

Leadership in the Management of Education

A Handbook for Educational Supervisors



Commonwealth Secretariat

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Revised by
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Marlborough House, London SW1

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Reprinted 1987

ISBN 0 85092 210 0

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P R E F A C E

"The pattern of education in all Commonwealth countries, industrialised and developing, is changing as the systems adjust themselves to meet the needs of tomorrow. If education is to adapt successfully and play its part in creating stable and prosperous societies, one key role will be that of the inspectors and supervisors, head teachers and principals, those middle level administrators and advisers who turn policy into practice and convert plans into action. With skilled management on their part the large share of national resources in finance and manpower allocated to education can be used efficiently to serve the needs of the society at large and the individuals which comprise it. Without effective support from this cadre of practical experts, all plans for educational reform will be still born".

This paragraph prefaced the Handbook for Educational Supervisors (Trial Edition), prepared by the Education Division of the Commonwealth Secretariat in 1976. Five years later this observation remains no less true. The management of the educational enterprise continues to be critical if education - formal and non-formal - is to play with any claim to effectiveness, the development role so long expected of it by governments, communities, parents and students.

The trial edition of the Handbook resulted from a series of regional workshops - Freetown, Sierra Leone (1973), Georgetown, Guyana (1974) and Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia (1975). The recommendations of these workshops and of Commonwealth Education Conferences in Jamaica (1974) and Ghana (1977), led to a series of regional training courses for middle-level personnel in educational management including Chief or Divisional Education Officers, Senior Inspectors and Supervisors of education, held in Nairobi (1977), Suva (1978) and Barbados (1979). At these courses, lasting from 10-12 weeks, the structure and the format of the draft Handbook were examined, and specific items were used as part of the training activities. In the light of these and other comments from many Commonwealth countries, the draft Handbook has been revised and the present publication "Leadership in the Management of Education" is the result.

Educational practice and policy varies considerably throughout the Commonwealth and this Handbook does not presume to do justice to this variety. Rather, it attempts to offer educational managers who have local or national training responsibilities some ideas on how aspects of educational management may be explored in a training situation, the specific context of which will be determined locally.

The Commonwealth Secretariat is grateful to Professor Meredydd G. Hughes, Professor of Education in the Department of Social and Administrative Studies in Education, University of Birmingham, as well as his colleagues, Professor Paul Chang of the Universiti Sains Malaysia and Mr Robert Dalton, Director of the Unit for Commonwealth Studies, also at the University of Birmingham for their co-operation and assistance in producing this Commonwealth study. We wish to acknowledge the valuable comments of all those principals and inspectors, teachers and college lecturers, advisers and district officers whose peculiar perspectives have contributed to this work. It is dedicated to all of them, and to their colleagues who may find this Handbook useful in their responsibilities.

Rex E. O. Akpofure
Director, Education Division

INTRODUCTION

In all Commonwealth countries wise and effective leadership and skilled management are essential requirements if the educational service is to make a full contribution to the life and development of the nation and the wellbeing of its people. This Handbook has been compiled to assist those who have leadership and management responsibilities in relation to teaching staff and educational programmes, whether or not the supervisor is school based or office based.

Part I

In Part I of the Handbook the aim is to present some of the general issues and concepts which, re-interpreted in a specific cultural context, might provide the basis for in-service courses, whether for school principals and their senior staff or for office based education officers, inspectors and advisers. The difficult problems involved in the determination of educational objectives are considered in the first chapter, together with the significant contribution which can be made by those in senior positions in schools and school systems. In the second chapter specific questions relating to five task areas of educational leadership are set out for consideration, together with an illustrative exercise under each heading. Perspectives and a framework derived from management theory are then offered in the third and final chapter of Part I as a means of achieving a better understanding of the ubiquitous processes of planning, organising and assessing performance and their inter-relationships in the task areas of educational leadership.

Part II

Practical issues involved in mounting an in-service course or a series of courses in educational management are considered in Part II, attention being given in Chapter 4 to the planning, organisation and evaluation of courses and in Chapter 5 to course content and teaching materials. Some ideas for a comprehensive long term strategy of in-service training are presented in a final chapter, which is followed by a short bibliography. The Chapters of Part II are printed on blue paper and the bibliography on yellow paper.

Background

The present volume is based on the Handbook for Educational Supervisors (Trial Edition), previously published by the Commonwealth Secretariat. Some of the text and illustrative material has been retained, but there has been a considerable amount of restructuring and rewriting, taking account of advice and experiences from the Secretariat's regional seminars and workshops. A number of passages and ideas from the reports of these seminars have been used as appropriate, and I would like particularly to acknowledge the helpfulness of the clear distinction between task areas and administrative process in the paper by Professor Erwin Miklos 'Approaches to school administration' in the Report of the 1975 Commonwealth Regional Seminar at Kuala Lumpur. I am also conscious that the discussion of the management cycle in Chapter 3 has been strongly influenced by a section by Professor

George Thomason in a book which appeared under my editorship - Secondary School Administration: A Management Approach (Pergamon Press, 1974).

I wish finally to acknowledge the assistance in the initial drafting of Part II of the Handbook which was provided by Paul Chang and Robert Dalton, and the helpful comments and general support given by Rex Akpofure and Steve Packer of the Commonwealth Secretariat.

March 1981

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P A R T I

**LEADERSHIP IN THE MANAGEMENT
OF EDUCATION**

CHAPTER 1

OBJECTIVES AND LEADERSHIP IN EDUCATION

Educational Goals

The broad aims of education are formulated in most countries of the Commonwealth by the national or state governments, or put forward by special commissions. They usually attract a wide measure of agreement and are an expression of the society's concern for human values, for the social and economic development of the community and for individual growth.

The following are some of the aspirations which are often included in statements of educational goals:

1. A greater awareness of national heritage and identity.
2. The fostering of attitudes and values conducive to the development of the individual and the community.
3. The ideal of equal educational opportunity for all.
4. Increasing life expectancy through widespread education in health and nutrition.
5. Educating and training the skilled manpower required for the localisation of the work force and the expansion of industry.

Such goals are expressed in general terms, but can nevertheless be very significant as an indication of the long term outcomes which evoke widespread assent within the society.

Educational Objectives

Whereas goals are usually long-term and general, objectives tend to be short term and specific. They therefore have the merit that, if they are realistically determined, there is reason to expect that they can be achieved in a specified period of time. The progressive achievement of the stated educational objectives of the system is then expected to contribute to the ultimate achievement of the educational goals of the society.

Statement of Objectives

If the objectives are to be helpful as a guide to action, they should be stated as precisely as possible, preferably in terms of numbers, time period, and standards of performance. Two examples are given on page 3 which show the broad aims and goals of education being approached through specific programmes and learning strategies at school and district levels respectively.

Behavioural Objectives

The objectives specified in Example 1 may be characterised as behavioural objectives, as they specify precise behaviours which the pupils should be able to display at the end of each course. Behavioural objectives can most readily be identified at the level of basic skills, which can be reduced to directly observable or measurable outcomes. At a higher level the complexities become formidable, and one soon has to compromise by identifying behaviours which, though not expressive of the whole learning task, provide some indication of its achievement. This can never be wholly satisfactory.

Programme Objectives

The objectives given in Example 2 are described as programme objectives. These are expressed in terms of measurable operational assignments, which are again stated as precisely as possible. In this instance behavioural objectives for the adult population are implied, but programme objectives may simply relate to support activities, e.g. the provision of X books, Y hours of instruction, or the making of Z inspection visits. Such programme objectives have their value, but are no substitute for seeking a clearer formulation of intended educational outcomes, whether or not these can be precisely stated in behavioural terms.

Considerations in the Formulation of Objectives

In seeking to formulate practicable and useful objectives which will contribute to the achievement of national goals, there are three basic factors to be taken into account.

1. The present educational state of the learners, whether adults or children, their interests and abilities.
2. The opportunities and problems which face the learners and which lie ahead of them (after completing the course).
3. The contribution which the subject matter of the course can make to the personal development of the learners, and, through them, to the development of the society.

Example 1

SCHOOL LEVEL

Objectives

A Goal for the school

To prepare pupils for effective participation as citizens in the social life of the nation.

Objective 1: By the end of form X all pupils should be able to describe the functions of ministers, the political party(ies) and para-statal organisations.

Objective 2: By the end of form Y all pupils should be able to analyse the issues involved in a major development affecting their environment and indicate the advantages and disadvantages of various options.

Objective 3: By the end of form Z all pupils should be able to demonstrate responsibility for agreed tasks in the maintenance and leadership of the school and its organisations.

Further objectives might include the membership and the activities of a youth club, and participation in community development.

Example 2

DISTRICT LEVEL

Objectives

A Goal for the adult education programme

Literacy for all: literacy defined as the ability to read and understand information that matches the reader's vocabulary or interests; and the ability to write a letter to a friend.

Objective 1: To raise the level of literacy (as defined) to 50 per cent in X years in sub-districts which are currently below this level.

Objective 2: To raise the level of literacy (as defined) to 80 per cent throughout the district in Y years.

Further objectives might be developed in terms of enrolments and classes each year and the availability of appropriate and sufficient reading materials.

There are also two general considerations to be borne in mind when educational objectives are being formulated. These are:

1. The fact that objectives at a local and school level should be conceived within the framework of national goals and objectives.
2. The fact that objectives have to be achieved within the resources available, including any permitted reallocation of existing resources or additional resources from community help.

A further constraint which must not be overlooked is that objectives have to be realistic, in terms both of time and of expected level of achievement. Mass literacy in one month, or for all secondary leavers to be able to write an orchestral symphony would not qualify!

Finally, it should be remembered that significant change will occur over time in the context in which the objectives are being formulated. Some flexibility is, therefore, desirable, so that objectives can be modified to take account of changing circumstances. This will also have implications for timing and implementation.

The Role of Educational Leaders in Identifying Objectives

The establishing within a community of sound educational objectives and their re-consideration from time to time to ensure that they retain validity and realism in a changing world, are not easy tasks. They make considerable demands on the combined wisdom and leadership qualities of the education profession, and in this respect the district/regional education officer, the school principal and the subject inspector each have a vital part to play. A point to stress is the inter-relatedness of the three roles, which makes it particularly important that there should be a generous measure of mutual understanding and a readiness to work together in the formulation and review of objectives.

The School Principal

School principals are:

- (a) The front-line managers of learning.
- (b) The educational leaders of their schools.

Their primary task is to ensure that their pupils are educated, and to do so within a framework of external guidance and constraint which will strongly influence, if not wholly determine, school objectives.

Goals,
Objectives
and School
Practice

The principal must thoroughly understand the goals and objectives agreed at national and regional levels, to which the timetable and organisation of the school must have regard. The amount of discretion he is formally given will vary from country to country, but there will always be situations in which, preferably in consultation with the teaching staff, he will have to use his judgement in considering how the general rule is to be applied in the particular circumstances. The relationship between what actually happens in the school and the educational objectives, whether determined at national, regional or school level, is his particular concern.

Evaluation

Both as manager and professional leader of the teaching staff, the principal is thus inevitably concerned with evaluation. Where objectives have been spelled out in detail for the learning of a subject in each school year, the principal can encourage the teachers to see these objectives in relation to other subjects in the curriculum and the conduct of the school as a whole. Where there is some latitude, it is for the principal, acting in appropriate circumstances through senior colleagues, to guide the teachers in developing their own teaching objectives within the general framework of school policy. Much will then depend on the quality of the professional leadership provided by the principal. In the most favourable circumstances, the teachers will critically assess their own performance against previously stated objectives, and will be jointly involved with the principal in a corporate exercise of school self assessment.

Such an appraisal needs to be wider ranging, for school teaching and learning comprise more than a collection of subjects, each with its particular objectives. In particular the relationship of the school to the community it serves needs to be examined in various ways, including the following up of school leavers, in order to discover whether desired objectives are being reached in school and society. In all this the school principal has a leading part to play.

The Subject Inspector

The formulation of objectives in a particular subject area will be a concern of the subject inspector, who will be well aware both of the need of the schools and of the constraints of the wider system. As a part of his job he will constantly interact both with school personnel and with the central office.

Professional Expertise

Let us consider the position of a science inspector. Apart from the formal authority of his position, it may be presumed that he has expertise in science teaching and thus has the professional authority of a man who is a specialist in his particular area. This expertise has to be maintained through study and through continuing contact with other science educators.

Like his colleagues in other subject areas, the science inspector is likely to work with a subject panel or task force set up to examine different areas of the curriculum. He is also likely to work with technical training instructors, with inspectors in related scientific fields, and perhaps with representatives of industry, health or agriculture to ensure that their needs are considered.

Co-ordination

When changes are proposed in the science curriculum, it is important that the teachers in the schools should participate with the inspector in the discussions leading to the new curriculum, both through representation in a central body and through contributing individually to decisions relating to the adoption of new objectives in their own schools.

Evaluation and Professional Development

As an acknowledged educational leader in his own subject area, it is for the inspector to ensure that objectives and methods are reviewed periodically in the schools. By providing the continuing programmes of in-service education, he will provide opportunities for teachers to think about their objectives and the best use of local resources to achieve them. Through such activities the teachers will develop the professional confidence to assess their own performance, so as to relate their practice more closely to the objectives which they have helped to formulate.

The District/Regional Education Officer

The district or regional education officer carries out his responsibilities within a well defined administrative structure. The latter may include an education committee or advisory board at the regional or district level. There are three levels at which the education officer may contribute to the formulation of educational objectives:

National or
State Level

1. Indirectly he may play some part in the adoption of realistic goals and objectives at national or state level through:

(a) The regional information he is able to provide, both factual (e.g. school enrolments, staff numbers) and evaluative (e.g. views on the implementation of new curricula).

(b) His availability to provide a regional or district viewpoint, if desired, on national or state policies.

Regional or
District Level

2. The formulation of educational goals and objectives for the district or region depends essentially on his leadership. His appreciation of educational issues will thus be as important as his administrative expertise and a good working relationship with the inspectorate will clearly be helpful.

School Level

3. He has the responsibility to provide information, guidance and encouragement to the principals and staff of schools who have to formulate objectives, within national and regional guidelines, and implement programmes which have already been determined at a higher level.

Routine tasks
and Leadership

Much of the education officer's time will in practice be taken up by routine executive functions and dealing with crises that arise from day to day. It is very easy for the pressure of this activity to become so great that, unless he consciously determines otherwise, the purpose of the activity is lost and the officer forgets that he is an educational leader as well as a manager or administrator. Hence the importance of appropriate and clearly stated objectives at the district/regional level in order that the goals set for the country as a whole (not only in education but also in other fields of social and economic development) should be translated into educational programmes and achieved in practice.

Co-ordination

Thus it is at the district/regional level that the work of primary and secondary schools and post-secondary training institutions has to be co-ordinated in relation to national goals and objectives. Account must also be taken of the pre-school and the non-formal educational activities, both for school leavers and those without schooling, which have a contribution to make, alongside formal schools, to the achievement of educational objectives. The education officer will

need to find ways of associating those responsible for such non-formal activities with the formulation of district/regional educational objectives, and it may well be desirable to establish means of collaborating as appropriate with regional offices of Ministries of Labour, Economic Development, Communication, Agriculture or Rural Development. Through such procedures both the agencies and others will understand better how their work fits into the larger development pattern.

Conclusion

In briefly considering aspects of the leadership role of the school principal, the subject inspector and the district/regional education officer, it has been shown that the identification of objectives in one area is often dependent on the identification of objectives, and programmes for their achievement, in another. The objectives themselves become meaningful as an attempt is made to implement them and to evaluate outcomes against agreed criteria.

Reservations about Objectives

At this point it is salutary to recognise that substantial reservations can be expressed concerning exclusive reliance on an objectives approach to educational planning and administration. Among these reservations are the following:

1. The difficulty of stating precisely and definitively what the objectives of an educational programme should be.
2. The difficulty of achieving a match between publicly agreed objectives and the private aspirations which also influence behaviours.
3. The difficulty of constructing evaluative procedures which do not themselves distort the educational process, a point implicit in the discussion of behavioural objectives.

Making full allowance for such difficulties, which cannot easily be resolved, it also has to be recognised that in all walks of life people have to make some assumptions, however tentative and provisional, regarding the objectives of their work, the main tasks they are expected to perform, and the criteria by which their work will be evaluated. If they are wise they will also provide for the possibility of adaptation and adjustment to meet changing conditions.

What is suggested in this chapter is that the world of education is no exception. The formulation of specific educational objectives, which may be revised in the light of experience, is an aid to clear thinking at every level of the system, making it easier to develop appropriate learning activities and providing a rational, objective basis for evaluation.

The next chapter considers some of the main task areas of educational leadership. It is concerned with how the basic task of formulating objectives can be translated into programmes for action which can then be evaluated by agreed criteria.

CHAPTER 2

AREAS FOR LEADERSHIP

Because of widely varying circumstances and traditions, there will be many differences in the duties and responsibilities of school principals from country to country within the Commonwealth. This applies equally to the duties and responsibilities at a district or regional level of education officers and inspectors.

Task Areas In spite of such differences, it is not difficult to identify broad task areas of educational leadership which are widely applicable both to principals, to education officers, and to inspectors. In this chapter five such areas are examined.

Curricular issues

Student welfare

Staffing matters

Resource management

Community relationships

Under each heading principals and education officers/inspectors will be invited to consider the extent to which they do provide leadership, and to assess whether their activities contribute to the formulation and achievement of agreed educational objectives.

School Level In each section questions will be suggested that principals might ask of themselves and of their colleagues on the staff of the school, related to that task area. Because of the many differences of structure and circumstance, the questions are only offered as examples and should not be regarded as definitive or comprehensive. Principals are advised, however, not to underestimate the contribution which their staff colleagues may be able to make, and which they can usefully be encouraged to make to the consideration of many of the questions posed. These school-related questions also give an indication of the kind of issue which might appropriately be opened up by an inspector when he visits a school.

District Level	There are also matters in each area of leadership which need to be considered by education officers and inspectors at district level. Some of these will be indicated in the various sections, and are again intended mainly as examples to stimulate discussion and the formulation of additions and alternatives more relevant to particular circumstances.
Exercises	Finally, each section will include an exercise or a problem which might be considered in a group situation. The aim is simply to suggest to course organisers the kind of real life local material which they might usefully compile for use in in-service training. The topic of case studies, in-tray exercises and simulations will be considered in Part 2 of the Handbook.

Curricular Issues

Definitions The term 'curriculum' is sometimes used restrictively to refer to a detailed programme of study in a subject or group of subjects at a particular stage of education, i.e. as an approximate synonym for 'syllabus'.

More usually today the term is used to signify the whole complex of planned courses and learning experiences which are provided by the school. In this sense it includes not only details of course content but also the proposed learning strategies, the study materials - whether centrally supplied or developed at the school - and even the extra-curricular activities, in so far as they are designed to influence and reinforce the learning process. It is in this wide sense that the term curriculum is used in this section.

Curriculum Development In most countries the school curriculum is strongly influenced by ministry regulations or the requirements of examining boards. Special institutes or centres have also been established in some countries to help in curriculum development, including the production of resource materials, guidelines for teachers and evaluation instruments.

Curriculum Appraisal A substantial element of discretion remains with the teacher, even in highly structured curriculum projects. This is hardly surprising, since one is concerned with the sum total of intended learning experiences, formal and informal. However centralised or decentralised the system, and irrespective of the activities of publishers, examination boards and curriculum development centres, it is relevant to ask questions about the curriculum as it exists in the schools, and within a district.

School Level Questions

Objectives 1. What are the objectives of the school curriculum? Consider the question generally and in terms of specific areas of study and development.

2. How were the objectives developed, and to what extent were the teaching staff involved?

3. Are all teachers aware of the objectives? Are they interpreted differently by different members of staff?

Implementation of Objectives 1. How do the courses, other learning activities, and the methods of presentation, contribute to achieving the objectives?

2. What options are available within the curriculum. How far is the resulting programme, as experienced by individual students, well balanced in relation to the different areas of knowledge, skills, and behaviour?

3. To what extent do members of staff communicate with each other about the curriculum? Does the organisation of the school facilitate such communication?

4. Are special arrangements made in relation to individual needs, e.g. for handicapped children, or children from a different linguistic background?

5. What arrangements are made to provide guidance to students and their parents when curricular choices have to be made concerning optional subjects?

Evaluation
and
Feedback

1. How are outcomes assessed, whether within the school or externally? Are the assessment procedures clearly related to the objectives that have been identified?

2. If an assessment is adverse, what kind of action is likely to be taken to improve the situation?

3. What curricular problems occurred last year? How have they been dealt with, and who has been involved in tackling them?

4. Are opportunities taken to communicate with the community, and particularly with parents, about the school programme, so as to take account of their views in its planning and assessment?

District Level Questions

The involvement in curricular issues of the district level educational leader will vary from system to system. At a minimum he will be concerned with two matters:

(a) Helping teachers in different schools to learn from each other's experience.

(b) The learning needs of those outside the school system.

Some questions are suggested on both aspects.

Between
Schools

1. How can the teachers in the schools of the district be assisted and encouraged to help one another in:

(a) Clarifying their objectives?

(b) Implementing new curricula?

(c) Adapting the curriculum to the local environment?

(d) Identifying local resources which can be used in programmes of instruction?

(e) Devising teaching strategies for specific areas of the curriculum?

(f) Improving their evaluation procedures?

2. What organisational structures, such as subject organisations, in-service courses, and curriculum centres are needed to promote teacher interaction and involvement?

3. Where curricula are designed centrally, is adequate feedback being provided to the course designers of the experience, of the teachers of the district in implementing the curricula? How is this information provided, and does it have any effect?

Outside the
Schools

1. What are the learning needs of those who have left the school system, for whatever reason?

2. How can the leavers be helped to appreciate their learning needs and to find the motivation and resources for satisfying them?

3. If there are young people and adults who have not had the opportunities of formal schooling, what are their minimum learning needs?

4. What educational programmes are needed for these groups, bearing in mind the objectives for economic and social development agreed at national and district levels?

5. What resources are available? If resources are inadequate, what action can be taken in the matter?

Contrasting Models of Curriculum Management

Consider schools A, B and C, which present three different approaches to the curriculum and to the induction of new staff into the teaching programme:

- School A New teachers find out from their heads of department (or the principal) what are the main subject areas to be covered in each form. Using the old notes from their own school or college studies, and following the sequence set out in the students' textbook, they cover the syllabus as best they can in preparation for internal or external examinations. Questions on each of the main topics may be expected. As more experienced teachers, they can repeat the same lessons in future years.
- School B New teachers are provided with a copy of the approved syllabus for each form and subject they are teaching. Using this and the prescribed textbooks, they plan the sequence of lessons in outline for the term. This outline is discussed with their supervisor (a head of department or the principal). It then provides the basis for detailed planning of lessons each week. Plans are adjusted in the light of students' progress and learning difficulties, and the situation is reviewed with the supervisor after termly or yearly class examinations. The same process is repeated each year, but as the teacher becomes more experienced, supervision of his teaching programme by the head of department or principal is dropped.
- School C New teachers are provided with a statement of educational objectives worked out by the principal and staff in relation to national goals and the school's situation. The curriculum for each year is planned on the basis of the approved syllabus and directed towards these agreed educational objectives. New teachers submit lesson programmes which are discussed with their supervisor. In addition, the supervisor and all staff involved with each area of the curriculum, or each group of students, meet on a regular basis to review students' progress, to identify topics or concepts with which students are having particular difficulty, to discuss the best ways of tackling these problems and any changes in the curriculum recommended by the Ministry. Students' competence is assessed on completion of each unit of work, and at the end of term, against criteria established in relation to the agreed objectives.
- Questions 1. What are the respective strengths and weaknesses of each approach as a model to be followed?
2. How far do the schools with which you are closely acquainted correspond to any of these models?
3. Keeping within the requirements of your ministry, describe briefly, in similar terms to the above, the arrangements you consider to be most likely to result in a high standard of education in the school(s) for which you are responsible.

4. If the existing situation differs from your proposed model, consider what changes would be necessary to bring it into line with your model. How might they be achieved?

Student Welfare

However widely the term curriculum is interpreted, it would be a mistake to consider the relationship of a school to its students purely in terms of planned courses and other curricular activities. It is generally recognised that, to carry out its educational functions effectively, the school also has to be an institution for student welfare and guidance.

In today's world it is increasingly desirable for the principal and the staff of the school to be sensitive and sympathetic to the individual problems, circumstances and viewpoints of the students. Experience in many countries shows that disregard of such matters may lead not only to poor educational outcomes but also to acute unrest and serious disciplinary problems.

Information

In order to develop an effective programme of student welfare and guidance, a first requirement is a well organised information system concerning students. On this basis a system of pastoral care or student guidance is developed, which is able to respond to the personal, academic and career needs of the student. It is also important that the staff as a whole should be concerned not only with academic, but also with behavioural outcomes.

As education becomes more widely available and is no longer largely confined to a privileged minority, the quality of the relationship achieved between staff members and students, and particularly between the principal and students, is of crucial importance to the well-being of the school if it is to be a seat of learning rather than a seat of conflict.

School Level Questions

Information Systems

1. What kind of information is needed about students? Does the school have adequate and reliable information about the previous schooling, health, and home background of students?
2. Where is the information about individual students recorded? Who has access to it, and who is responsible for updating it?
3. Are the appropriate staff informed when the need arises or the students change school, of the special difficulties of individual students regarding medical or other conditions?
4. Does the school have appropriate links with external welfare services, which enable relevant information to be communicated both ways?
5. Is a systematic attempt made to follow up and record the progress of former students after they have left school, and then to use the information as part of the evidence in evaluating school programmes and objectives?

Pastoral
Arrangements

1. What is the system, whether on a "house" basis or on a "year" basis, for giving personal and individual care to students? How well is it working? Are there ways in which it could be improved?
2. On what basis are newcomers to the school allocated to different groups or classes? What steps are taken to make new students welcome, and to get to know their parents?
3. On what basis are students divided into groups? Are mixed ability groups created for some purposes? Justify your current grouping arrangements.
4. What guidance is available to students on opportunities for further study, and on career opportunities after leaving school? Are former students used as a source of career advice?

Behavioural
Aspects

1. How do the principal and teaching staff seek to influence student behaviour? How much reliance respectively is there on sanctions, on rewards, and on praise?
2. What attempts are made to find out the cause of delinquent or anti-social behaviour? Is persistent absenteeism followed up?
3. What opportunities are given to students for the development of initiative and responsibility? Should senior students have a part to play in the school's consultative or decision-making arrangements? If so, are the present arrangements working well, or could they be improved?

District Level Questions

District level educational leaders may be expected to provide support to the schools in carrying out their student welfare responsibilities, consider demographic issues related to student numbers, and to consider the needs of those who have had no formal schooling. Questions are suggested for each of the three aspects.

Supporting
the Schools

1. What steps are taken to ensure that there is appropriate liaison between the schools and external agencies for welfare and guidance?
2. Is information available at district level on absenteeism and the number of students in the schools who drop out without completing the course? Are such matters discussed with the school principals?
3. What steps are taken to improve communication between the schools and the community? Are any arrangements made for teachers, parents and community leaders to meet from time to time to exchange views?
4. When matters relating to students become of general concern in the community, whose responsibility is it to deal with them? Is anything done to tackle the underlying causes?

Demographic
Issues

1. Are population statistics available by age, by sex and (where appropriate) by sub-districts?
2. Are corresponding statistics available of school enrolments in terms of the same characteristics?
3. What attempts are being made to increase the enrolment of any groups which are systematically under-represented in schools (e.g. girls, or children from a particular sub-district)?

The Needs of
Those
Outside the
School
System

1. What proportion of the population above school age is illiterate or has had no opportunity of formal schooling?
2. Have the areas in which educational disadvantage is most prevalent been identified?
3. Are there schools or other centres of community activity within reach of these areas where educational programmes could be provided? What arrangements need to be made to enable existing facilities to be used to the best advantage?
4. What further provision is desirable? How and when can the necessary resources be provided?

A Student Record Card for Re-Consideration

Here is a specimen student record card. Consider the different kinds of information it contains - which items are objectively factual, which are evaluative, which are subjective impressions, which should be confidential?

(Front)

SURNAME	FORENAMES	ADMISSION NO.
DATE OF BIRTH	SEX	ADDRESS
FATHER/GUARDIAN'S NAME OCCUPATION		CHANGE OF ADDRESS
DATE OF ADMISSION DATE OF LEAVING		PREVIOUS EDUCATION FUTURE EDUCATION/EMPLOYMENT
SPECIAL NOTES HOME/FAMILY LANGUAGE BACKGROUND HEALTH		

(Back)

FORM TUTOR'S COMMENTS YEAR 1 YEAR 2 YEAR 3 YEAR 4 YEAR 5	DISCIPLINE-- SERIOUS OFFENCES
LEAVING EXAMINATION	

1. Is there a case for recording any of these items separately and not on the card?
2. Who will keep the card up to date, and how frequently?
3. Where will the card be kept and who will have access to it?
4. What additional items, if any, should be included - annual performance mark or grade in each subject, for example?

Staffing Matters

Questions are suggested under three headings: (a) Allocation and specification of tasks; (b) Communication and participation; (c) Staff development and self-evaluation. The questions relate specifically to the school situation. But they may also be of interest and concern at the district level, whatever the degree of autonomy granted to individual institutions.

Allocation and Specification of Tasks

1. How systematic are the selection and allocation procedures for:

- (a) Teaching staff?
- (b) Technical and ancillary staff?

How effective are they?

2. When appointments or allocations are being made, are job descriptions made available in connection with the following posts:

- (a) A teaching post?
- (b) A technical or ancillary post?
- (c) A senior supervisory post?

If such job descriptions are provided, how much detail do they and should they contain?

3. Are new members of the teaching staff adequately informed about administrative procedures and the curricular and extra-curricular activities expected of them? What arrangements are made for their initial support and guidance?

4. On what basis are staff allocated to teaching groups? Is the allocation made fairly and appropriately, having regard to the particular expertise and interest of staff? Are the arrangements for internal promotion rational and fair?

Communication and Participation

1. What forms of communication are used:

- (a) Between the principal and the staff?
- (b) Among the teaching staff?
- (c) Between the teaching staff and the pupils?

Does information tend to flow in one direction only, or is there a two-way traffic of giving and receiving?

2. Are positive steps taken to promote co-operation within the school, between different groups? For example:

- (a) Teaching staff and support staff?
- (b) Teachers in different parts of the school or in different disciplines?

(c) Those mainly involved in academic and those mainly involved in non-academic activities?

3. Who arranges for the teaching or supervision of classes during short-term absences? Are the arrangements working fairly and effectively?

4. Are staff meetings carefully planned, regularly held and efficiently run? Do they usually produce positive outcomes, i.e. some specific action arising from the decisions or recommendations made?

5. Are staff working parties, or more permanent groups, active in subject areas or other areas of common concern? Are the decisions or recommendations of meetings of staff recorded and generally communicated?

6. Is there a well defined pattern of consultation and decision-making for the formulation of policy with regard to school objectives? Are there opportunities for all staff to express their views? Are there some matters on which support staff might be consulted?

7. Can teaching staff be confident of being consulted before decisions are made which will affect their work? Does your answer apply equally to technical and ancillary staff?

Staff
Development
and Self-
Evaluation

1. Is the in-service training of staff seen as an institutional as well as an individual responsibility? Has a senior member of staff been appointed as the school's staff development officer?

2. What opportunities are available, within the school, and by attending courses elsewhere, for members of staff to receive in-service training in subject areas, teaching methods and school management?

3. Is the allocation of tasks in the school linked to staff development? For example, are tasks rearranged or re-allocated from time to time to promote staff growth and to maintain staff morale and motivation?

4. Are there adequate arrangements for the in-service training of technical and ancillary staff?

5. Do members of staff receive guidance in evaluating their own performance? Is there an accepted procedure for the teachers to appraise their own schemes of work and programme performance, as individuals, and as a group in relation to agreed educational objectives and criteria?

A Job Description for a School Principal

Here is a job description. Does it leave out any points which you think should be included? Does it include anything which should be left out? Which of the "supervisory and administrative tasks" should probably be delegated?

Job Description

Post

School Principal, Owusu Secondary School

Responsible to: Regional Superintendent of Education

Direct Contact with: District Education Officer

Heads of Department, Owusu School

Teaching and support staff of Owusu School

Main
Responsibilities

- (a) General management of the school, implementation of directives from the ministry, maintenance of required records, accounting for stock and money.
- (b) Co-operation with district and regional education officers, community leaders, and representative bodies concerned with education.
- (c) Supervision of teaching and ancillary staff and care for pupils attending the school.
- (d) Development of educational objectives for the school (within the guidelines of national and district development policy), and monitoring performance in relation to those objectives.

Supervisory
and
Administrative
Tasks

- (a) Formulation, with staff, of educational objectives for the school as a whole, and for each subject and activity area.
- (b) Allocation of staff responsibilities.
- (c) Timetabling.
- (d) Allocation of pupils to classes.
- (e) Conduct of staff meetings and establishment of working groups on topics of special concern.
- (f) Monitoring performance with staff in each area and identifying ways to improve effectiveness of school.
- (g) Arrangements for internal and external examinations.
- (h) Arrangements for self-help projects in co-operation with community leaders.
- (i) Arrangements for pupils' travels and school visits.

(j) Arrangements for special activities - open day, sports day, national festivals.

(k) Requisitions to ministry, preparation of regular returns and stocktaking.

(l) Attending to correspondence.

(m) Maintenance of school buildings.

Qualifications and Attitudes Required	Graduate with qualifications in education. At least 7 years' experience, including appointment as deputy head, head of department, or head of house. Up to date professionally. Ability to work well with other people. Proven administrative capacity.
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Expected Level of Performance	The regulations and specific requirements of the Ministry of Education are to be followed. Staff are aware of school objectives and have agreed programmes relating their work to those objectives and to the local situation. Achievement of those objectives is under continuous review.
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There are established and clear lines of communication between the head-teacher, the community, the staff and the pupils, and there is evidence that these lines are being used co-operatively in both directions.

Additional Exercise

Compile a job description

(a) for your own post.

(b) for a post which you supervise.

Resource Management

Material Resources As education, in most of its aspects, is still a labour intensive industry, the most important resource of all is undoubtedly the commitment of competent teachers. The management of this resource was under consideration in the previous section, Staffing Matters. The present section is concerned with the provision and use of material resources in the school and with related planning at the district level.

Priorities It needs to be stated at the outset that, if resources are limited - as they may be in many countries for some considerable time - the highest priority will have to be given to essential textbooks and other basic items, and it could well be that some of the more modern facilities and equipment to which reference is made below will have to wait until conditions are more favourable. Working out realistic priorities is then the most crucial aspect of resource management.

Even when resources are scarce, it is remarkable what can sometimes be achieved, e.g. in devising simple science equipment, through the intelligent improvisation and adaptation of competent and imaginative teachers, using local resources. This is an argument not for reducing resource allocation to schools but for making the best possible use of the resources which are available, and serves to re-emphasise the point made.

School Level Questions

Questions will be suggested under the three headings:

- (a) School buildings; (b) Educational facilities;
- (c) Community interest.

School Buildings

1. Are the available buildings used to the best advantage, having regard to the objectives of the school, the number of students, and their needs? Have alternative models been carefully considered, taking the size of teaching groups as a variable and looking critically at the extent to which specialist subjects require separate rooms?

2. Are there any minor additions or improvements to the present buildings which would substantially increase the efficiency of their use. For example:

(a) If it were found that some specialist rooms are under-utilised, would the provision of storage space, or other facilities for specialist equipment to be safely protected, make it possible for those rooms to be used for ordinary classes part of the time?

(b) Would removable partitions be helpful if large areas are often under-used?

3. Could better use be made of the building and its facilities by beginning and ending school at different times for seniors and juniors, and/or by having rest and lunch breaks at different times?

4. Is there an effective system of checking and monitoring the condition of buildings, fabric and fittings with regard to safety, security and appearance? Who is responsible for ensuring that repairs are rapidly and efficiently carried out?

5. Are steps taken to ensure that communal areas and corridors are tidy and pleasing? Are such areas used for displays of material and work, to stimulate interest among students and staff, and among parents and other visitors?

Educational Facilities

1. What special facilities and equipment are available in the school - science equipment, audio-visual aids, a language laboratory, craft tools, agricultural implements, printing and duplicating machines, musical instruments, sports equipment and facilities, transport, computing facilities, etc?

2. Who is responsible for the maintenance and checking of equipment? Is the system effective in keeping facilities in good working order? Are the resources as accessible as is practicable, to those who need to use them? Are teaching staff generally aware of the potential of the facilities which are available? Are they used to good effect?

3. What procedure is there for regular review of the provision of materials and equipment? Is there consultation with users on a regular basis, e.g. through a School Resources Committee? Are the procedures for the allocation of funds for resources considered to be fair and rational by the interests concerned?

4. Does the school have a Library/and or Central Resource Centre? If so, how is it organised? Is it meeting the school's needs?

Community Interest

1. If additional facilities are regarded as desirable to achieve the school's educational objectives, are the school's links with the community sufficiently strong for it to be feasible for the school and community to make a combined effort to find the necessary funds?

2. Are there facilities in existence in the community that could beneficially be used by the school for educational purposes? What obstacles, if any, would have to be overcome?

3. What facilities in the school are made available for wider community use? Given some input of resources, what arrangements could be made to extend this use? Could any additional facilities be made available by the school?

District Level Questions

Questions are suggested concerning: (a) The provision of support for the schools; (b) The future planning of educational facilities.

Supporting
the Schools

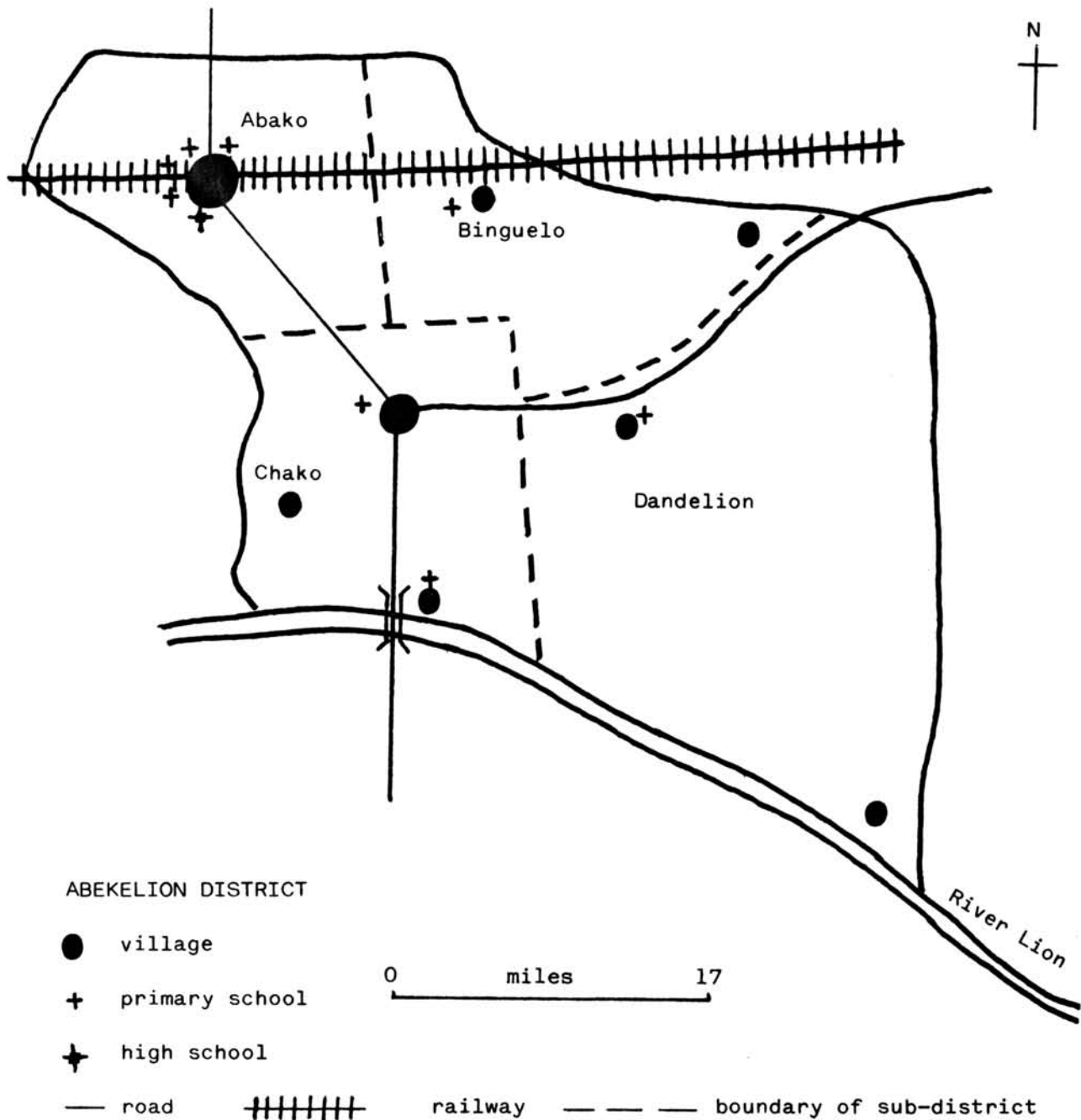
1. Is there a simple and fair procedure for the allocation of resources for the maintenance and improvement of school buildings?
2. Can proposals for minor additions or improvements to buildings be considered expeditiously? Can minor repairs be quickly authorised in an emergency?
3. Are there well defined and rational procedures for the allocation of funds to schools for material resources, or for obtaining facilities on their behalf?
4. Are the schools accountable to inspectors or district officers for the use made of resources provided? What procedures are involved?
5. What arrangements are made at district level to ensure that school staff are well informed about new developments in the field of resources? Is central guidance provided to ensure that scarce funds are spent wisely?

Planning
for the
Future

1. Given the student population data of your district and your present policies on enrolment and class size, estimate the buildings and facilities which will be required for schools in your district at each level next year. Indicating margins of error, give a similar projection for five years ahead.
2. What projects, in your view, should be given the highest priority? What steps are needed to obtain authority for, and to plan, the construction of these facilities? What resources would be available from the community?
3. Consider whether the expansion of existing facilities and/or the erection of new schools on similar lines is likely to be the most effective means of meeting the educational needs of the district in the long term. Can you envisage an alternative strategy which might be more appropriate for achieving the district's educational objectives for:
 - (a) Pupils of school age?
 - (b) Out-of-school youth?
 - (c) Adult learners?

What would be the resource implications?

A Case Study of an Imaginary District



Above is a sketch map of Abekelion District. It is a rural area approximately fifty miles wide, dependent mainly on subsistence farming and administered from Abako township. It is divided into four sub-districts, bounded on the south by the river Lion. The North-South road is a nationally important route and is joined by a feeder road from the East. The population is largest in the Abako sub-district and is concentrated mainly in the township of Abako. By contrast, the population in Dandelion sub-district is very scattered. The population of Binguelo, Chako and Dandelion sub-districts is roughly equal at the present time.

Population

Sub-district	Rate of population growth per annum %	% of primary school age children enrolled in school	% of literacy in population over age 15
Abako	8	90	50
Binguelo	2	55	30
Chako	3	70	40
Dandelion	2	25	15

Schools

	Primary, one-form entry	Primary, two-form entry	High School two-form entry
Abako	1	3	1
Binguelo	-	1	-
Chako	-	2	-
Dandelion	1	-	-

All forms have 35 pupils. The primary schools have the same number in their final year as in their first year forms. Their output is therefore:

6 schools x 2 forms x 35 pupils = 420 school leavers

2 schools x 1 form x 35 pupils = 70 school leavers

Total 490 leavers from primary school
===

Entry to the high school is 70 per year, so only one pupil in seven can transfer from the top class of primary school to the district's high school. This is less than the Government's objective which is one pupil in five. If there were one additional form right through the high school (bringing entry up to 105) this objective would be achieved in Abekelion. On the other hand, if primary school enrolment were increased, and the Abako High School remained its present size, there would eventually be enough to justify a new high school elsewhere in the district. Nationally, 60 per cent of children of primary school age are enrolled at primary schools, and the course lasts six years. There is pressure for each of the following additions to educational facilities in this district:

- (a) Increasing the intake at the one-form entry primary school in Abako township.
- (b) Establishing a new primary school in Binguelo.
- (c) Establishing a new primary school in the south-east of Dandelion.
- (e) Starting a new high school in Chako at either the river crossing or the road junction.

Questions

- (a) What consideration would you take into account in planning the development of educational facilities in this district?
- (b) If it were your country, which of the facilities demanded would you be inclined to place first, second, and third, in order of priority, or what alternative proposals would you suggest?
- (c) What additional facts would you want to know about Abekelion District before making a firm recommendation, and how would you obtain them?
- (d) What consultations would you make in the process?

Community Relationships

It was noted in the previous section, in the context of resource considerations, the advantages for the school of good community relationships. In many countries it is increasingly coming to be appreciated as a principle of much more general application.

Parents	For any school a vitally important section of the community are the parents and prospective parents. They need to have a clear understanding of the objectives of the school, how they are being implemented and how <u>they</u> can help, whether by positive action or by moral support. They also need to be able to express their views to the school and to feel that their ideas and feelings will be taken into account.
Community at Large	A two way relationship is also desirable with regard to the community generally. The school can gain much, and not only in monetary terms, from the active support and assistance of the community. It can also make a positive contribution in a number of ways to community development. The two aspects can mutually reinforce each other.

School Level Questions

Parents and the School	1. Is there a prospectus for new parents? How much thought is given to the first contact between the parents and the school? Do parents meet personally the teacher or teachers mainly responsible for their child? 2. What opportunities are provided to enable parents to understand what the school is trying to do, and why? 3. Are parents made to feel welcome in the school? Are complaints and difficulties dealt with quickly and sympathetically? 4. Are there opportunities for parents to discuss their children's progress with the teacher concerned, and with the school principal if necessary? 5. Are parents encouraged and advised as to how they might help their children to learn? 6. Is there a parent-teacher association or a parent association? If so, how well is it supported by: (a) Parents? (b) Principal and staff?
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7. Does the PTA or PA give attention to educational matters?
Is it involved in social and fund-raising activities?

The School
and the
Community

1. Is there a formal link with community interests through a school committee or board of governors? Is there an association of 'old students' or of 'friends of the school'? What activities are undertaken by any of these groups.
2. Do the linking groups which exist, effectively ensure that the school programme takes account of matters and projects of community concern? Do they help in providing relevant community resources for this purpose?
3. What use is made in the school programme of:
 - (a) Community expertise in cultural and vocational activities?
 - (b) Assistance to the school in an unskilled capacity?
4. To what extent are students and/or teaching staff involved through voluntary or governmental agencies with local community service, such as out-of-school education, literacy work or community development?
5. Does the school arrange educational visits to community institutions and places of employment as a means of increasing students' understanding of life outside school?
6. Are external activities and programmes regularly reviewed to evaluate and improve the effectiveness of school community contacts?

District Level Questions

Parents

Parents of children at school and other members of the community will often go to a district level officer to raise questions relating to a particular school. It will happen particularly if they have failed to obtain satisfaction at the school. Parents of students, whether or not they pay fees, and other local residents, who also as taxpayers are providers of the school system, properly consider that they have a right to be heard and be informed on matters relating to their schools. Such matters are liable to take up considerable time for educational officers at the district level if the community links at school level are weak.

Many of the questions suggested above at school level are therefore also relevant at district level, for the district officer will need to have a broad appreciation of the school-community links, of the schools for which he has responsibilities. Where there is a complaint, he will also be well advised, before dealing with the matter, to confirm the facts and obtain the views of the school principal. The problem as presented may not be the whole story.

Other Community Groups District education officers will also relate to at least two other groups:

- (a) Committees and boards of officials and of community representatives concerned with the development and implementation of educational policy. Examples are district education committees or advisory boards, inter-departmental co-ordinating committees and district development committees.
- (b) Community leaders such as local councillors, chiefs and other traditional rulers, leading industrialists, representatives of employers and trade union organisations, media representatives and leaders of community and voluntary organisations including religious organisations.

New Developments If a problem raised by a parent or other local resident were sufficiently serious, it might need to be dealt with by, or in conjunction with, one of the above groups. They would also need to be involved with any major issue of community involvement in educational matters at district level. If a substantial new development is proposed, it may be desirable to undertake extensive informal consultations with community leaders, whether before or after proposals have been submitted formally to relevant committees or boards. Having obtained the approval of these groups, the officer may then call meetings or use the media to explain the new proposal to the local residents, including parents. The community support, which may well be vital at the implementation stage, is more likely to be forthcoming if account has been taken at an early planning stage of community views on the objectives and implementation of the programme.

Inter-Departmental Links It is at district level that it is also desirable to consider the extent to which co-operation with other departments or agencies (including health, rural development, social welfare, housing and transport) can strengthen the educational service. As always in such relationships, there is another, equally important question to consider: the contribution which education can make to the problems faced by other services.

A Calendar for Community Relations

1. Summarise briefly the main educational objectives of your school (or district) as you see them.
2. Try to recall any activities and meetings in which your school (or a school under your supervision) has participated with members of the community during the last three months.
3. List these occasions in the appropriate places on the calendar below. Include meetings of boards of governors, parent-teacher associations or similar bodies, school open days, and community development work of any kind in which the school has participated on an organised basis.
4. Discuss the resulting calendar with your colleagues. How does the programme you have outlined compare with the objectives you first stated? If they do not fit together, what are the main problems which limit your programme, and have other schools or colleagues fresh ideas or experience which may help to overcome them?
5. Draw up a suggested programme of school community contacts for the next three months on another calendar. Keep in mind:
 - (a) The educational objectives you have proposed.
 - (b) The situation as you know it.
 - (c) A realistic estimate of staff/student time available.
 - (d) The value of practical results both in the school and in the community.

Meetings	Activities
Week 1 2 3 4	
Week 5 6 7 8	
Week 9 10 11 12	
Any regular school/community contacts every day: Any regular school/community contacts every week:	

Concluding Exercise

This Chapter has considered five areas of educational leadership at a school level, and at a district level. The first two areas related to the curricular and welfare needs of students. The third and fourth areas were concerned with the management of resources, both human and material. The final area of study was the interaction of the school with its environment or neighbourhood.

For each area questions were asked, related to school and district, which were generally intended to probe the relationship of stated objectives to the extent to which successful implementation has been achieved. To complete the chapter a final exercise is now proposed. It is in two parts.

1. Consider for each of the five areas, what further questions might usefully have been asked of educational leaders, having in mind the specific circumstances of your educational system. Answer these additional questions for your own school or district.
2. Specify aspects of the life of the school which have not been included, or only marginally, in the 'five area' classification, e.g., sports organisation, health and safety, internal and external examinations, extra-curricular activities, etc. Identify questions in some of these further areas which are relevant to educational leadership at school and district levels in your system, and provide answers for your school or district.

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.

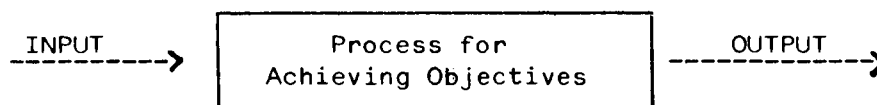


Figure 1 : The Basic Model

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.

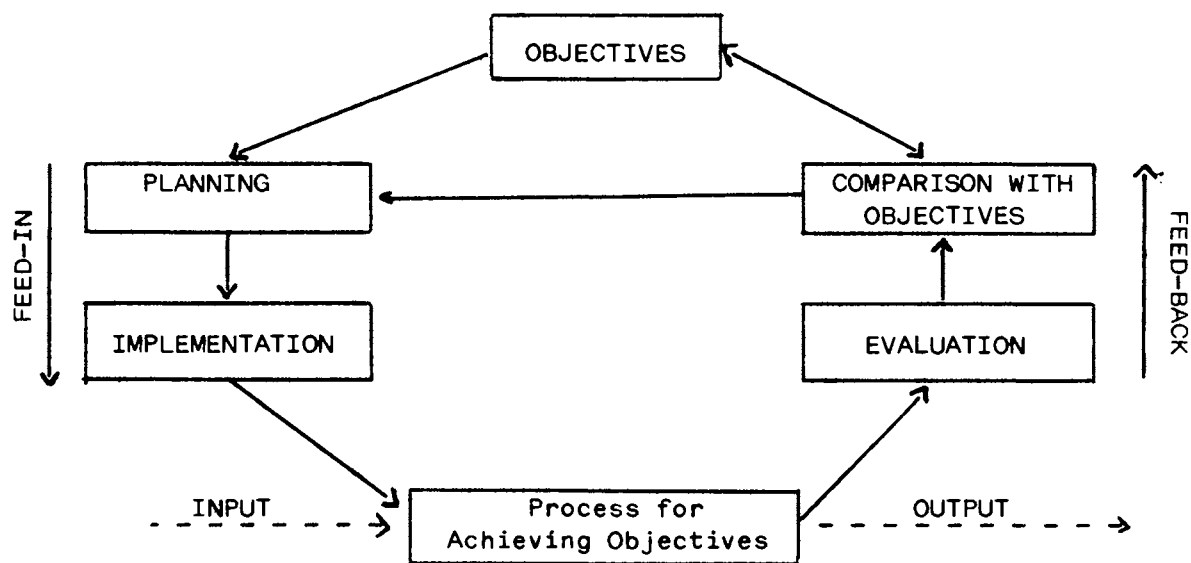


Figure 2: The Management Control Loop

- | | |
|-----------|--|
| 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.

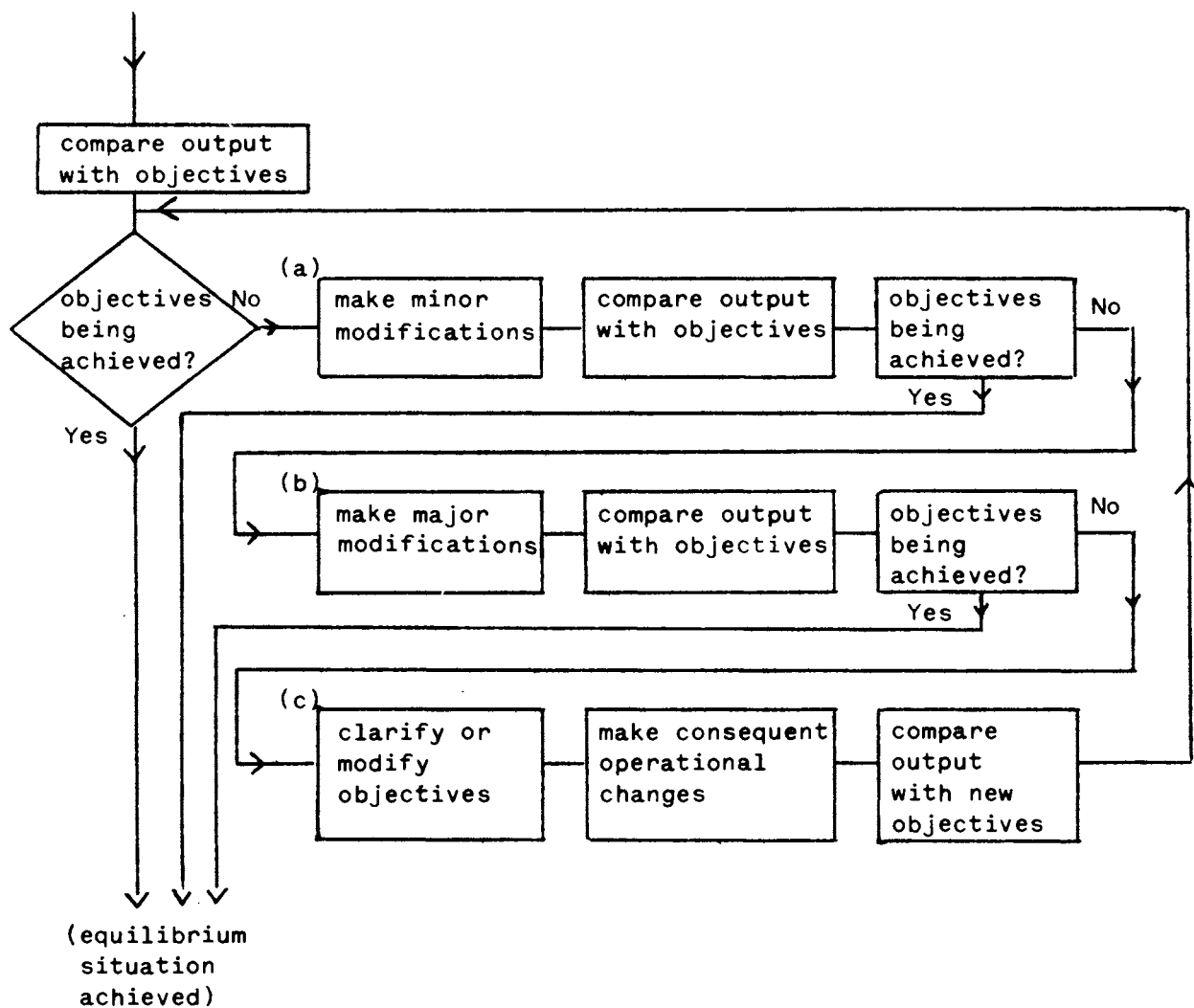


Figure 3: Making Adjustments: A Flow Diagram

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.

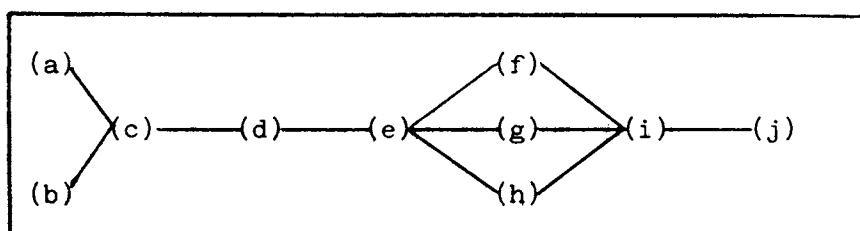
If the overall time is too long to be acceptable, consider what activities can be omitted or shortened. Consider also whether additional resources would speed up activities belonging to the critical path and hence shorten the overall time.

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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PART II

**IN SERVICE TRAINING
COURSES**

CHAPTER 4

PLANNING AND ORGANISING AN IN-SERVICE COURSE

In this chapter it will be assumed that the reader has been given responsibility as the organiser or director of an in-service course related to the management of schools or school systems. This part of the Handbook offers comment and advice which may be helpful in the planning and organisation of such a course. Bearing in mind the varying circumstances and considerations which will apply in different Commonwealth countries it would not be realistic to seek to provide detailed guidelines so the discussion will inevitably be at a rather general level. Nevertheless, there are some common needs and problems which can be usefully mentioned.

Clarifying Responsibilities

Terms of Reference

If you have been asked to organise a course, it may be assumed that the proposed activity has official approval at least in general terms. The initiative will, in many cases, have come from the Ministry or Department of Education and may be part of a wider policy. It is important for you to know what is expected of you, the resources that are to be available, and the extent of your personal authority in formulating plans and carrying them out. If necessary, you should seek clarification at the outset so that there will be no misunderstanding about your terms of reference or the resource constraints under which you must operate. In particular, the financial arrangements and the level of financial support have to be agreed as well as the amount of time that you yourself will be able to devote to the project and the administrative back-up which you will be given.

Planning Committee

It may well be that you will be expected to work with a Course Planning Committee and this is a matter which will also need to be explored. If the course is for secondary school principals, for instance, it is desirable that the Committee should include several principals chosen because of their potential for leadership, together with some office based administrators or inspectors and any relevant teachers' college or university staff. Such a broadly based and

representative Planning Committee should be welcomed by you on a number of counts:

1. It will have a realistic appreciation of the training needs of the relevant practitioner group.
2. It should be in a position to provide ideas and to make judgement as to how those needs might best be met.
3. Members of such a committee usually prove to be influential allies when the time comes to recruit participants for the course.
4. Committee membership itself contributes to the professional development of potential tutors and organisers of future courses, a multiplier effect being thereby generated.

Committee Role

Some thought needs to be given to the best relationship between yourself as course organiser and the Planning Committee. Different arrangements are possible. Responsibility for the course may be vested in the Planning Committee, the course organiser being simply the executive officer of that Committee. On the other hand the role of the Committee may be purely advisory, the organiser being directly responsible to his employing authority for all matters relating to the course. Whatever the formal position the reality is usually somewhere between those two positions and it is important that you should take trouble, as course organiser, to establish a good working relationship with your Course Planning Committee and any sub-committees which may be established in specialist areas.

Course Objectives and Target Group

Within the terms of reference given to you it will be desirable to have in mind specific objectives for the course. A related question, if this has not already been agreed, is that of deciding the group for whom the course is intended. Supposing that you have been given the general aim of arranging in-service provision to improve the management of primary schools in a region, you might consider arranging a series of in-service courses for primary school principals. In trying to formulate specific objectives for these courses you might decide that the needs of large and small schools (or urban and rural schools) are so different that it is better to arrange separate courses for each group. You might even decide that the highest priority should be given to the provision of a course to improve the competency of the inspectors or area education officers responsible for primary education in the region. The specific course objectives will then depend on the target group chosen.

Heterogeneous Groups Under certain circumstances there would be a case for arranging courses for two or more occupational groups together. If the aim were to tackle the problems involved in the transition from primary to secondary schools, for instance, it would be helpful to include both primary and secondary principals in the course membership. There would also be occasions when it would be salutary for school based and office based administrators to be fellow members of the same course. The specific course objectives would then include the exploration of difficulties and misunderstandings which sometimes arise in their relationships.

It is at the stage of specifying course objectives that a Planning Committee can be most useful. It will be found quite easy to agree on general aims and even to envisage a whole range of desirable objectives, but practitioner members of the Planning Committee will be able to give guidance concerning priorities and the objectives which are realistic in the given context. Even when the practitioners disagree amongst themselves, such differences of view are significant and can provide a useful starting point for identifying issues to be considered on the course.

Attainable Objectives Finally, it cannot be over emphasised that in setting objectives it is better not to be over ambitious. Experience suggests that more may be achieved in the long run by not trying to do everything at once but concentrating on a small number of limited, but attainable, objectives. This has implications for course content which will be considered further in the next chapter.

Planning

Time Span Once the course objectives and the clientele have been decided the planning and preparation can begin in earnest. Preparing for a major international educational conference such as the Quadrennial International Inter-Visitation Programme in Educational Administration, can take several years, but even within the national or regional structure of an individual country one should not under-estimate the time required to mount a worthwhile course which breaks new ground. Experience suggests that such a course is likely to require at least six months from the day the organiser gets his invitation or request to run the course to the opening of the actual proceedings. If distances are great and communication is difficult the time required could be considerably longer.

Flow Diagram Perhaps the best advice that can be given to you as course organiser is that at a very early stage you should write down all the various decisions and steps that have to be taken and then try to arrange them in a flow diagram as was done in the section on the Planning Process in Chapter 3 of Part I. (p.51). Some of the tasks which have to be carried out are discussed later in this chapter but they need to be specified in greater detail according to local circumstances before they can be placed accurately on the flow diagram. Some flexibility will still be desirable but you would be well advised to identify tasks which have to be

carried out in sequence to avoid the possibility of a break in the chain which might result in the course not being ready on time.

Preliminary Decisions

Matters to be decided in the period leading up to the course will include the following:

1. The number of participants.
2. The duration of the course, such as a day over a series of week-ends, or a week or more during the school vacation.
3. A suitable venue, bearing in mind the need for accommodation and catering facilities if the course is to be residential and is to extend more than a day.
4. The determination and development of course content relevant to course objectives.
5. The organisation of the course programme, including decisions on teaching techniques and the use of resource materials.
6. The specialist lecturers and course tutors, all of whom have to be briefed on the specific requirements of the situation.
7. The budget requirements so that the charges to be made can be fixed and funds can be obtained.
8. The information to be circulated about the course.
9. Preliminary instructions for intending participants.
10. The criteria and methods to be used for evaluating the success of the course.

Items 4,5,6 and 10 are essentially professional matters and will be dealt with in Chapter 6. The remaining items are essentially organisational and are dealt with below.

The Number of Participants

The number of those who wish to attend will depend on the theme and scope of the course and on the attractiveness of the programme offered as seen by the potential applicant himself and by those in authority over him. Other considerations will be the proposed length and timing of the course and the distance participants may have to travel.

The number of course members that can be accepted will depend on the accommodation and facilities available at the proposed venue, and may also be limited by the funding provided by the authorities to the organisers.

Because of the many factors involved it is difficult to give a view as to the best number to recruit. Unless the course is highly specialised (e.g., a course for Senior Inspectors) it probably should have at least 20 participants to allow for variety of thought and experience and to make it viable for those providing accommodation and catering. An appropriate upper limit might be, say 60 as numbers beyond that tend to make the course unwieldy and impersonal. In general it may be claimed that the most effective courses are those which are small enough for all members to get to know each other.

Duration and Timing

It is not easy to give a general rule on the duration and timing of training courses because much will depend on local circumstances. With regard to duration, experience suggests that about one week, or to be more precise 5-6 working days might be long enough to put over new ideas and not too long for those who have to come some distance and perhaps give up part of their vacation in order to attend. It may sometimes be necessary to hold longer courses, but once the organisers go beyond a week it means making allowances for rest periods at week-ends and additional organisation not necessarily contributing to the aim and purpose of the course. The longer course also has implications for the arrangement of suitable cover in the absence of the participant on the course. If one week is considered a norm this will help with the timing and eventually, the placing of the course. There may not be much choice in the matter for, if a residential course is planned, accommodation for a group of at least thirty people - including organisers and course tutors - has to be found somewhere. It means too a choice of dates in vacations, but vacations long enough and without religious or family festivals, for participants to be willing to give up one week of their holiday. Also it is most likely that suitable accommodation will only be available in educational or similar institutions during that time.

Location and Accommodation

Suitable accommodation means not only the sleeping and catering facilities for participants away from home, but also the rooms where teaching and discussion can go on without disturbance. There is a need for at least one lecture room or class-room large enough to accommodate the whole course and possibly a few visitors as well, and smaller rooms for discussion groups to allow everyone to have his say. In addition office space or, better, a small office will be required to allow the necessary administration to be carried out before and during the course, and a place such as a common room where participants can congregate socially during their leisure time. This latter facility is of great importance as much of the work of a course or conference is done in informal discussion and through personal contacts. All these requirements are usually met in colleges which train teachers or in other higher institutions of learning, and if they are under government control they have the added advantage of being available at the right time, at the right cost and with the full co-operation of the college authorities themselves. So the placing of the course should not provide too much difficulty, although it is still necessary to ensure that all the facilities required will in fact be available at the right time.

Financial Aspects

For a course or conference to reach the right people and therefore to have a chance of success, it is important that it should be properly funded. The expenditure for the proposed course can be broken down under a number of heads.

Accommodation and Catering	Accommodation and catering should normally be taken care of by the administrators, particularly if the accommodation is in an institution under government control. Even so it is well to be sure that this has not been overlooked, in order to avoid the difficulties which would have to be faced later if there has been any slip-up.
Participants' Allowances	It is essential to know the financial entitlement of the participants, as this has to go into the course information and invitations when they are circulated. Few are likely to apply to join a course without knowing whether they will be entitled to a refund of their travelling expenses, an important matter where distances are considerable, and to subsistence allowances whilst away from home or station.
Administrative Expenses	There needs to be adequate provision for the administrative expenses of the organiser and for his secretarial assistance.
Fee Payments	Many members of the education service will be giving their services freely, but even where no actual lecture fees are involved there will be expenses for those involved in the academic side of the course, as well as free accommodation and maintenance.
Incidental Expenditure	Finally a sum may be set aside for incidental expenditure and entertaining the visitors and participants. It may be appropriate, for instance, to give a reception to local dignitaries at the official opening of the course, which may be good for public relations, but still has to be paid for.

The main point for you as course organiser is that you should ensure at the outset that all necessary expenditure has been thought of and that the sums set aside are adequate. A budget must be prepared.

The Circulation of Information

You will want to ensure as soon as possible that all those who are likely to benefit from the content of the course and for whom it is intended, hear about it and learn enough about its theme to enable them to come to a well-informed decision to attend. This means that you have to find a way to circulate advance information (and this is where a six months time scale comes in) either to the individuals whom you want to reach, or those who have responsibility over intended participants, like principals of schools and district or regional education

officers. For instance, in the case of a course for school staff it can be the proper procedure to write to the principals of schools and/or heads of department with a request to pass on the information to those concerned. At the same time it is sensible to circulate as many relevant official bodies and individuals as possible in the area where the course is held and from which you are likely to draw the participants so that nobody feels left out. People naturally like to be told about what is going on in what they consider to be their area, and it makes for good relations and may well contribute to the success of the undertaking. Quite apart from this it is obviously desirable that all those who might be interested, hear about the projected course in good time, to enable them and possibly their principals or superior officers to make proper preparation. It is therefore important that this first circular contains as much information as can be made available at that stage and this should include the theme or content, the persons for whom it is intended, the place and time, the official support regarding allowances, and an indication of how further details and application forms may be obtained. It may also be desirable to include the names of those who are likely to lecture but that might not be possible at this early stage as the lecturers and tutors may yet have to be invited, unless they are detailed at the outset by the authorities who have initiated the course in the first place.

Applications

About half-way between the circulation of the first information and the actual date of the course or conference, it will be time to issue the actual invitations and application forms. This intervening time will have given our Planning Committee an opportunity to map out the programme in greater detail and allowed confirmation of those who are going to do the teaching and tutoring. The provisional course programme will be attached to the invitation letter which should also repeat all the information given previously (in greater detail if possible). The form of application must request enough information to allow the organisers to make a proper selection of those most suitable for the course and to reject those who may only wish to come along for the trip. In addition a closing date for applications should be set some 4-6 weeks before the commencement of the course stating that late applications will only be considered in exceptional circumstances. This time limit is necessary not only to process the applications and possibly select participants, but also to inform the successful applicants and send them the joining instructions in good time, writing also to explain the situation to the other applicants. Some think it is a good idea to request a small (returnable) deposit to be included with the applications because this may deter those who apply happily and then decide to stay away at the last moment; this is a matter which is best decided in the light of local circumstances. The method of circulation will presumably be the same as that adopted for the original information

unless there has been another procedure suggested in that first circular, such as requesting those interested to apply for further information and the appropriate forms.

Co-ordination

Sub-Committees In all matters relating to planning and preparation the Planning Committee can be of considerable help to you and in the case of a course of a substantial nature it might even be desirable to set up sub-committees on specific aspects. There could be a sub-committee, for instance, to develop course content and teaching materials. A programme sub-committee might plan the daily activities of the course and the allocation of participants to discussion groups. Another sub-committee might formulate the evaluation procedures. As a good manager you will be aware that, when there is division of labour, appropriate mechanisms for co-ordination should also be provided. This is best achieved in relation to the work of sub-committees by ensuring that each sub-committee chairman is a member of the Planning Committee to which he reports regularly. It may also be helpful for you as course organiser to have the right to attend sub-committee meetings, though you may not necessarily always do so, and to receive as a matter of course the minutes of all such meetings. In this way you will be able to keep tabs on the whole planning process.

The Role of the Course Secretary

Reference has been made to the need for adequate secretarial assistance, which applies during the period of planning and during the course itself. Without such support it would be difficult to circulate course information widely, receive applications and possibly deposits, invite speakers, deal with local conditions and answer many enquiries and other correspondence. It would be wise for you to request from your authorities some secretarial help, which would probably be on a part-time basis at the early stages, as well as some time from your own normal duties, to deal properly with matters relating to the course. It would also be desirable that the secretary concerned should be available full-time as Course Secretary for the duration of the course as he/she will by then be thoroughly familiar with the administrative detail which form part of the smooth running of the exercise.

Instructions to Participants As the beginning of the course approaches, the work of the Course Secretary increases by leaps and bounds. Three to four weeks before the first day of the course (longer where communications are poor) instructions should be issued to participants on the arrangements made for their arrival, on the expected time of arrival (e.g. "not later than..."), where they have to report and how to get to the place, with a map if necessary, and what they are expected to bring with them on the domestic side, like soap, towels, etc. Any preliminary reading material to be studied before the course begins will be included, together with the latest course

information and instructions concerning the problem material related to their own situation which they are expected to bring with them. In order that the participants should obtain the maximum benefit, it is essential that all this material should be distributed in good time, and this will eventually depend on a great deal of systematic hard work in the Course Office.

Registration The Course Office will then need to be ready for the first day of the course and the period of conference registration. At this time, course members will be issued by Reception (i.e., by the Course Secretary and any temporary assistants) with the final Course Timetable, lists of lecturers and tutors, lists of course members and of the allocations to discussion groups and syndicates, name badges, room allocations and information on local and domestic arrangements such as meal times, laundry, postal and transport facilities. It is often found helpful to have all the information sheets for each participant placed beforehand in a large envelope or folder which can simply be handed over to him on registration. This saves a lot of time on the day, and may help to ensure that the opening ceremonial and foundation lecture can begin punctually, with everybody - or nearly everybody - present.

The Course Office Throughout the course, the Course Office will continue to provide a physical base to the tutorial and organising staff and to the participants. It is here that the financial problems of participants will be dealt with and arrangements made for payments to tutors and lecturers. The Office will handle the various papers supporting the teaching and lecturing which have been made ready for the course, as well as the audio visual aids and other illustrative materials. Then there are the daily arrangements such as transport for visits, information concerning social activities, messages for participants, and a ceaseless round of enquiries. It becomes evident that, as organiser, you could not have dealt with all these matters yourself, hence the need for full time support from a Course Secretary.

Information A final point with regard to the Course Secretary's basic job of providing information to participants during the actual course. The task in this respect can be lightened in two ways: firstly by having a well organised system of course notice boards, which are kept up to date, and encouraging course members to read them; and secondly by oral announcements at the end of the first session each morning.

The Commencement and Conclusion of the Course

Official Opening The course will probably be scheduled to begin with an official opening at which an appropriate public representative or high official will welcome the participants. The organiser, if the course is newsworthy, must remember to inform the press, and should meet any journalists to try to ensure that their reports are factually correct. The opening will usually be followed by a foundation lecture or keynote

address, which will set the theme of the course and should therefore be given by somebody of standing in the field under discussion. He might be a Chief Inspector with a particular concern in this area, or a senior Minister or Department official with responsibility for related policy matters, or an academic who can make a scholarly contribution which has practical application. It is as well to have one or two names in reserve in case the distinguished opening lecturer has to withdraw at the last minute.

Out of Course
Programmes

The next chapter considers the substantive content and teaching methods of the course, but before referring to the concluding session, it may be appropriate to note, in passing, that you should not overlook the need for variety in out of class activities during evenings or any free time that may occur. There are many possibilities. There can be discussions of general issues or brains trusts, cultural performances (possibly by school pupils), film shows and sports activities. Some time should be left for recreation and shopping, and it may be wise to set one afternoon and possibly one evening aside for this in a week's programme, while offering those who wish to see the local sights an opportunity to join a coach trip. Appropriate opportunities for relaxation act as a complement to the hard work expected in the formal sessions, and will contribute to the success of the course. The final session, which also needs to be carefully planned, will arrive all too soon.

Final
Proceedings

Experienced course organisers will be well aware of the importance of programming the final proceedings in such a way that few course participants will succumb to the temptation to drift away to catch convenient travel connections. It can be useful towards the end of the course to have a plenary session with reports from various working groups which have been set up. It can also be disastrous and will lead to a sense of anti-climax if the reports are lengthy, unimaginatively delivered and repetitive. Much depends on having a good chairman, who should meet the group spokesman beforehand to explain what is required and to try to avoid tedious overlaps. He/she will need to handle the session itself in a firm but friendly manner, which will avoid time wasting on less important matters as some members of the audience begin to look at their watches.

A general overview and summing up will now be appropriate, which may be provided by the chairman of the previous session or, if possible, by the key speaker originally responsible for setting the theme in the foundation lecture. If effectively done this final overview can serve to bring together the different parts of the course to form a meaningful whole for the participants, who will return to their home surroundings determined to put into practice what they have learnt on the course.

A very brief concluding session will provide an opportunity for thanks to be expressed to all who have contributed to the success of the course. An alternative is for such courtesies and expressions of appreciation to have taken place at a course party the previous evening, an occasion which can be

recommended as an excellent means of strengthening the informal links which will be invaluable in enabling the message of the course to be taken further. Similarly it will have been a good idea to have a course photograph at an appropriate occasion as a further means of emphasising the significance of course attendance.

Post Course Administration A number of tasks remain for the course organiser after the participants have departed for their homes. You will need to write to thank all who have contributed to the programme, and ensure that all accounts are met and all bills paid. A final meeting of the Planning Committee may need to be called for report and review.

Course Report

Course evaluation will be considered at the end of the next chapter after the discussion of course content and teaching methods. This chapter ends by raising the question of whether it may be desirable to publish an account of the course for general distribution. Such a report, if it is to be produced will need to be carefully planned and organised.

The main argument in favour of producing a publication as a result of the course is that in this way the considerable work by many people which has gone into the enterprise can be of lasting benefit. It will provide helpful reinforcement of learning for those who have attended the course, but it will also reach and influence those who had an interest in its objectives but could not be present.

If it is decided to have a course report, the main speakers can be asked to prepare their addresses as papers for publication, or at the very least to provide summaries which can be included in the report. Secondly, if much of the work of the course is done in small groups or syndicates, you should arrange for a record of those discussions and practical sessions to be available to be included or summarized in the report as a contribution by the participants. Some account should also be given of other activities or any institutional visits related to the course. The final speaker who provided the course overview may be glad of the opportunity to revise his address for publication.

The compilation and editing of the report is a technical and skilled achievement which involves considerable effort. As course organiser you may wish to be personally involved, believing that you have the best overall view of the whole course. On the other hand your other responsibilities may be too demanding for it to be sensible for you to take on the major responsibility, in which case it will be very valuable if you have someone on the Planning Committee who has the appropriate skill and interest and who is prepared to take on the editorship either alone or in collaboration with you.

Timing For maximum impact it is desirable that the report should appear as soon after the end of the course as possible. In so far as financial considerations permit, a generous estimate should be made of the number of copies required, so

that the report will be easily available to those who will benefit by it. Copies should be placed in appropriate offices and libraries and sent for review to any relevant educational journal, even those at some distance from your centre of activity. If the report receives favourable comment you may continue to receive requests for it for many years. In this way your course will still be influential when you have almost forgotten the hard work that went into its planning and organisation.

CHAPTER 5

COURSE CONTENT, TEACHING METHODS AND COURSE EVALUATION

Practical Aims

While the specific objectives of different courses will differ, there are likely to be three broad aims which you will need to bear in mind as Course Organiser. These are:

1. The up-dating of professional knowledge and expertise.
2. The improvement of leadership performance.
3. The development of personnel to act as management trainers.

These are essentially practical rather than academic aims. A basic consideration in course construction should therefore be whether the learning and skills acquired will help the participants to do their jobs more effectively and more efficiently within the resources available. As a result of course attendance participants should not simply be more knowledgeable in relevant areas but should have increased their skills in dealing with a problem which they encounter from day to day and those with which they are likely to be faced in the future.

This practical orientation has implications for course content, for the deployment of teaching methods and for course evaluation. In this chapter these three areas are considered in turn.

Course Content

The Role of Theory

What is the status of theory in an in-service course? In spite of John Dewey's well known dictum that "theory is in the end the most practical of all things", the inclusion in the course of a substantial theoretical element, the relevance of which will only be made apparent later, is not recommended as an appropriate way of providing professional training. The connection established between theory and practice will need to be much more subtle and far-reaching as was noted in the paper "Content of Training Courses" an extract from a Commonwealth experts report, reprinted in the report of the Commonwealth Regional Training Course for Africa, Nairobi 1977 and the report of the Commonwealth Pacific Training Course, Suva, Fiji 1978:

"Courses should be essentially practical. This does not mean that they should be arranged as a series of un-related activities strung together like a string of sausages. Course design should be based on a sound conceptual framework and should be structured to help participants interpret their own experience in relation to this framework and to extend that experience through a sequence of learning situations including practical visits and attachments... Courses should therefore blend together, training in specific ways of handling specific problems and a greater awareness of the principles which underlie the problems and the techniques of problem-solving".

The underlying structure for the course could be provided, for instance, by the management model adopted in Chapter 3 whereby the processes of defining objectives, planning, organising for implementation, and exercising control are linked together in a cyclic closed loop arrangement. There are alternative conceptual schemes which one might adopt, such as an open system model which directs attention more specifically to the interaction between an organization and its environment. There are other approaches which place emphasis respectively on human relations, on differences of viewpoint or of perception among different groups, or on the political skills of negotiating, bargaining, persuading and resolving conflict. Whatever conceptual model is adopted, sufficient flexibility should be retained in the course programme to allow for consideration to be given to matters raised by participants which do not fit neatly into the predetermined pattern.

Course
Objectives
and Choice
of Topics

In the previous chapter it was suggested that one should not be unduly ambitious in setting course objectives. A course which promises more than it can deliver leads to disappointment and disillusion; a course which seeks to cover too much ground is liable to be superficial and ineffective. It is therefore important, particularly in a short course, to choose the actual topics to be considered with care, discrimination and a sense of realism. The five task areas for educational leadership as set out in Chapter 2 (curricular issues, student welfare, staffing matters, resource management and community relationships) could provide a useful starting point, but one can also easily compile more extensive lists such as the following:

1. A study of national goals, educational aims and institutional objectives and their relationship to one another.
2. The structure and organisation of the national system of education.
3. Structure and organisation within the school.
4. Curricular issues including the extent to which the school curriculum is related to national goals and to local requirements.

5. Student welfare, including information systems, pastoral arrangements, behavioural aspects, demographic issues.
6. Staffing matters, including the recruitment and selection of staff, the allocation and specification of tasks, communication and participation, staff development, establishing training and certification guidelines.
7. Resource and fiscal management, including school buildings, educational facilities, preparing and managing the budget, accounting and business procedures.
8. Community relationships, including parent involvement, the school and the community, the educational needs of adults.
9. The application of management concepts to education, e.g. the management cycle of planning, organising for implementation and effecting control.
10. Changing concepts, and new techniques of inspection and supervision.
11. Supervision as staff development and as an aspect of the management of change.
12. Evaluation, including teacher and school self-evaluation, in relation to educational programmes, teachers, teaching schools and school systems.
13. Preparing for the future, in the light of demographic trends, social changes, the impact of the microprocessor, etc.

Each of the above items clearly has some relevance to the exercise of educational leadership in schools and education offices and the list could be further extended and elaborated without much difficulty.

Participants Experience

With so many possibilities to choose from it is desirable to keep firmly in mind both the specific objectives of the particular course and the pedagogic precept that learning more readily occurs when one begins with specific problems within the experience of the students than with general principles. There will still be a place for the panoramic view and the inspirational address, but the major time of the course should be spent on topics and activities which can be directly related to the behaviour of participants in their daily work. This rules out a heavy theoretical input, as already suggested, and in the same way it may be unwise to spend too much time on the aims and organisation of education at the national level if this is at the expense of dealing with the mundane problems and preoccupations of course members at a local level.

These are all issues on which your Planning Committee can make an invaluable contribution. Members of the Committee belonging to the target group should be encouraged to inquire in some depth into the perceived training needs of their professional colleagues and report back in time to influence decisions on the content of the course programme.

Technical
Training
Competence

The idea of systematically determining training needs could be taken further if one adopted the behavioural objectives approach described in Chapter 1. Advocates of what is usually called competency-based administrative training claim that the competencies required by administrators can be precisely defined and measured. Programmes of instruction can then be provided and their effectiveness assessed by comparing standards of performance before and after course attendance. Such a scheme would be highly controversial in education and is not recommended; with some justification it could be seen as encouraging an exclusive concentration on technical competence to the detriment of the professional development which is also necessary if imaginative and creative leadership is to be provided within the school community.

Nevertheless, technical competence for those with managerial responsibilities in education is not to be despised and is a necessary prerequisite for good leadership. Hence the importance of the role of the Planning Committee or of a special sub-committee in defining training needs and in developing and assessing means by which they might be met. The Committee might well conclude that there are specific matters, such as conducting interviews and formal meetings, preparing budgets and accounts, fulfilling legal requirements and obligations, establishing and maintaining appropriate office routines and information systems which might benefit from a competency-based approach.

Course
Outlines

Draft outlines of possible content for short courses intended for different groups were produced at the Commonwealth Regional Workshops 1973-1975. The following examples from the 1974 Georgetown Workshop are given, not as recommended models (which would be undesirable as what is appropriate will vary according to circumstances) but for illustrative purposes.

A Three Day In-Service Course for Experienced Primary School Principals

Three broad areas were proposed and sketched out as follows:

1. Administration and organisation

Administrative structure of the Ministry

The Principal as an administrator in the school;

(a) Delegation of responsibilities and job specification.

(b) Deployment of staff.

- (c) Decision-making.
 - (d) Time-tabling.
- Planning and Organising the Programme of Work.

2. Supervision

- The Principal as Supervisor.
- The Principal as Counsellor.
- The Principal as a Teacher Trainer.

3. Communication and Relationships

- The Principal in relation to his/her:
 - (a) School: staff, pupils, boards of managers.
 - (b) Community: parents, etc.
 - (c) The Ministry (with officers, and in dealing with correspondence.

A Two Day Induction Course for Newly Promoted Senior Inspectors

1. Policy

- Overview of existing educational policy
- Role of the Senior Inspector in executing and transmitting policy.

2. Preparation of Annual Estimates and control of allocations.

3. Reporting

- Collection and presentation of information
- Editing reports.

4. Accountability

- The place and function of the Senior Inspector within the administrative structure:
 - (a) Adviser to his immediate senior;
 - (b) Progress reports on staff, projects etc.

5. Communication

- Personal relations and personnel management.

6. Techniques of Staff Development

- Organisation of courses and seminar/workshops.

7. Methods of assessment

8. Evaluation

Teaching Methods

Lectures

The most common teaching method is the lecture presentation followed by an opportunity for questions and discussion with the lecturer. A course programme which consists entirely of formal lectures one after the other will be of diminishing

effectiveness, but there may still be a place, as already indicated, for a few carefully chosen and well planned lectures interspersed by other activities.

The lecture is more likely to contribute to effective learning if four conditions are observed:

1. The lecturer is well briefed beforehand on:
 - (a) The audience and the assumptions that can be made about their previous knowledge and experience.
 - (b) The area to be covered in the lecture.
 - (c) How the lecture will fit into the programme as a whole.
2. A summary of the lecture is available to the course participants beforehand, preferably a day or two before the lecture.
3. The lecture is illustrated as appropriate, making efficient use of the audio visual equipment available, which should be set up and tested beforehand.
4. The chairman should firmly but tactfully insist that ample time is available for questions and discussion. It is also his responsibility to ensure that the question time is not monopolised by a few highly articulate individuals and that the discussion takes account of most of the salient issues raised by the speaker. Formal votes of thanks should be avoided if at all possible, the lecturer being briefly thanked from the chair.

However effective the lecturer may be and however attentive his audience there is a limit to the new knowledge that can be absorbed under lecture conditions. If the aim is not only to impart knowledge but to improve practice by influencing behaviour and developing the management skills of the course members the formal lectures will need to be supplemented by group and individual activities.

Group Work

An arrangement which often works quite well is for a formal lecture to start the days proceedings when everyone is relatively fresh. This is then followed by work in small groups, which may involve discussions and activities which have a bearing on issues raised in the main lectures, but may also allow for the consideration by members with similar interests of problems and cases which they themselves have brought with them to the course. Each group should have a chairman and a rapporteur to record proceedings. Brief reports can subsequently be made to a course plenary session, but a better procedure may be for the reports to be pinned up on a large notice board so that members can read them at leisure. An optimum number for each group might be seven or eight and many would agree that ten members should be regarded as an absolute maximum if all members, and not only the more assertive ones, are to participate actively in the group activities.

Syndicates and Working Parties At other times there might be a different division into syndicates or working parties which would tackle case studies and simulation exercises planned and prepared as an integral part of the course programme. Each participant would thus be time tabled on some occasions as a member of a discussion group and on other occasions as a member of a syndicate or working party and thus have an opportunity of working as a member of two small groups.

Visits Visits to selected institutions can also be instructive and rewarding if the time can be spared, while suitable films can be presented to widen experience and form the basis for purposeful discussion and analysis.

An obvious point which is sometimes overlooked is that group and syndicate activities need to be relevant to the learning intended during the course and not merely a respite from formal lectures in plenary session. This applies particularly to the use of case studies and simulation exercises which should focus attention on matters of general significance rather than on idiosyncratic detail. At the same time, they must be acceptable to course members as authentic portrayals of real life situations. Case studies and simulations are in fact somewhat different learning techniques.

Case Studies For our purpose a case study is a descriptive account of a series of events which have relevance for education and which give rise to difficulties which need to be resolved. The account may lead up to the posing of a specific problem, terminating abruptly at the point of decision, or it may simply describe how one or more problem arose, how they were dealt with, and the consequences that followed.

The following are two brief examples of the first kind, taken from the Penang Case Book.*

A Problem of Discipline

A case of a teacher M who has punished a standard three pupil by pulling her hair has been reported to the principal of Primary School XY by her father, in the form of a letter of protest, a copy of which has also been sent to the local M.P. The latter then makes a telephone call to the principal, seeking an explanation and requesting him to take disciplinary action against the said teacher.

* The Penang Case Book - a set of case studies produced by participants in the Penang Conference of the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration and edited by H.T.B. Harris, December 1975.

What is the principal to do?

A Language Difficulty

Mr Tham, a senior English master at Farquhar High School was anxious that all his first form pupils should do well at the annual examination which was, of course, based on the official curriculum.

He was finding that the English staff were having difficulty in meeting that objective because the students at Farquhar came from three different elementary schools, one teaching in Malay medium, one in Chinese medium and one in Tamil medium. In each elementary school English was being taught as a second language, but the number of years being devoted to this differed from school to school.

Mr Tham was aware that his principal, Mr Khoo, was under pressure from all the parents to implement the official curriculum, but he felt that some curriculum changes ought to be made. Mr Tham, therefore, raised the issue with Mr Khoo.

In examples of this kind the learner has the task of identifying possible decisions, envisaging the likely consequences of each alternative, and choosing the course of action which he regards as most appropriate. If time permits each member of the syndicate should commit himself on paper as to the solution which he favours before the discussion begins and should then be prepared to give reasons for his decision to the syndicate. It will often be found that different members, though they are all experienced educationists, will advocate quite different solutions, and this sometimes comes as a shock to participants. The subsequent discussion will explore to what extent a consensus view can be reached; if it cannot, it will still be useful to identify the differences within the syndicate and the differing assumptions or beliefs on which these are based.

With the second kind of case study, in which all the decisions made are revealed, the situation is somewhat different. Here the task is one of analysis rather than of decision making. The syndicate is expected to seek agreement on the issues involved and to evaluate the decisions made. It is also relevant to consider - and this applies to both kinds of case - whether all the information necessary for understanding the issues involved in the decision have been provided by the author, whose account of the situation is inevitably selective.

Cases may be quite short, as with the two examples given above, or they may be substantial documents amounting to a whole chapter or even a book. A case book on school administration, edited by H T B Harris, is being produced by the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration for the Commonwealth Secretariat. It contains both extended

cases and some mini-cases, and should also be consulted for a further discussion of the nature and use of case studies.

Simulations

Whereas a case study is a narrative account of an actual situation, possibly with minor changes for purposes of simplification or to avoid identification, a simulation presents a fictitious situation, or a series of situations, which may be based on real events but claims only to be a good imitation of reality. Simulations of schools and school districts have sometimes been very elaborate, providing rich background material, films and tapes. In contrast it has been found by some course organisers that a simple simulated situation, with less than a page of background information and leaving much to the participant's imagination, can also provide a valuable learning experience.

Let us consider, for instance, what is often call an in-tray exercise, in which the learner is asked to assume that he is, say, the principal of a school with stated characteristics or the education officer or inspector of a district which is briefly described. In his new role he is provided with a dozen or so letters, memoranda and messages which have accumulated in his in-tray, and on which he now needs to decide what action, if any, to take.

The following are two items from a District Inspector's In-Tray Exercise produced for the Commonwealth Regional Workshop on Administration and Supervision in Education, held in Freetown in 1973:

Memo from Chief Primary Inspector, Eastern Region

MEMORANDUM NO. RC/12/73

Date: 8/6/73

To: All District Inspectors of Primary Schools

1. It has been brought to my notice that some primary school staff in the Eastern Region are having considerable difficulty in the introduction of the New Maths Syllabus to their classes.
2. Please let me know if this is true of schools in your district and if so, what the specific problems are.
3. I would also like to know how much support could be expected if weekend "workshops" were organised to help those teachers.

Letter from Teacher

District School Inspector
4th District,
Murana,
EASTERN REGION

3rd June, 1973

Dear Sir,

I am a teacher in Luwando Upper Primary School. I obtained my Primary Teachers Certificate from Murano Teachers College in 1970 and I have been teaching here since then.

Most of my time is spent teaching cookery and needlework, nutrition and house care to girls who are in their last two years at school. Although I took these subjects at college, I would like to better my qualifications in them. Are there any courses I could take, especially overseas, which would help me to teach these subjects more efficiently? If so, how do I apply?

I would be glad to have information on this matter.

Yours faithfully,

Peral Thati

P.S. I have not told Mr Shamo, the headmaster, about this because I don't think he will be sympathetic.

As a further example the following is an item taken from the Penang Case Book which might appear in an in-tray exercise for secondary school principals:

Memorandum

From: Mrs Jean Holliday
(Librarian)

To: Mr. J. Hobbs
(Headmaster)

John Adams came to the library today at 10.30 a.m. and tore up a library book. He was not seen to do it but I am sure he did it. This was confirmed by Robert Burns (6A) and David White (5B)

John was sent to the library as a form of punishment by Mr James Dunn. I believe that many students are being sent to the library as a result of being sent out of classes.

When I spoke to Mr James Dunn about this he seemed rather indifferent to the matter at hand. When I questioned John, he said he had every right to be in the library as his teacher had given him permission to do so. He became offensive and challenged my suspicion that he took the book.

I hope you will look into this matter and advise accordingly.

If the simulation exercise is to be useful it is particularly desirable that, as suggested with regard to case studies, the participants should commit themselves on paper as to the action which they personally would take before they come together as a syndicate to discuss the various items. The kind of question they should be asking themselves are as follows:

1. Does the item pose problems for me? What are they?
2. Are there any underlying issues to which I should give further consideration?
3. Should I act alone or should I involve others in dealing with this matter? Which others? What kind of involvement?
4. What assumptions about people are implicit in the action I propose to take?
5. What are likely to be the effects on others of my proposed action?
6. What steps will I be taking to monitor and evaluate my course of action?

After allowing half-an-hour or so for individual study the syndicate should be brought together to discuss in detail at least some of the items. Participants may need to be reminded from time to time by the syndicate leader or consultant that in many cases there will be no single and definitively "correct" solution to a particular problem. Rather than seeking complete agreement on a best course of action time may be better spent considering the varying circumstances in which different modes of proceeding might be advantageous and linking the discussion to matters raised in the course lectures.

Role Play

Another type of simulation which can be used as an extension of an in-tray exercise or which can be set up as an independent activity is a role play. Members of the syndicate are each given a part to play, for instance;

- (a) A chairman and members of an interviewing board and the persons to be interviewed; or
- (b) The principal and members of staff holding a staff meeting on a controversial issue.

Each member of the syndicate is given individual instructions not seen by other members as to how he, or she, is to play the part.

It is the responsibility of the chairman or consultant to ensure that the occasion is a learning experience rather than simply an opportunity for a hitherto unsuspected acting ability to be discovered (though this can add to the interest of the occasion). This is usually achieved by holding a post-mortem to consider how different aspects were handled, and whether they might have been dealt with more effectively. The activity might be linked with a course lecture or syndicate session on interviewing techniques, on the chairmanship of meetings, or on staff relationships. A further refinement where facilities are available is to video-tape

the role play, playing back the tape as appropriate to illustrate points during the subsequent analysis or lecture.

Planning

Whether case studies, in-tray exercises, or role playing are used, a general point which can be made in conclusion is that for maximum benefit there must be adequate time for careful planning. It may be simply a matter of selecting and possibly adapting material which is already available. It may well be, however, that new material for this particular course has to be prepared, involving consultation with practitioners who are involved in the kind of situation depicted. It may also be desirable to have a "pilot" run in which the new material is tried out on some willing "guinea-pigs" before being used on the actual course.

Examples of Course Programmes

To give an illustration of how courses can be planned to include both lectures and group activities, such as those discussed above, two draft programmes are given from the Reports of the Commonwealth Secretariat Workshops 1973-1975.

1. A two-day in-service course for secondary school principals (Freetown Seminar/Workshop 1973.)
2. A three-day in-service course for secondary inspectors (Kuala Lumpur Seminar/Workshop 1974.)

Both of these drafts could easily be adapted to the needs of primary school principals and inspectors.

Course for Heads (Principals) of Urban Secondary Schools

<u>Theme</u>	Communication and Relationships in School Administration.
<u>Objective</u>	To help the Heads towards harmonious working relationships in school and to improve the administration of their schools.
<u>Duration</u>	2 Days
<u>Participants</u>	12-15 Heads
<u>Staff</u>	The local inspector, a social psychologist and the headmaster of an innovative school.

First Day

1. Opening session by the Minister of Education.
2. Plenary: Lead Paper on "Human Relations in School Administration", presented by the Inspector of Schools (Secondary).
Group discussion.
Groups reports on plenary session.

3. Group discussion - Case Studies:
Conflicts between (a) Head and Staff
(b) Staff and Pupils
(c) Head and Parents

Group reports.

4. Presentation by Head of Personal Experiences and Problems in their schools, followed by plenary discussion.
5. Evening session - Film Show - "Adolescence".
Group discussion.

Second Day

1. Lead Paper - "Group Dynamics", presented by a social psychologist.
Group discussion.
2. Role playing of a problem involving a teacher and pupil which requires intervention of the Headmaster.
Role playing of a problem involving the refusal of a Sixth Former to participate in a school agricultural programme.
Group discussion.

Course for Secondary School Inspectors

Participants Up to 30 inspectors who have had 6 years or less experience

First Day

1. Talk on "Aims and Objectives for the Course" by the head of the inspectorate or the course organizer.
2. Talk on Lead Paper 1 - "Government Policy in Education" with special reference to secondary schools, by officer from the department; followed by a question time.
3. Talk on Lead Paper 2 - "Theory and Practice in Modern Education" by a person from the University; followed by question time.
4. Talk on "Problems in School Inspection" by course organizer to introduce case studies.
Case studies in groups.
Report of findings of case studies.
5. Evening Session - Educational film on teaching developments in other countries.

Second Day

1. Six reports on subject papers to be prepared by subject specialists. Each paper to be 15 to 20 minutes and followed by discussion.
2. Talk on "Problems in School Administration" by course organizer to introduce case studies.
Case studies in groups.
Report of findings of case studies.

3. Evening Session - Forum
Topic - "Needs of the Adolescent".
Members of the Forum - Chairman
- A community leader
- A representative from the Health Department or Family Planning Board
- A representative from Guidance Unit
- A parent

Third Day

1. Talk on Lead Paper 3 - "Effective Communication and Human Relations" by an administrator or inspector.
2. Talk on Lead Paper 4 - "Innovation and Evaluation, with special reference to inspection, by officer from Curriculum Unit.
3. Three reports on subject papers prepared by subject specialists followed by discussion.
4. Four short talks on "Current problems in Administration and Inspection" to be chosen from suggested list of topics.
 - Examinations
 - Teacher training problems
 - Financial policy
 - Problems in primary schools
 - Problems in tertiary education
 - Selection for secondary education
 - Selection for tertiary education
 - School in the community
 - Employment prospects of secondary school leavers
 - Secondary school dropouts
 - Parental involvement in children's education
 - Health problems
 - Educational mass media
 - (a) Audio-visual aids
 - (b) Educational television
 - (c) Radio broadcast
 - Educational system in a neighbouring country

Course Evaluation

Formative and Summative Evaluation

The need for evaluation in relation to the training course is a matter which requires no special justification in view of the management standpoint adopted in the first part of this Handbook. We must clearly practice what we preach, and as Course Organiser, you will have made provision in association with the Planning Committee for formative evaluation as the course progresses, whereby the views of participants are obtained on aspects which can be changed or adjusted as the course proceeds in a way which meets more adequately the needs and expectations of members. There will also be a place for a summative evaluation at the end of the course, this being an assessment which seeks to look at the course as a whole and draw conclusions which will be helpful to the planners of future courses.

If the course lasts less than a week, it may well be that the formative evaluation is best conducted on a continuing informal basis by the members of the Course Steering Committee (previously the Planning Committee) who will talk to participants after the various sessions and read the reports prepared by groups and syndicates. It is good for the morale of the course to find justifiable criticisms of arrangements receiving a sympathetic hearing and then for some action to be seen to be taken. Such a sequence of events can also provide a timely theory-into-practice reinforcement of course teaching concerning the appropriate response for administrators to make when criticisms are made of their own arrangements. In a longer course it may be found useful to make a formative evaluation on a more formal basis, by having the participants complete a short questionnaire, such as was done at the half way stage during the Commonwealth Secretariat's ten week Regional Training Courses in Nairobi, Kenya in 1977 and Suva, Fiji in 1978.

At the end of even a short course it is a good idea to administer a formal evaluation questionnaire for it can be a valuable experience for the participants themselves to consider systematically what the course has meant to them, quite apart from the feed-back to course organisers which will be helpful in the organisation of future courses. The questionnaire itself should be prepared in advance and approved by the Planning Committee, and it is appropriate for the participants to be informed early during the course that their views will be sought later, so that they can begin to think about such matters as course content, aims and objectives, the approach and methods of instruction, the duration and proposed follow-up. It can also be valuable for the course members to be contacted some six months after the end of the course to be asked for their further views and specifically to report on the things they are doing differently as a result of attending the course. The views of course tutors should also be obtained.

A final point to remember is that as Course Organiser you will probably be expected to provide a detailed report on the course to the Ministry or Department of Education or Regional Authority which has authorised and financed the venture. The report should include a fair summary of the questionnaire responses of course participants, and of views expressed by course tutors, including recommendations with regard to follow-up activities. It should end with your assessment of what the course has achieved and what in the light of your experience you would do differently on the next occasion.

A Course Evaluation Form

The final course evaluation questionnaire used at 1978 Regional Training Course in Suva, Fiji, which is a refined version of that used in Nairobi the previous year, is reproduced below. Though this instrument is more elaborate than would be necessary, or perhaps desirable, for the type of course we have been considering, it nevertheless gives some idea of the kind of approach which should be adopted.

1. CONTENT

Did you consider the syllabus course material:

- (a) Relevant Yes/No
- (b) Useful Yes/No
- (c) Too much Yes/No
- (d) Too little Yes/No
- (e) Adequate in variety Yes/No
- (f) Too low pitched Yes/No
- (g) Too high pitched Yes/No

2. COURSE AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

The following were the aims and objectives of the course. How far do you think they have been achieved? Put (✓) in the appropriate column showing the degree of achievement.

Aims	Very Much	Much	Little	Very Little
(a) To broaden fundamental professional knowledge and to further develop understanding of the issues and techniques involved in the effective teaching-learning process.				
(b) To encourage a re-examination of the theory and practice of administration and supervision and their application to the improvement of the educational process.				
(c) To develop knowledge, skills and attitudes for effective professional leadership.				
(d) To promote an awareness of national aims and objectives and the role of education towards their achievement.				

Aims	Very Much	Much	Little	Very Little
(e) To develop professional competence in the planning of short and long-term in-service programmes for educators in national education systems.				
(f) To emphasize the complex roles played by people in organizations and the need for an awareness of individual and group aspirations.				
(g) To encourage a flexible and co-operative approach to problem solving.				
(h) To encourage personal development.				

Objectives	Very Much	Much	Little	Very Little
As far as possible, to enable course members:				
(a) To demonstrate an understanding of effective professional leadership in administration and supervision within the education system and the community.				
(b) To demonstrate an application of administrative and supervisory knowledge, skills and attitudes to practical institutional situations.				
(c) To prepare programmes for the further professional development of educational administrators, supervisors, head teachers and staffs in national systems.				
(d) To identify ways of promoting innovation in organizations.				
(e) To demonstrate co-operative approaches to problem solving and decision-making				

3. Course Approach and Credit

(a) How much would you say you have benefited from the following experiences? (✓) the right column after each of the following experiences:

	Very Much	Much	Little	Very Little
(i) Lectures/discussions				
(ii) Workshops/tutorials				
(iii) Assignments				
(iv) Attachments				
(v) Weekly visits				
(vii) Informal discussions among colleagues				
(viii) Library reading				

(b) Did you agree with the goals set out in this course as a non-examinable, non-diploma course Yes/No

(c) Do you feel that future courses of this nature should be examinable and earn diplomas? Yes/No

4. Methods of Instruction

(a) The following methods have been employed during the course. Indicate the degree to which you think they have been effective, by putting a (✓) in the appropriate column against each method:

	Very Much	Much	Little	Not at All
(i) Lectures				
(ii) Workshops				
(iii) Role play				
(iv) Simulations				
(v) Tutorials				
(vi) Group assignments				
(vii) Individual assignments				
(viii) Attachments				
(ix) Visits				
(x) Others - (specify)				
1.				
2.				
3.				

(b) Staff Used:

(i) Do you consider the use and variety of teaching staff on this course satisfactory? Yes/No

(ii) If 'No' state reasons

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

(c) Catering for Different Groups:

Which of the following groups would you have preferred for better achievement of the objectives of this course?

- (i) Groups with the same background right through the course Yes/No
- (ii) Mixed groups right through the course Yes/No
- (iii) Mixed groups for core courses but groups with same background for special areas Yes/No
- (v) Mixed groups but with specialized individual attention Yes/No

5. Duration of the Course

Do you consider the duration of the course for its purpose:

- (a) Long enough Yes/No
- (b) Too long , ... Yes/No
- (c) Too short Yes/No

6. Follow-up

(a) What action do you intend to take in organizing national training courses for heads of schools, administrators and inspectors of schools?

.....
.....
.....
.....

(b) What are some of the improvements you plan to make in your approach to your work as a result of this course?

.....
.....
.....
.....

(c) What recommendations would you make for a follow-up programme after the course?

.....
.....
.....
.....

(d) In the remaining space write an open critique of the course generally. Covering the course objectives, content, organization, teaching methods and staff, visits, attachment, etc.

CHAPTER 6

A STRATEGY FOR THE LONG TERM

In this final chapter, horizons are extended beyond the provision of a single course.

Training Problems

It is widely agreed that the need for professional and management development for the educational leaders in schools, and in district and regional education offices in the developing countries of the Commonwealth is very great. The number of office-based administrators and supervisors of primary and secondary schools that need in-service training is formidable, though the former is more manageable than the latter. It has been shown that the planning and organising of relevant courses, working closely with Planning Committees largely drawn from the target groups, is a complex task requiring skill and patience. At present, the number of capable course organisers and the number of people qualified to teach on the courses is exceedingly small. A further constraint is the acute shortage of resource materials - simulation exercises, case studies, management games, films and tapes - appropriate to the needs and conditions of developing countries. Even when in-service courses are held, there is often a lack of follow-up support so that there will be a tendency in many cases to revert, after a time, to former, less enlightened, styles of administration and supervision.

Faced with these mammoth problems, the basic standpoint in relation to training needs of this Handbook, based on the previous trial Handbook and on the experience of several Commonwealth courses, seems essentially sound. It emphasises the clarification of objectives, the identification of issues related to the achievement of those objectives in a number of task areas, and an analysis with practical illustrations of the components of the control cycle which is integral to a management approach - planning, organising for implementation and exercising control. Whereas the training needs and problems which require attention will differ for the many countries of the Commonwealth, for the different positions of educational leadership involved, and for different stages in the development of an educational system, there appears to be some durability, as well as some necessary flexibility, in the approach adopted in Part 1 of

this handbook.

In the previous two chapters of Part 2, an indication has been given of the many factors and considerations involved in the planning and organisation of a single course, factors of which many course organisers have become aware by trial and error or 'being thrown in at the deep end.' It is hoped that some will find these chapters helpful in alerting them to problems with which they will have to deal in relation to similar one-off courses for which they are responsible.

In-Service Planning

And yet, something is still lacking if we are thinking only in terms of single courses unrelated to any other activity, however well planned and well organised those particular courses may be. What is really required, if a significant impact is to be made on the in-service training problems we have indicated, is a long term comprehensive and co-ordinated scheme of in-service planning which replaces the current haphazard and ad hoc types of training which usually involves no follow-up support.

Co-ordination

What seems to be required to achieve greater coherence in in-service planning is the setting up of a central agency which would have a facilitating function, providing support for local efforts, disseminating and encouraging the production of reports arising from courses, assisting in self-evaluation by course organisers, and providing such further co-ordination as appears to be desirable, having in mind the warning against over-coordination which we gave in Chapter 3. Such a facilitating responsibility might be given to an In-service Centre attached to a university, or might take the form of a Staff Training Institute, as in the case of Malaysia, which has established such an institute to provide in-service training for both school-based and office-based educational leaders. A unit or division might be set up in the Ministry or Department of Education, or the responsibility for taking a systematic view might be given to the Inspectorate of Schools. There are obviously other options. Each Commonwealth country moving in this direction would need to consider, in its own circumstances, how best to achieve the co-ordination that is desirable without stifling initiative and creativity.

Life-Long Training

Complementing the setting up of a central facilitating agency would be the establishment of a network of Resource and Training Centres to serve as infra-structure for life-long in-service training, which should be thought of as a continuing process of keeping abreast of changes and development. Such centres might be located in centrally situated schools, colleges of teacher education, and universities, to minimise operational costs, an arrangement which might also foster better understanding and closer co-operation among those in charge of the three types of institution. Colleges of teacher education and universities are particularly useful when in-service courses of a week or more duration require the provision of board

and lodging for the participants.

**A Network
of Centres**

The proposed network of Resource and Training Centres would serve as focal points for educational leaders in different settings, and from different levels, to meet fairly frequently, and would perhaps be linked to a national association of educational administrators, with opportunities to exchange views and experience in a non-formal and informal setting. Such exchanges constitute an important adjunct to the more formal approach to staff development represented by in-service courses.

**Resource
Material**

Funds should then be made available through the central agency for the setting up of libraries at the Resource and Training Centres, and positive encouragement should be given to the publication of books and journals related to the management and administration of education. Reports and papers presented at workshops, seminars and conferences in the different parts of the Commonwealth and other developing countries could also be collated and published in the form of Readings*.

These would serve as valuable resource materials at in-service courses.

**The Multiplier
Effect**

To contribute to overcoming the shortage of course tutors, the techniques and methods of tuition should be exemplified and given attention in every in-service course. This can usefully be linked with the involvement of participants with a potential for leadership in the planning and organising processes through the work of a Course Planning Committee as described in Chapter 4. At the end of an in-service course, it should be possible to identify a number of participants for further specialised training in order to act as course tutors and organisers, thus producing a multiplying effect.

**Mandatory and
Optional
Courses**

The primary aim of a comprehensive and co-ordinated system of in-service planning within a national framework would be to ensure that within a given period all the educational leaders in schools and in district and regional offices are inducted into the basic competencies of skills and knowledge of educational administration; and enabled to develop beyond those basic competencies according to their capabilities and interest. It may, therefore, be useful to think in terms of a first cycle of in-service courses which would be mandatory, while attendance at more advanced courses designed for enrichment, many of which would be role-specific, would be optional. It is envisaged in any case that the majority would be sufficiently motivated to keep abreast of new developments to some degree through making use of the facilities and resources of the Resource and Training Centres.

* A good beginning is provided by the two casebooks, related to school and university administration respectively, which are being produced for the Commonwealth Secretariat by the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration.

Self
Development

The long term aim would be that every educational leader should be able to continue his life-long education through attending further in-service courses as appropriate to serve his needs and by becoming an active member of his Resource and Training Centre and of an associated professional body. The ultimate test of a successful in-service training programme is that it should nurture the capability of self-development.

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Vol. 3. Quantitative and financial aspects of educational planning

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 - Vol. 5. From planning to implementation
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Printed and published by
The Commonwealth Secretariat

May be purchased from
Commonwealth Secretariat Publications
Marlborough House
London SW1Y 5HX

ISBN 0 85092 210 0

