. It was found convenient to divide the discussion of 'organising' into four sections, communicating, delegating, consulting/involving and co-ordinating. Exercising control was similarly considered under two headings, evaluating performance and effecting change. This completes Part I of the Handbook.

In Part II we examine the practical problems involved in planning and organising effective courses at which the ideas and skills we have been considering in Part I become alive and real in friendly discussion and spirited debate.

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