NOTES, COMMENTS... (CHILD, FAMILY, COMMUNITY)

Digest No. VIII

GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF MANAGEMENT
FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNERS AND ADMINISTRATORS

by

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INTRODUCTION

The book VI of the Basic Training Programme in Educational Planning and Management, which was originally issued by the Educational Planning and Management Service of UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific, is reissued in the form of a Digest in the Notes, Comments (Child Family Community) New Series in order to meet the requests made by several Unicef offices for multiple copies of this Training Programme for use in national training activities. The cooperation of Mr. Raja Roy Singh, Assistant Director General who concurred with the proposal, is gratefully acknowledged.

This Basic Training Programme in Seven volumes was jointly developed by the writer with the cooperation of Dieter G. Berstecher (now at IIEP, Paris) over a period of four years from 1974 to 1977. It has been evaluated by successive groups of its users in Asia and the Pacific as well as others. An evaluation made by Dr. Anthony R. Kaye, Deputy Director, the Centre for International Cooperation and Services and the Professor of Educational Technology of the Open University of Britain contains the following observations:

"Most readers of this report will undoubtedly have had personal experience of training workshops which take people out of their normal working milieu for a period of intensive training, which seem -within that period- to have been successful, and yet appear to have little or no medium or long-term results when the trainees return to their working milieu. The lesson surely is that workshops and stages of this sort need to be seen within the framework of a longer term programme of independent learning, with preparatory and follow-up activities occurring before and afterwards. In this respect the Basic Training Programme in Educational Planning and Management prepared by the UNESCO Regional Office in Bangkok, with its combination of independent study, correspondence tuition and short, integrated, face to face workshops, is an exemplary model."
"Examples of texts showing these features (i.e. essential elements in self-instructional materials) can be found in the correspondence texts of the British Open University, or of Costa Rica's National Distance Teaching University. More relevant to this project are the excellent self-instructional texts which make up the Basic Training Programme in Educational Planning and Management produced by the Unesco Office in Bangkok (referred to from now on as the 'Bangkok Course'). Each of the lesson units is preceded by clear statements of learning objectives, are written in a stimulating style, and contain 'student-active' self-assessment questions both in the next and at the end of each unit. Some even contain a simple 'branching' structure, where trainees are directed to different comment/answer sections (yellow and green) at the end of the text, depending on the nature of their response to an in-text question."

The reference in the last sentence in Dr. Kaye's comments is to the text of this Digest.

Another volume for which too requests are often received will also be issued in this Series of Digests.

HOW TO USE

The lesson units may be used in two ways:

(i) In a self-study programme, either at the learner's own initiative or as a prescribed task by an appropriate authority.

Here, the learner may follow the sequence of lessons or select only those in which he is interested. He will also choose his own pace of study unless otherwise required.

(ii) In a correspondence tuition programme wherein all or selected lessons would be prescribed by the agency conducting the programme for self-study.
Here, the learner would adhere to a timetable for the despatch of set written work to the agency concerned.

In either case the basic principle of the training programme is **self-learning**. The lesson units present selected facts and data relating to each subject, provide guidance in relating them to one's own experience and raise issues to generate analysis and investigation. The method of presentation adopted in this book is different. At intervals, a problem is set for the learner to attempt. He is directed to the numbered frames on the yellow and green pages at the end of the Book. He is required to adhere to the instructions because they are designed to assist learning in a systematic manner.

A bibliography is provided to facilitate learners who wish to pursue further studies into the themes discussed in the Book.

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GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF MANAGEMENT

OBJECTIVES

When you have gone through these lesson units, you should have

- a basic grasp of the principles of management as applicable to your work as educational planners and administrators

and, in particular, be familiar with concepts and practices relating to

- planning
- organization
- direction
- control
- decision-making
- problem-solving
- communication; and
- motivation

and recognize the importance of

- data and information;
- conflict resolution; and
- human relations

in the context of educational management.
I. INTRODUCTION

1. The problem of plan implementation can be dealt with in several ways. One of them is through the improvement of technical aspects of both planning and plan elaboration. In this approach, our assumption is that -

   (a) widening the scope of planning to include the changing and growing concepts of education,
   (b) improving the data base on which planners make decisions,
   (c) adopting adequately developed quantitative techniques of analysis for diagnosis and projections,
   (d) devoting greater attention to elaborating a plan to operational details by means of systematic project formulation,
   (e) improving the manner in which a plan is reflected in the annual budget, and

such other steps of a purely technical nature would make a direct contribution to the better implementation of education plans. This assumption, as all other assumptions, needs to be questioned and tested.

2. But these by themselves, do not give a plan one hundred percent chance of being implemented. The whole process of planning and plan implementation involves human beings - men, women and children - with their own needs and wants, ideas and opinions, biases and prejudices and individualized behaviour patterns. To plan a future for them and to implement it is to change these individual behaviour patterns deliberately and for a purpose.

3. Changes in behaviour patterns of human beings can be brought about in many ways. They can be designed and enforced from above as in an authoritarian society. They can be designed by a representative elite or activist group and accepted by others. They can be evolved by joint participation and accepted as a common approach towards a desired goal. Whatever be the method, one thing becomes clear: The involvement of the people is an essential ingredient.

(i) WHY IS THE ASSUMPTION ABOUT TECHNICAL PERFECTION OF PLANNING AND PLAN EVALUATION TO BE QUESTIONED?
   - because it is only partially true - see yellow frame 1.
   - because this assumption has not taken the human element into consideration - see Green frame 1.

(ii) WHAT IS THE COMMONEST MECHANISM BY WHICH THE INVOLVEMENT OF PEOPLE IS ENSURED?
   - by elections and democratic decision-making process - see Green frame 2.
   - by setting up institutions - see yellow frame 2.
4. Society has vested in the goal-setters the authority to which the others would submit and change their own behaviour patterns in order to achieve the set objectives and goals. Society also provides for effective means of compelling the extreme elements of society which do not submit to the authority of its hierarchy of goal-setters. Hence, punishments such as fines and imprisonment to those who violate and obstruct the laws of these goal-setters. While the extreme elements can be dealt with in this manner, the entire society cannot be made to change their behaviour patterns on the basis of punishment or threat of punishment.

II. MANAGEMENT DEFINED

5. Narrowing our discussion to the role of the educational planner or administrator, we see that the educational planner or administrator as well as the institutions of legislatures, ministries, departments etc., which guide and promote education, constitute the hierarchy of goal-setters which society has evolved for the objective of national educational development. He, as a goal-setter, requires the cooperation of a large number of persons both within and outside the goal-setting institutions to achieve those objectives which are entrusted to him by virtue of his position. This entrustment can be merely legal or it can have strong elements of popular demand or confidence. In most cases, the planner or administrator assumes his goal-setting role for society through the operation of both legal position and popular confidence. Whatever be the source of authority, he has a task to perform.

6. The task of the educational planner or administrator is to take the society towards a particular objective which it has, through its institutions, set for itself. To achieve the given objective, he has to get others to submit to his authority. He has to obtain the cooperation, participation, intervention and involvement of hundreds and thousands of people in his work. Without these, he just cannot accomplish his task.

IS THERE A NAME THAT WE CAN GIVE TO THE PROCESS OF OBTAINING THE COOPERATION, PARTICIPATION, INTERVENTION AND INVOLVEMENT OF OTHERS IN THE ACHIEVEMENT OF OUR OBJECTIVES?

- human relations and motivation — see yellow frame 3.
- Management — see green frame 3.
7. Management is defined as a social process which is designed to ensure the cooperation, participation, intervention and involvement of others in the effective achievement of a given or determined objective.

8. Management, being a social process, lays its major emphasis on the inter-action of people - people inside and outside the formal institutions and people above and below one's operational position. To be called a manager is to be placed in a position from which one has to ensure changes in other people's behaviour patterns for the purpose of achieving an objective entrusted to him. Management is the art of guiding the activities of a group of people toward the achievement of a common goal.

III. STAGES OF THE MANAGEMENT PROCESS

9. Some argue that the process of management is so subtle and indistinct that it cannot be analysed into any components. In fact, there are several authorities who believe that the Management Process is an indivisible "whole." But for purposes of study and discussion, an analysis into as many component elements is feasible and helpful.

10. Several attempts have been made to analyse the Management Process into its component elements. The earliest by Henri Fayol analyses it into five functions, which are widely known as "Fayol's elements". They are:

To plan - study the future and arrange the plan of operations
To organize - build up the material and human organization of the business, organizing both men and materials
To command - to make the staff do their work
To coordinate - to unite and correlate all activities
To control - see that everything is done in accordance with the rules which have been laid down and the instructions which have been given.

THE PRIMARY OBJECTIVE OF MY SECTION IS TO PRODUCE SCHOOL TEXT-BOOKS. IF I WRITE THE TEXT-BOOKS, DO I FUNCTION AS A MANAGER?

Yes - see green frame 4.
No - see yellow frame 4.
11. A more popular classification is what is usually referred to by the acronym POSDCORB. POSDCORB represents the seven elements into which two well-known management specialists - Gulick and Urwick - analysed the Management Process. They are:

1. Planning  
2. Organizing  
3. Staffing (a further step in organization, when people are recruited and placed)  
4. Directing (in place of commanding)  
5. Coordinating  
6. Reporting (as extensions of control function)  
7. Budgeting

There have been many attempts over the last few decades. These analysts of the Management Process suggested other elements such as the following:

(i) Creating (as preceding planning).  
(ii) Assembling Resources (in place of staffing).  
(iii) Supervision (in addition to directing).  
(iv) Motivation (in place of or in addition to directing).  
(v) Evaluation (in addition to or in place of control).

12. A simplified version, most commonly adopted today as a basis of discussing the Management Process, consists of only four elements or rather stages:

I. **Planning** (which includes creating, programming, and project formulation)  
II. **Organization** (which includes resources assembling and staffing)  
III. **Direction** (which includes motivation, supervision and coordination)  
IV. **Control** (which includes budgeting, reporting and evaluation)

**DIRECTION IS PREFERRED TO COMMAND**
- because command has a military connotation - see yellow frame 5.  
- because the process of management has developed to a point where the attitude of the manager as a giver of orders has changed into one of providing leadership - see green frame 5.

**IS PODC REALLY A SIMPLIFIED VERSION OF THE ELEMENTS OF THE MANAGEMENT PROCESS?**
- No, because each stage is made to include several independent management operations - see green frame 6.  
- Yes, because it represents four broad areas under which all management activities could be analysed - see yellow frame 6.
13. Let us examine briefly what each stage of PODC includes:

(a) **Planning** consists of
   (a) Determining what to do and when and how to do it,
   (b) Defining objectives and determining operations to achieve maximum effectiveness through a process of setting targets,
   (c) gathering and analysing information,
   (d) developing alternatives,
   (e) preparing and communicating plans and decisions.

(b) **Organization** consists of
   (a) Obtaining necessary facilities, equipment and staff to establish an efficient framework for carrying out plans through a process determining work required to accomplish plans,
   (b) grouping component jobs into an orderly organizational structure,
   (c) establishing the structure of authority and coordinating machinery,
   (d) formulating and defining methods and procedures,
   (e) selecting, training and informing staff and obtaining other necessary resources.

(c) **Direction** consists of
   (a) Setting detailed time and cost framework,
   (b) initiating and providing leadership in carrying out plans by making decisions,
   (c) issuing specific instructions,
   (d) guiding, motivating and supervising.

(d) **Control** consists of
   (a) Evaluation of performance compared to plan,
   (b) reporting deviations in time for corrective action and showing the way to corrective action by establishing standards and goals,
   (c) appraising performance and correcting deviations.

You receive a letter from your superior asking you to furnish within three days a report on the activities of your section. You think awhile and decide to get Mr. A, B and C of your section to gather data, Mr. D to consolidate the report, Miss E. to type it and Mr. F. to hand-carry the report. You write a note explaining each person's responsibility and ask Mr. D. to see you at 5:00 p.m. on the next day with the draft report. Having done these you proceed with other letters which are in your In-tray.

**HOW MANY OF THE STAGES OF THE MANAGEMENT PROCESS HAVE YOU GONE THROUGH?**

- all - see green frame 7.
- some (only two or three) - see yellow frame 7.

.../
Chart I

Basic Elements of the Process of Management

- Planning
- Communication
- Decision Making
- Problem Solving
- Human Relations
- Organization
- Direction

Basic Components of Management Action
IV. BASIC ELEMENTS OF THE MANAGEMENT PROCESS

14. The functions under each of the stages of the Management Process consist of a number of basic elements, such as:

1. **Decision-making**, the key function of every manager when at every stage of the Management Process he makes choices among alternative courses of action;

2. **Problem-solving**, a more complex form of decision-making when the choices among alternatives are made to overcome obstacles or constraints affecting the progress towards the goal;

3. **Human Relations**, when through motivation and exercise of leadership, the cooperation and participation of others are obtained; and

4. **Communication**, the energizing force in an organization which governs collaboration and collective progress toward the goal.

(See chart I on opposite page for their interrelationship with the Management Process)

V. ROLE OF INFORMATION IN MANAGEMENT

15. These are fundamental to all Management Action. If you examine the Chart I carefully, you will note that we have shown **Information** as the heart of the Management Process. We have depicted it as having a two-way impact (it gives, and it receives).

16. In Management, the term **Information** has a specialized meaning. It does not mean facts and figures as are generally collected and stored in an organization. This kind of facts and figures of a general nature are called **data**.

17. **Information** means such materials as are specially selected and prepared for a particular problem, for a specified individual, at a special time and for the explicit purpose of achieving a definite goal. It is, sometimes, called selected data - selected with respect to problem, user, time, place and function.

CAN YOU DISTINGUISH BETWEEN DATA AND INFORMATION?

YOU ARE AN EDUCATIONAL PLANNER. YOUR STATISTICIAN HAS RECEIVED STATISTICAL RETURNS FROM ALL THE SCHOOLS AND HAVE TABULATED THEM FOR PUBLICATION IN THE ANNUAL STATISTICAL BULLETIN. YOU ARE WORKING ON THE PROBLEM OF INTERNAL EFFICIENCY OF RURAL SCHOOLS. YOU ASK YOUR STATISTICIAN "HAVE YOU ANY INFORMATION ON THE SUBJECT?" HE SAYS, "YES" AND PUTS ON YOUR TABLE THE ANNUAL STATISTICAL BULLETIN AND 1,500 SCHOOL RETURNS.

DO YOU THINK HE HAS GIVEN YOU INFORMATION?

Yes - see yellow frame 8.
No - see green frame 8.

.../
18. "The more information the better the decision" is a popular slogan in management circles. All problems are in some form or other, related to the absence, inadequacy or inaccuracy of information. Thus information is the most essential ingredient for managerial effectiveness. All managerial action rests heavily on information, while the quality and content of information is also enriched by the experience gained through such action.

19. Information, in this sense, is experience of yesterday's actions, that is processed and utilized for today's plans and actions. Why is information so important to managerial effectiveness? Information gives its proessor power and influence over and above the authority, he may be legally vested with. In any organization, power - that is, the ability to get things done - flows into the hands of those who have the most (as well as the most up-to-date) information. People are more likely to be guided by those who know more and better. Thus a first principle in achieving managerial effectiveness is to have access to the most reliable and up-to-date data.

20. Information can be obtained in two ways:

   (i) **Informal feedback**, where an administrator collects the information himself by asking questions, observing progress and calling for ad hoc reports.

   (ii) **Formal feedback**, where the administrator has assigned the responsibility of collecting and processing information to subordinates, set procedures and specified the type and timing of information. Information gathered by means of a survey of the entire operation or of a sample thereof would also fall into the category of a formal feedback.

I HAVE ASKED MY SCHOOL WORKS ENGINEER TO SEND ME A REPORT WHENEVER HE VISITS A SCHOOL AND ALSO A MONTHLY REPORT OF PROGRESS ON ALL SCHOOL BUILDINGS UNDER CONSTRUCTION. WHAT TYPE OF FEEDBACK DO I OBTAIN BY THESE MEANS?

- Formal feedback from both reports - see green frame 9.
- Formal feedback from the monthly progress report and Informal feedback from other - see yellow frame 9.
21. A fundamental pre-requisite for effective management is an adequate Management Information System. MIS is defined as a System - to provide each manager - with all information (and only that) which he needs - for decisions - when he needs it, and - in a form which aids his understanding and stimulates actions.

Information is needed in the decision-making process to

(i) Identify problems and opportunities requiring action.
(ii) Establish priorities.
(iii) Determine cause of problem.
(iv) Analyze problem consequences.
(v) Define, evaluate and select course of action.

22. Whenever emphasis is laid on the importance of information, a warning has to be sounded. All information is not necessary for decision-making and the cost of collecting and processing information should be justified by the use made of it. So, it is necessary to ask one's self a number of questions before any information is called for -

  e.g. Is the information necessary and relevant?
    Is it worth the cost?
    Does it exist elsewhere?
    Is the timing or frequency correct?

Similarly, the supplier of information should subject it to a critical review by asking the questions:

(i) Is it relevant and adequate?
(ii) Is it presented in a clear and concise manner?

YOU ARE A REGIONAL EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATOR. A PHILANTHROPIST IN YOUR REGION WANTS TO DONATE TEXTBOOKS TO A HUNDRED NEEDY CHILDREN. WHAT INFORMATION WILL YOU PROVIDE HIM AND HOW?

- I will send him a list of prescribed books and ask him to send the books to me for distribution - see green frame 10.
- I will send him in a tabulated form the names of needy children with criteria for such decision, the schools where they are along with the addresses, the names of books each child has to get. I will also prepare a summary statement of books with prices and names of publisher/bookseller - see yellow frame 10.

...
V. PLANNING

23. Every action must be preceded by a conscious movement of thinking or brain work. In management this is held as one of the most important principles. A popular saying emphasizes it: 

What the head does not do, the legs will have to do. Compare a shopper who thinks ahead what he wants to buy and where each item is to be found with another shopper who hops from place to place retracing his steps several times. The first shopper would achieve his objectives speedily and with much less effort. Continuous planning is necessary to minimize waste in resources - both material and human - and to achieve organizational objectives expeditiously.

24. Planning, as the first stage of the Management Process, is exactly this. But organizational objectives being more complex, the resources to achieve them being more varied, and the obstacles in the way being many, a manager's function in planning is much more than pausing to think before starting some operation. Planning, we observed in para 13, consists of at least five activities. We plan where there is a need - something to be accomplished. Some management specialists defined a stage called "creating" to precede planning. By "creating" it was meant that a need to accomplish something is identified: "How good if we could inculcate the dignity of labour in our youth!" is an example of "creating". By identifying something desirable to be achieved a need is created. It is only an idea or an intention. To translate it to action, one begins to plan. The first activity in the planning process is to find answers to such questions as

(a) What can be done?
(b) When can it be done?
(c) How can it be done?

Each question calls for creativeness or new thinking. Experience of the past is helpful. Experiences gathered through study and observation are important. But no manager should be satisfied with only recounting these. He would look for innovative approaches. In this sense, this first activity of planning is as much an exercise in "creating" as the one of identifying a need for action.

25. This creative exercise is rarely a one-man's operation. Working on the principle that two heads are better than one, organizations encourage collective thinking through group activity. Bodies of experts meet and explore various courses of action. Ideas are pooled together through committees and "brainstorming sessions". The importance of getting as many ideas as possible is so emphasized that in some sessions even the most absurd-sounding ideas are carefully recorded for later analysis. When the group has exhausted its ideas, it goes over them several items asking itself such questions:

...
which of these ideas could be amalgated?
what more could be added to each idea?
which of them need to be rejected?

At the end of such an exercise, there will be a fairly clear idea of what has to be done, when and how. "How?" will also indicate by whom?

CREATING MUST BE RECOGNIZED AS A SEPARATE STAGE IN THE MANAGEMENT PROCESS PRECEDING PLANNING: DO YOU AGREE?

- Yes - see green frame 11.
- No - see yellow frame 11.
26. Once the things to be done and when and how to do them are determined, planning takes on a more technical shape. Say, the idea about inculcating the dignity of labour has been elaborated into an activity of getting every University student to engage in some manual labour in a farm or a factory. It has also been determined that the Ministry of Education could get it done through Universities and the activity could commence as soon as the necessary legislation is passed. Now these decisions have to be elaborated in the form of actions to be undertaken by different parts of the organization according to a logical sequence and time schedule. The first task of the manager is to define objectives for each one of those components: legal section of the Ministry to draft legislation, universities to set up requisite organizations, farms and factories to make necessary arrangements. Each objective has to be further elaborated into targets, which are definitive statements like this or this much to be accomplished by this date. Targets help to determine operations and ensure maximum effectiveness in execution.

27. At this stage, the manager recognizes that there is no one way in which any target is to be achieved. Here again, another creative phase begins. That is, the identification of alternatives through a process of gathering and analysing information. Each alternative is evaluated separately and tested for economy, effectiveness and feasibility. The process of selection is one of elimination. Alternatives which do not satisfy the three criteria are rejected until the manager has only the most viable or practicable alternatives in his hand.

28. This is another stage of planning when collective thinking would be preferred to individual judgement. Among the few alternatives which have stood the test of the three criteria, one has to be selected for elaboration into a plan of action. A group examining such a set of alternatives will go deep into various socio-cultural issues and problems of resistance to change.

29. The final stage in planning is when the selected alternative is elaborated into a plan of action and communicated with appropriate decisions to those who are to implement them.

People of Village X wanted a secondary school in which the 25 students passing out from the primary school could continue studies. I had several discussions with parents and examined whether a secondary school in the village or free transport to the nearest secondary school would be more economical, effective and feasible. At the end, I decided to construct one more class-room in the primary school, engage a teacher and convert the primary school gradually into a primary-cum-secondary school?

Have I done a systematic planning?
- Yes - see yellow frame 12.
- No - see green frame 12.
I. INTRODUCTION

1. Organization is defined as "arranging a complex of tasks into manageable units and defining the formal relationships among the people who are assigned the various tasks". Whenever a manager undertakes to implement a plan, he has to establish an efficient framework in relation to items of work, personnel and lines of communication and authority among them.

AS A STAGE IN THE MANAGEMENT PROCESS DOES ORGANIZATION MEAN A FUNCTION OR A THING?

- A function - see yellow frame 13.
- A thing - see green frame 13.

2. Organization as a function and an organization as the outcome of that function are two important matters which concern a student of management. The term "an Organization", usually, gives the impression of a substantial structure or an institution. But it is not necessarily so. Two or more persons who interact with one another for the achievement of a common objective constitute an Organization. Their interaction may be as brief as a few seconds.

Example: Two persons who have to pass each other on a narrow footpath and interact with each other for the common objective of passing each other create for themselves an organization which lasts for those brief seconds.

II. PROCESS OF ORGANIZATION

3. Organization concerns itself equally with the two aspects of

(a) division of labour and allotting work-loads to individuals as well as groups of individuals (e.g. creation of departments, branches, units etc.); and

(b) establishing lines of communication, influence and authority among individuals and groups of individuals handling allotted workloads and ensuring the coordination of their activities in relation to the given objective.

THE SCHOOL PRIZE-GIVING IS DUE NEXT MONTH. I SET UP COMMITTEES IN CHARGE OF VARIOUS ACTIVITIES. SENIOR TEACHERS, AS CHAIRMEN OF THESE COMMITTEES, ARE MADE RESPONSIBLE TO MY DEPUTY ON MATTERS ENTRUSTED TO THEM. I HAVE_kept myself_free_TO ATTEND TO THE PREPARATION OF THE PRINCIPAL'S REPORT. HAVE I PERFORMED BY DUTY SATISFACTORY AS A MANAGER?

Yes - see green frame 14.
No - see yellow frame 14.
4. The outcome of the activities listed in para 3, is an organizational structure for the implementation of the planned activity.

5. We proceed to determine the most suitable organizational structure by (i) determining the work required to accomplish the plan, that is, arranging a complex of tasks into manageable units; and (ii) grouping jobs or items of work into an orderly organizational structure (e.g. as programmes, projects and activities). Still we are only concerned with the tasks to be performed. We go a step further and determine the kind of specialized knowledge and experience that is required for each task and also the nature of the job and work-load which can be handled by an individual worker.

EXAMPLE:

Say our plan includes a project to prepare and publish a series of text-books in science on a revised curriculum within two years.

Our first task is to determine the work required to accomplish it: We identify the following:

(a) **curriculum has to be revised**, which means that
   (i) the existing curriculum has to be analysed in relation to determined learning objectives;
   (ii) comparisons made with more recently developed curricula in other fields as well as in science itself in other countries or locations;
   (iii) preparing a draft curriculum for discussion and/or trial;
   (iv) evaluation of comments and criticisms as well as experiences gained in trial;
   (v) preparation of revised curriculum;
   (vi) its publication and dissemination.

(b) **the text-books have to be written**, which means that
   (i) the content, envisaged in the curriculum, is elaborated in the form of lessons to be taught and learned in a specified period;
   (ii) the method of presentation determined;
   (iii) learning tasks in the form of things to learn and things to do designed;
   (iv) lessons written in draft form discussed and/or pre-tested and revised;
   (v) illustration determined and executed;...

(vi) the manuscript of each textbook finalized and sent to the printer; and

(c) the text-books have to be printed, bound and distributed, which means that:
(i) lay-out of pages has to be determined;
(ii) the text composed;
(iii) blocks made for illustrations;
(iv) proofs read and approved;
(v) printing and binding done;
(vi) network of distributors established;
(vii) books despatched to distributors.

IN THE PROCESS OF DETERMINING THE WORK TO BE DONE, WHAT HAVE WE ACHIEVED?

6. In the process of determining the work to be done, we have hit upon the basic elements of an organizational structure: we perceive a structure consisting of four elements:

(i) to develop the curriculum
(ii) to write and illustrate the text-books
(iii) to print and bind, and
(iv) to distribute the text-books.

Under each of these are tasks demanding specializations. We proceed to identify them: e.g. for developing the curriculum we need the specialized knowledge and experience of both in the techniques of curriculum development (i.e. learning objectives, process of learning, motivation, measurement and evaluation etc.) and in the related subject-matter areas, not only as subject specialists but also as teachers.

7. From this we come to our next task of determining the nature of the job and work-load to be handled by each person with a specialized knowledge and experience; e.g.

The specialist in curriculum development is required to ensure that the curriculum in science is evolved with due considerations given to the learning process and developments in teaching and learning methodologies, evaluation techniques etc.

The subject specialists are required to specify the content, determine the sequence of presentation and demarcate the limits for topics or units of lessons to be presented during a specified period.
8. To determine the workload, we have to be sure of the time available to us to accomplish the project and the time which each worker is expected to give to this work. Let us assume that this job has to be completed in six months and that specialist in curriculum development is available on a full-time basis while subject-specialists will be teachers who would devote two days a week for this work.

9. After due consideration of various tasks to be accomplished, we will find that a set of jobs such as the following would be needed:

1. Establishing learning objectives
   specialist in curriculum and other pedagogical criteria

2. Analysing existing curricula,
   comparing with curricula from other countries and preparing first draft
   a senior science teacher
   for each level (Primary, Middle School and Secondary)
   3 teachers of primary science
   4 teachers of general science in middle schools
   2 teachers each of Chemistry, Physics, Botany, Zoology and Mathematics in secondary schools

3. Pre-testing the draft curricula
   Senior Science teachers in collaboration with regional education officers.

4. Consideration of comments and criticisms
   same as for 2.

5. Revision of draft curriculum
   same as for 2.

6. Publication and dissemination
   Specialist in Curriculum Development in collaboration with senior science teachers.

7. Overall Supervision and Coordination
   Specialist in Curriculum Development

8. Supervision in respect of each level
   Senior Science teacher of each level.

9. Supportive services
   (administration, secretaries etc.)
   Administrative Officer
   2 clerks and 5 typists

Does this set of jobs constitute the organizational structure that we are looking for?

Yes - see yellow frame 15.
No - see green frame 15.

.../
10. The jobs and items of work and the workloads determined in relation to individual workers automatically suggest the structure of authority. It shows who has to be responsible for what and who is accountable to whom. It also shows who supervises whom.

Example:- Continuing our example for the revision of science curriculum, the division of work, we accomplished above, suggests a structure of authority as given below:

Specialist in C.D. (overall supervision and coordination)

Senior Science teachers (supervision in respect of each level)

Teachers (allotted executive functions)

HOW WILL THIS STRUCTURE OF AUTHORITY APPEAR IN AN ORGANIZATIONAL CHART?

11. Elaborated into an organigramme or organizational chart, the structure of authority will appear as follows:

Coordinator of the Project (specialist in C.D.)

Administrative Officer

Senior science teacher (primary)

2 clerks 5 typists

Senior science teacher (middle school)

3 primary science teachers

Senior science teacher (secondary)

4 general science teachers

2 Chemistry 2 Physics 2 Botany 2 Zoology 2 Maths.

DO THESE LINES IN THE ORGANIZATIONAL CHART ONLY REPRESENT THE FLOW OF AUTHORITY?

Yes - see yellow frame 16.

No - see green frame 16.

*/
12. But the chart, as on para 11, does not show the position of advisory and auxiliary services which are distinct from the personnel that carry out the activities directly related to the project. An organization, where no advisory staff positions are involved, is called a line organization. What we have evolved in our example above is a line organization.

13. Taking the terms from the military which distinguishes men who are in the line from those in the staff, who perform a supporting expert role from a side, the advisory and auxiliary service which supports the line operations of an organization is called the staff. Thus an organization which has provision for such services is called a line-and-staff organization.

Example:- For our project of science curriculum revision, let us assume that an advisory committee of university and teachers' college professors has been appointed by the minister to advise the team of curriculum developers; this committee meets periodically and tenders its advice to the coordinator of the project.

14. In the organizational chart, we would indicate this staff unit as follows:-

```
Coordinator of the Project  
(specialist in C.D.)

\[\text{Advisory Committee}\]

Administrative Officer

Senior science teacher (primary)

Senior science teacher (middle school)

Senior science teacher (secondary)

2 primary 5 clerks typists 3 general science teachers science teachers

Chemistry Physics Botany Zoology Maths.

teachers teachers teachers teachers
```

15. While establishing the requisite line-and-staff organization to carry out a project, it is necessary to create the coordinating machinery. Ordinarily, the lines of authority, which also function as lines of accountability, indicate the coordinating mechanism.
Example:- In our organigramme above, the Administrative Officer and the three Senior Science Teachers have coordinating functions in that they, by virtue of their positions, are required to ensure that they supervise and coordinate the work of their subordinates in their units. Similarly, the specialist in Curriculum Development coordinates the work of these four unit heads.

**IS THIS THE ONLY FORM OF COORDINATION THAT IS POSSIBLE?**

*Yes* - see yellow frame 17.

*No* - see green frame 17.
16. Establishing the line-and-staff organization and the coordinating machinery does not complete the task of organization. All we have attended to is the anatomy of the organism. We have now to turn our attention to the physiology. How does the organization work? Who keeps it working? To ensure that an organization works, we have two more tasks:—

1. Formulating and defining methods and procedures.
2. Selecting/recruiting, training/orienting/informing the staff.

These tasks involve developing manuals of procedure, rules and regulations as well as routines of operation.

17. Finally, our attention has to be directed to the provision of the material facilities or resources needed for the agencies. For an organization to function, it needs not only its staff but also buildings, furniture, machines, equipment and a host of other materials. So the final stage in the task of organization is to obtain these resources.

DO WE HAVE A MEANS OF EVALUATING THE ORGANIZATION WE HAD DEVELOPED?

III. EVALUATING ORGANIZATION

18. Yes. We have a simple checklist. There are a number of questions which we should ask ourselves with regard to an organization, we have developed for any activity:

(a) Is the type of organization suited to its purpose?
(b) Is the division of work on a sound functional basis?
(c) Is there a proper ratio between supervisors and subordinates?
(d) Are divisional or unit objectives clearly defined?
(e) Are authority and accountability clearly defined?
(f) Are policies and procedures clearly defined and properly communicated?
(g) Are decisions made at the lowest competent level?
(h) Does the flow of work represent proper functional sequence?
(i) Are adequate controls installed and operating?

ON WHAT CRITERIA IS THIS CHECKLIST MADE?

.../
19. The check-list which we have proposed for the evaluation of an organization has been drawn up with certain basic criteria in mind. The soundness of an organization depends on three factors:

(a) Efficiency
(b) Effectiveness, and
(c) Continuity

Is there a real distinction between "efficiency and effectiveness"?

Yes - see yellow frame 18.
No - see green frame 18.

20. Efficiency is measured in relation to the energy, activity and vitality within the organization. In an organization, indicators of efficiency are (i) cooperation among its members, (ii) motivation as displayed by their initiative and single-pointed dedication to work, (iii) procedures which are purposeful and conducive to good work and (iv) supervision that ensures a healthy working climate. Efficiency also has an economic connotation, that is, the outcome is commensurate with the investment in resources or effort.

21. Effectiveness is the quality of service which has an impact on the external world served by the organization. Feverish activity within an organization does not always mean that such activity produces results. There can be much activity with no productivity; for example, a dozen clerks and officers writing reams after reams of notes in files without making any decisions subscribing to the accomplishment of the objectives of the office.

How is the effectiveness of organization measured?

22. The effectiveness of organization is measured by two major factors:

(i) accomplishment of objectives  
Both these are ensured by the best utilization of all the knowledge, skills and competencies available to the management.

(ii) quality of services
Management intelligence, by which is meant the information the management has about the wants and needs of the parties served by it, as well as the knowledge of its own resources, plays an important role in this respect.
23. Continuity is important to an organization because time is involved in the accomplishment of an objective. If the organization cannot last until the objective is accomplished, it is not a sound organization. Continuity of an organization is guaranteed by two main factors:

(i) adequate financial resources,
(ii) satisfying the consumers or the party served.

24. If the objective is one of long-range planning, another factor comes in; that is, management training. Ensuring an efficient and effective management is a fundamental step in guaranteeing the continuity of a long-term organization.

TAKING A SCHOOL AS AN ORGANIZATION, HOW WOULD YOU MEASURE ITS EFFICIENCY:

- By analysing its examination results - see yellow frame 19.
- By studying such aspects as the attitude of teachers and students to work, the degree to which the principal has demonstrated leadership, the procedures relating to different activities and the general working climate - see green frame 19.

HOW WOULD YOU MEASURE ITS EFFECTIVENESS?

- By counting the number of first class passes in public examinations - see green frame 20.
- By analysing how it satisfied each of the individual and societal objectives of education - see yellow frame 20.

HOW WOULD YOU FIND OUT WHETHER THE SCHOOL SATISFIES THE CRITERION OF CONTINUITY?

- By asking the parents whether they are satisfied with the school - see green frame 21.
- By looking into at least three aspects: parental satisfaction, the position of resources and the arrangements for recruiting and training teachers - see yellow frame 21.
IV. MANAGEMENT CONCEPTS RELEVANT TO ORGANIZATION

25. Authority is the right to do something. This consists of the right to:

(i) make decisions
(ii) assign tasks to and command subordinates and
(iii) expect and require satisfactory performance from subordinates.

Authority may come to a person from a "high" source (say in the case of a school principal from the Government or the Board of Management) and it can also come from the subordinates, who willingly accept the authority of a person on such grounds as (1) rank, (2) personal qualities, (3) position or (4) tradition (e.g. the Principal may get his authority from any of these factors vis-a-vis teachers, pupils, parents etc.).

26. Power is the ability to do something. One may have the authority (i.e. the right) and not the power (i.e. the ability). The reverse is also possible. For instance, the Principal has the authority to expect a teacher to produce his course plan at the beginning of the term, but he may not have the power to enforce it. The power of the Principal is measured by his subordinates in terms of his ability to give, promise or withdraw rewards and threaten or impose punishments.

27. Workable authority is the right to do something, which is accompanied by power. Called also "legitimate power" this is essential for the sound functioning of any institution or organization.

28. Responsibility is the obligation to do something. It is a personal attitude created within a person. When a person accepts a position or agrees to undertake a task, he has accepted responsibility for the effective performance of all functions involved. A significant fact to be remembered in respect of responsibility is that it cannot be passed on to anybody else. Responsibility, unlike authority and power, does not flow from one person to another.

29. Accountability is the obligation to report to a higher authority about the manner in which one has exercised his responsibility and used the authority delegated to him. Every transfer of authority creates accountability.

"WHENEVER THE MINISTER ASKS MY DIRECTOR FOR A DRAFT SPEECH, HE IMMEDIATELY PASSES THE RESPONSIBILITY TO ME. BUT I CANNOT GET ANYONE IN THE DEPARTMENT TO GIVE ME INFORMATION. FORTUNATELY, THE MINISTER UNDERSTANDS THIS AND PUTS THE BLAME ON THE DIRECTOR".

WHAT DOES THE DIRECTOR DO WRONG?

- Passing his responsibility to his subordinate
- See yellow frame 22.
- Delegating accountability without delegating an equal measure of authority and power
- See green frame 22.
V. MAIN MANAGEMENT PRINCIPLES RELATING TO ORGANIZATION

30. The main management principles relating to organization are the following:

- Delegation
- Management by Exception
- Management by Objective
- Span of Control

31. **Delegation**: An efficient manager wisely delegates authority and power (i.e. *workable authority*) to the lowest competent level and ensures that the extent and scope of such delegation is clearly defined and correctly understood. But delegation does not relieve the administrator of his responsibility. It only gives him more time to concentrate more on his own work in truly important fields.

32. **Management by Exception**: A Manager delegates his authority and power to his subordinates in such a way that they refer to him for decision only the important matters where his personal attention is needed and remain silent when his attention is not required. This system works on the principle that in any organization, there are many trivial operations but only a few vital ones. This principle is also referred to as the *80-20 rule*, *ABC Method* or *Pareto's Law*.

33. **Management by Objective**: A Manager sets targets within an organization or a part thereof as a basis of achieving greater efficiency and providing motivation and initiative. Factors impeding the attainment of objectives are identified and action taken to overcome them. The process is one of setting such targets as Task X shall be finished by date Y.

34. **Span of Control**: The number of subordinates one manager has under this jurisdiction should not exceed what he can effectively supervise directly; that, according to research findings, is only about six. An efficient manager optimizes his span of control while ensuring that his subordinates are supervised only by one supervisor.

Contd. on p. 25
35. **Advantage of Delegation and Management by Exception or Objective:** When a manager adopts the practice of managing by Exception and/or Objective he finds that he

- saves personal time,
- concentrates on managerial effort,
- lessens frequency of decision-making,
- identifies crises and critical problems,
- alerts top management to opportunities and difficulties,
- allows thinking and decision-making to be done in advance, and
- reduces uncertainty among subordinate staff.

THE CHIEF ACCOUNTANT OF THE SALARY PAYMENT UNIT OF REGION A WANTS A DAILY STATEMENT OF HOW MANY SALARY CHEQUES THE CLERKS HAD PREPARED. IF THE NUMBER IS WITHIN ± 10% OF THE NORM, HE IS SILENT. BUT IF IT IS HIGHER OR LOWER THAN THE NORM, HE COMES STRAIGHTAWAY TO INVESTIGATE. BUT THE CHIEF ACCOUNTANT OF REGION B IS VERY DIFFERENT. HE IS NOT BOTHERED ABOUT THE WORK DONE DAILY. HE WANTS ALL SALARY CHEQUES ON HIS TABLE FIVE DAYS BEFORE THE END OF THE MONTH. HE HAS STILL HAD NO OCCASION ONCE TO FIND FAULT WITH HIS CLERKS. WHO IS THE BETTER OFFICER?

- Chief Accountant, Region A because he is more conscientious and supervises his subordinates thoroughly - see yellow frame 23.

- Chief Accountant of Region B because he has motivated his clerks by giving them a deadline - see green frame 23.

.../
VI. GRAPHIC AIDS TO ORGANIZATION

36. Several graphic aids are used in organization. Here are a few, which can be effectively used -

Organigramme
or
Organizational chart
Flow Chart
Multiple Activity Chart

37. The organigramme or organizational chart is a graphic representation of the formal relationships and interrelationships within an organization, depicting the lines of authority and the control provisions which are established for co-ordinating. A chart may include details by major duties performed by each position and also represent by arrows and dotted lines arrangements made for consultation and information. An organigramme is like a map and has to be updated as changes take place. Otherwise it would soon be worthless.

Specimen of an Organigramme or Organizational Chart

```
HEAD OF THE SCHOOL

DEPUTY HEAD OF THE SCHOOL

ASSISTANT I
ASSISTANT II
ASSISTANT III

TECHNICIAN 1
TECHNICIAN 2
TECHNICIAN 3
TECHNICIAN 4

.../
38. **Flow Chart**, also called flow diagram or flow process chart, is a diagram setting out the sequence of operations, transportations, inspections, delays and storages involved in accomplishing an objective such as turning out a product or fulfilling a specific need. All events are recorded by means of appropriate process chart symbols.

**SPECIMEN OF A FLOW CHART**

- **Pressage Evaluation on Current Practice and Innovative Projects**
- **Analysis of data to determine critical factors and innovative characteristics**
- **Analysis of data to select content of modules**
- **Identification of concepts and development of guidelines**
- **Identification of Associated Centres**
- **Writing of student modules**
- **Writing of Teaching Guides**
- **Development of Evaluative Instruments**
- **Development of other Teaching Aids**
- **Needs Revision**
- **Try-out studies**
- **Feasibility study**
- **Adaptation**
- **Absorption into mainstream of educational systems**
- **Further development and expansion by National Centres for total basic curriculum**

**Modes of Operation**
- Workshop
- Regional
- Study Groups
- Writing Conferences
- Workshops

**Programme Areas**
- Socio-economic Studies
- Action-oriented Research Studies
- Consultancy Services
- Educational Technology
- Training Programme
- Non-formal Education

**Levels**
- Regional
- National
- International

**Project Activities**
39. **Multiple Activity Chart** is also a graphical representation which is, however, more sophisticated (and hence more useful) than an organigramme. An organigramme is a schematic representation of the static rather than the dynamic. It shows the anatomy rather than the physiology. The Multiple Activity Chart is a superior tool in organization because it represents the dynamic relations more poignantly. Here, with the use of appropriate symbols, the positions which (i) perform the work, (ii) provide direct supervision, (iii) must be consulted, (iv) must be informed, (v) discuss points specifically submitted; and (vi) make final decisions are represented in a manner that enables the administrators to see pockets of delay, unnecessary processes and the distribution of the workloads. (See specimen on opposite page)

40. Whatever the task be, its organization involves the functions we discussed in this chapter. The management principles of delegation, management by exception or objective and span of control are equally applicable to them. So are the graphic aids. Whether one organizes a school function like a sports day or a prize-giving; an educational activity like a field lesson or an examination; an institutional set-up like a new University, a department or an office, all these are of very great value.
### SPECIMEN OF MULTIPLE ACTIVITY CHART

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### KEY

- **Final Decision**
- **Provides general supervision**
- **Discusses points specifically submitted**
- **must be informed**
- **must be consulted**
- **Provides direct supervision**
- **Performs the work**
I. INTRODUCTION

1. Control, as the fourth stage of the Management Process, is the process which ensures that all activities undertaken by an organization are guided toward the accomplishment of the planned objective or target. The essence of this process is to determine whether an activity is achieving the desired results or not. For this purpose, the manager has to have a clear idea of what the "desired results" are.

2. Let us get one point very clear. Control in management does not mean checking or obstructing.

   IF ONE WERE TO LOOK FOR AN ANALOGY FOR CONTROL FROM DRIVING A MOTOR CAR, TO WHAT WILL THE FUNCTION OF CONTROL BE COMPARED?
   - brakes - see yellow frame 24.
   - steering wheel - see yellow frame 24.
   - combination of both - see green frame 24.

3. Control is as much a contributory factor to organizational efficiency as planning, organization and direction. It is a positive function of avoiding or minimizing deviations from the planned objective or target. Every organization, should therefore have its control system.

WHAT ARE THE ESSENTIALS OF A CONTROL SYSTEM?

II. COMPONENTS OF A CONTROL SYSTEM

4. The essentials of a control system are fourfold:

   (i) A pre-determined goal/target, a plan, a policy, a norm/standard, a criterion or yardstick (i.e. this is what we want to achieve).

   (ii) A means of measuring an activity (i.e. a way of finding out the rate of progress or direction of movement toward our goal).

   (iii) A means of comparing activity with a criterion (i.e. a way of finding out what our performance is in comparison with our desired results).

   (iv) Mechanisms for corrective action (i.e. means for correcting deviations).

DO WE ALWAYS HAVE A CLEAR PICTURE OF WHAT WE WANT TO ACHIEVE? IF NOT, HOW DO WE PROCEED?

Contd. on p. 32
5. Every plan includes the kind of predetermined goals/targets and criteria of success etc. These, as we have already observed, form the very basis of plans. But they may not be adequately precise in most cases. It is important to note that such goals/targets or criteria have to be very precise if they are to help the control function.

Example:- "Qualitative improvement of education" or "better environmental facilities" etc. are not precise enough to serve control purposes. Targets, which are quantified or quantifiable, are precise. Hence, an effort to evolve quantitative goals, targets and criteria must be regarded as a positive contribution to control. "Increasing enrolments by 20%", "Providing permanent classrooms to 50% of the schools", "giving in-service training to 5,000 teachers", "Publishing 1,000,000 copies of textbooks" etc. are, therefore, to be preferred as statements of objectives/goals/criteria.

6. The same comments apply to means of measuring an activity. We may measure an activity like improving instructional efficiency in a subject in terms of marks obtained by children studying the subject. If our goal is also stated in similar terms (e.g. increasing the number of passes in that subject at such an examination by 10%), we have a workable control device. We are in a position to compare our performance against our intentions.

7. The purpose of comparing past performance with intentions is not merely to detect mistakes. It is to evaluate the entire process by which the organization proceeded to work toward its goals. This evaluation is of special use in preparing future plans. The planner is greatly assisted in his task if he can predict the future performance of a given organization.

8. Control should lead to corrective and remedial action. To ensure that instances needing such action are brought to light with the least amount of delay (i.e. with a minimum time lag or time span of discretion) the control function should be present right through an activity.

DOES THIS MEAN THAT WE SHOULD SUBJECT EVERY ACTIVITY OF AN ORGANIZATION TO THE CLOSEST SCRUTINY POSSIBLE?

Yes - see yellow frame 25.

No - see green frame 25.

...
III. CAUTIONS TO BE EXERCISED IN CONTROL

9. Control should not be allowed to deteriorate into "red tape", by over-elaboration to a point that they consume more time and resources than are commensurate with the results. Formal and direct control mechanisms like written reports, electronic devices, inspections etc. must be reduced to a minimum. On the other hand, informal and indirect controls like personal observations and discussions must be encouraged as they prove to be as effective as they are economical.

10. As even the best plans need to be changed from time to time, control procedures must be flexible.

11. It is in respect of control that information plays the most significant role. One thinks of feedback mostly in relation to the control function in management. The concept of feedback, which comes from electronic engineering, illustrates the role of control in an organization.

12. Refresh your mind on what we observed on Feedback. See pages 8 and 9.

13. As important as the technical aspects of control is the human aspect. The following observations made by Learned, Ulrich and Booz are apposite:

(i) The effectiveness of a control system is in a large measure determined by the extent to which it has been incorporated into the daily routines and expectations of the personnel affected by it.

(ii) Information on past operations merely describes what is already beyond change. The control system becomes effective only when it enters the thinking of all participants, showing them what is expected of them and allowing them to show their capacity in performance.

(iii) To approach this idea, a long period of discussion, argument, and adjustment is usually necessary. Over time, differences of interpretation can be thrashed out and mutual understanding can develop.

(iv) The meaning which people give a control system in terms of their own outlook is as critical as the technical design of the system.
IV - DECISION-MAKING

I. INTRODUCTION

1. Decision-making is one of the four basic components of management action, other three being Problem-solving, Human Relations and Communication. (See p. 6). Decision-making provides all management action - whether planning, organization, direction or control.

2. A manager is correctly described as a decision-maker rather than an implementer of decisions. Every activity involves a series of decisions which relates to the allocation and utilization of resources as well as to the adjustment of the organization to change or unexpected events. An organization functions smoothly at its highest level of efficiency if the administrators at the appropriate levels make prompt and sound decisions.

II. POLICY, STRATEGY AND DECISION

3. Before we examine the decision-making process, it is necessary to understand the important concepts behind the three terms POLICY, STRATEGY and DECISION.

4. To begin with the last term, a decision is a straightforward mental process. Every human being makes decisions during every moment he is awake. He makes choices from among several alternatives. Every choice is explicitly or implicitly designed to achieve an objective. At a junction one meets on a journey, one turns right or left according to the destination one has in mind. Such decision like picking the correct road is based on knowledge, acquired either through past experience or from information provided by road maps and other travellers. Sometimes, the decision is made on the spot by consulting an expert in the person of somebody living in the area. In conducting an organization towards a predetermined goal, the manager makes similar choices on identically similar circumstances.

5. Among the myriads of decisions which a manager makes every day, there are a few which are more important than others because they have the characteristic of guiding later decisions as well as decisions made by others. These big decisions which provide a framework within which others are to make their decisions are known as POLICIES.

(a) A PARENT APPLIES TO THE MINISTER FOR EXEMPTION OF HIS CHILD FROM SCHOOL FEES DUE TO HIS LOW INCOME AND THE MINISTER ALLOWS IT.

(b) THE MINISTER WHILE ALLOWING IT, SAYS THAT CHILDREN OF ALL PARENTS UNDER SIMILAR CIRCUMSTANCES BE EXEMPTED LIKEWISE.

WHICH OF THEM IS A DECISION AND WHICH A POLICY?
- both are decisions - see yellow frame 26.
- (a) is a decision and (b) is a policy - see green frame 26.
6. Managers in the higher echelons of administration are conscious of the fact that their decisions could become policies. So when they have no intention of allowing them to be policies, they would specify clearly that the particular decision shall only be a single-shot decision. The expressions commonly in use are "it shall however not be a precedent" and "it shall be without prejudice."

7. Policies are very important to the working of an organization. They make the action of each member of an organization in a given set of circumstances more predictable to other members. They guide action and enable decisions made by different members of an organization to follow a common path. In view of these uses of policies, decisions which give rise to policies are made with greater care and circumspection.

8. STRATEGIES are also a kind of decisions or, sometimes, a battery of related decisions designed to meet unpredictable contingencies or resistances and obstructions of others. A strategy is a decision in which the manner of controlling such contingencies, resistances and obstructions is given due consideration. A strategy, like a policy governs or guides decisions made by different members of an organization.

A MINISTER OF EDUCATION, DETERMINED TO GET QUALIFIED TEACHERS TO CONTRIBUTE TO RURAL EDUCATION MAY DECIDE THAT PROMOTION TO HIGHER GRADES REQUIRES A CERTAIN NUMBER OF YEARS OF SERVICE IN A RURAL SCHOOL. HE CALLS IT "MY STRATEGY TO COUNTERACT THE RESISTANCE OF QUALIFIED TEACHERS WHO REFUSE TO WORK OUTSIDE URBAN AREAS." IS THE DESCRIPTION OF HIS DECISION AS A STRATEGY CORRECT?

- Yes - see yellow frame 27.
- No - see green frame 27.

9. A strategy has a time dimension. It can remain operative only under the circumstances under which it was designed. When the circumstances change, the strategy too has to be modified to meet the new contingencies, resistances or obstructions. A particular contingency under which strategies are designed is when the available information is too fragmentary and insufficient to formulate a policy.
PROBLEMS IN DECISION-MAKING

1. Two main problems one encounters in relation to decision-making are
   (a) Delay in taking decisions; and
   (b) Unsound decisions.

The causes for them could be analysed as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Causes for</th>
<th>Delay in decision-making</th>
<th>Unsound Decisions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Responsibility is not clearly fixed; no one takes a decision—or else different decisions are made by different people with some interest in the matter.</td>
<td>Responsibility has not been clearly fixed and decisions, are therefore, taken by persons other than those who should have taken them or mutually incompatible decisions or partial decisions are taken by more than one person.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. lack of necessary data</td>
<td>all data needed were not available or not taken into account</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. lack of clear formulation of issues</td>
<td>the issues were erroneously presented or were misunderstood</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. No one alternative appearing clearly preferable to the others</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Procrastination</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Technical incapacity of the decision-maker</td>
<td>Decisions insufficiently rational Decisions affected by non-technical considerations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. When this information is analysed, four factors figure as causes of both delays in decision-making and unsound decisions. They are:
   (a) Organizational Inadequacy
   (b) Problem of data and Information
   (c) Difficulty in Problem-specification
   (d) Technical Incapacity of Decision-maker

Contd. on page 38
Let us examine them more closely and identify the main difficulties under each of them:

(i) **Organizational inadequacy**
   (a) no demarcation of functions
   (b) no clear fixing of responsibility
   (c) no coordination to avoid incompatible decisions.

(ii) **Problem of data and information**
   (a) non-availability of data
   (b) absence of information
   (N.B. Data and information are different things when we talk of them in Management.)
   (c) difficulties in retrieval of data and information
   (d) disinclination for or lack of training in the use of information for decision-making.

(iii) **Difficulty in Problem-specification**
   (a) non-availability of information
   (b) lack of training in problem-specification
   (c) lack of training in identification of alternative solutions
   (d) incapacity for or lack of analytical tools for evaluation of alternatives.

(iv) **Technical incapacity of the decision-maker**
   (a) capacity to evaluate alternative solutions
   (b) no knowledge of available decision-making techniques.

Before we find solutions to these problems let us study the fundamentals of the process of decision-makings.

III. **PROCESS OF DECISION-MAKING**

3. Any attempt to describe the decision-making process is bound to end up in vague assertions and gross oversimplifications. Decisions are made in a given context, within the circumstances of a given time, within the structure of past decisions and actions and within the boundaries of the pre-determined objectives and policies of the organization.

Apart from these external factors which govern decisions made by a manager, there are many others which are internal or subjective such as the manager's own personality, biases and prejudices, attitudes and knowledge, comprehension of information, perception of organizational objectives, judgement of consequences, self-confidence, motivational factors etc. In such a complex situation, it will not be easy to define sequentially a process of making decisions.

Contd. on p.39
DOES THE INABILITY TO DESCRIBE HOW ONE MAKES ONE'S DECISION PRECLUDE US FROM ANALYSING WHAT WE CAN DO OURSELVES TO MAKE OUR DECISIONS MORE ACCURATE AND OBJECTIVE?

4. No. It should not. But before analysing what we can do to improve our decision-making capabilities, we should take a closer view of some factors which affect decision-making. There are basically two types of decisions:

(i) Routine decisions which deal with standard operating procedures.

Examples: Give an additional teacher every time a school shows an increase of enrolment by 30; allow his leave if he has still any leave to his credit; allocate $5,000 to replace every classroom in a state of disrepair etc.

(ii) Innovative decisions, which deal with new and unprecedented decisions.

Examples: Increase school enrolments by 10% without incurring additional costs; Double the output of trained teachers by year-round training programmes with no vacations; Change working hours of a school and have a third shift till late in the evening; Reduce building costs by using local resources.

5. For routine decisions one has to have a thorough grasp of the rules, regulations and procedures of an organization. The more one is conversant with the organizational objectives, plans, policies, strategies and precedents, the better equipped one is to make good routine decisions.

6. But the equipment needed for innovative decision involves, according to Herbert A. Simon and James G. March, a "complex psychological and intellectual repertoire".

THE EDUCATIONAL PLANNER OF COUNTRY X DRAWS UP A PLAN WITH METICULOUS CALCULATIONS OF PAST TRENDS IN STUDENT FLOWS, TEACHER SUPPLY AND DEMAND, NEED FOR BUILDINGS AND FACILITIES ETC. AND WITH PROJECTIONS STRICTLY BASED ON THESE PAST TRENDS. THE CABINET REJECTS THE PLAN AND ASKS THE MINISTER OF EDUCATION WHY HE COULD NOT FIND A PLANNER CAPABLE OF INNOVATIVE DECISIONS?

HOW JUSTIFIED IS THE CABINET IN ITS CRITICISM OF THE EDUCATIONAL PLANNER?

- Not at all justified - see yellow frame 28.
- Fully - see green frame 28.
SPECIFY PURPOSE, distinguishing carefully between
- **Musts**, which are essential for the achievement of the organizational objectives and
- **Wants**, which are desirable but not indispensable.

**CONSIDER IMPORTANT FACTORS**, such as constraints in the form of
- **feasibility** (i.e. what courses of action are outside the pale of practicability); and
- **consequences** (i.e. what results are completely unthinkable or unallowable).

**DEVELOP A PROCEDURE FOR HOLDING AND USING INFORMATION**

**IDENTIFY AND EXPLORE EACH ALTERNATIVE SEPARATELY**

**EVALUATE EACH ALTERNATIVE**

**ADJUST, INTEGRATE AND CHOOSE**

**TEST THE DECISION**
7. Decision-making is a process of choosing between alternatives to accomplish some purpose. It is the responsibility of the manager to make a logical choice. A procedure for such a purpose is suggested on the opposite page. Study it carefully. Analyse the processes by which you usually make decisions and see whether your method bears any relation to the suggested procedure.

NOW LET US UNDERTAKE A BRIEF SELF-EVALUATION.

8. Ask yourself the questions:

How do I fare as a decision-maker?
Do I delay decisions?
If so, why and under what circumstances?
Are my decisions accepted or are they referred for revision?
If they are overruled or referred for revision, how often does it happen?
Do my decisions result in progress toward the achievement of organizational objectives?
How often have my decisions brought about consequences which hindered progress?
How can I account for such decisions?

9. If you have done a really honest and frank self-evaluation, you would have found that you certainly have difficulties with regard to some types of decisions. Select a few of them and examine the cause or causes as far as you can analyse.

TO WHICH OF THE FOUR CATEGORIES OF CAUSES IN PAGE 38 DO THEY FALL? WHAT IS THE NATURE OF THE CORRECTIVE ACTION THAT YOU WOULD RECOMMEND?

10. It is quite possible that the two major problem areas that you identified for correction relate to information and problem-specification.

11. The need for information or selected data (that is, data which have been analysed and presented for a particular person, at a particular time for a particular purpose in an immediately usable form) cannot be over-emphasized. So every decision-maker has to devise his own information system – to gather, analyse, store and retrieve information. The greater the amount of information the easier and more accurate the decision.

12. Problem-specification is a skill to be acquired through study and practice. To state a problem clearly is more than halfway to solving it. You will recall that we defined decision-making as a process of choosing among possible alternative solutions to a given problem. So problem-specification involves a clear statement of alternative solutions, constraints in relation to each solution, consequences of each solution and the relative benefits accruing to the organization from each solution.

Contd. on p. 42
I received the following telegraphic communications from two of my regional directors:

Regional Director X says: "Serious student unrest in College AA: immediate action important; loss of life and limb and property feared; telegraph instructions."

Regional Director Y says: "College CC students demand removal of Principal; allegation Principal made derogatory remark on minority religious group; tension in community mounting and may lead to violence; my inquiry reveals Principal tactless; suggest suspension of Principal until full official inquiry."

In five minutes I had a telegram sent to Regional Director Y approving his suggestion. With regard to Regional Director X I spent half a day trying to assess the situation over the telephone. Meanwhile, two students were seriously injured in a clash between them and the community - something a quick decision could have averted.

What went wrong with my decision-making process as regards the problem of Regional Director X.

- Inefficient telephone system
  - see yellow frame 29.

- Regional Director X's incapacity in problem specification - see green frame 29.

13. What is described as problem-specification may immediately remind some of you that your day-to-day work involves exactly that. While all of you are decision-makers in respect of some aspects of your work, you are, for the most part, decision-preparers. By a decision-preparer we mean someone who studies a problem, gathers all the necessary information, examines the possible alternative solutions and makes a recommendation to a higher authority for the final decision. As a decision-preparer, one has to be as skillful in problem-specification as a decision-maker.

14. In innovative decision-making (see p. 39) one encounters a phenomenon called *anticipated reaction* in a 4-phased process that one adopts for the purpose! The four phases in the process of innovative decision-making are as follows:

(a) In the first phase, one perceives that a number of alternative courses of action or behaviour alternatives exist for one to choose from.

Contd. on p. 43
(b) Then, one begins to analyse the various consequences which can be anticipated to result from each such alternative.

(c) In the third phase, one evaluates such consequences in terms of the "satisfaction" (i.e. effectiveness), "utility" (i.e. benefits) and "welfare" that they may lead to.

and (d) Finally, one makes a selection from among the alternatives.

15. Apart from technical problems of information, skills in problem-specification, innovative decision-making has a psychological problem.

16. It is often found that people do not ordinarily like to make innovative decisions unless they find that they have no other alternative. "Passing the buck", which accounts for most of the disruption and delays in implementational action, is a direct result of this reluctance. This necessitates all or most of the innovative decisions to be taken at the highest echelons of an organization. There is no reason why innovative decisions cannot be made at every level of an organization. A major recommendation that is being strongly made for purposes of enhancing management efficiency is to encourage innovative decision-making at the lowest possible level in an organization with the participation and involvement of as many of the workers as possible.

IS NOT THE RELUCTANCE TO MAKE INNOVATIVE DECISION CAUSED BY A FEAR OF THE UNKNOWN CONSEQUENCES OF CHANCE OR UNEXPECTED EVENTS? IF SO, HOW DOES ONE OVERCOME THIS FEAR?

17. One way to overcome the fear of unknown consequences is to work out as minutely and carefully as possible the probability of various consequences in relation to each of the foreseeable chance events. For this purpose, several decision-making techniques have been developed. The main principle behind each technique is to replace guess-work or rule-of-thumb approach with something more accurate, reliable and defensible.

18. Almost all techniques in use are quantitative such as statistical methods, probability theory, analytical methods, operations research, simulation models and computerized analysis. Most of them are sophisticated and elaborate. Besides, not all these techniques are applicable to the kind of decisions in which you are involved.

19. Further, most of them involve an investment in time, effort and money which should be expended only if the results can justify it.

WITH CAVEATS OF THIS NATURE, WHY BOTHER TO STUDY SUCH TECHNIQUES AT ALL? Contd. on p. 44
20. We study techniques of decision-making for a very special reason. The mastery over quantitative techniques develops an analytical attitude in the decision-maker. This attitude results from his appreciation of the value of data and information as well as the recognition of the existence of alternative solutions to every problem - each solution with its own range of benefits.

ARE THERE NO SIMPLE TECHNIQUES WHICH ONE MAY USE IN MAKING EVERYDAY DECISIONS?

IV. ILLUSTRATIONS OF SOME SIMPLE DECISION-MAKING TECHNIQUES

21. PAYOFF TABLE 1 - A School Principal planning the Annual Prize Giving will find a PAYOFF TABLE like the following very useful to make a sound decision.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Choices</th>
<th>Too sunny</th>
<th>Fine but cloudy</th>
<th>Rain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Outdoors</td>
<td>Positive discomfort</td>
<td>Real comfort all very happy</td>
<td>Disaster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outdoors under tent</td>
<td>Positive comfort</td>
<td>Comfort but mild regrets</td>
<td>Mild discomfort</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indoors</td>
<td>Mild discomfort due to heat and congestion</td>
<td>Mild discomfort but regrets</td>
<td>Comfort and all very happy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IF YOU WERE THE PRINCIPAL, WHICH LOCATION WILL YOU DECIDE ON?

- Outdoors under tent - see yellow frame 30.
- Indoors - see green frame 30.
22. DECISION-TREE: Where a series of decisions have to be taken, the technique of constructing a decision-tree is more useful. An administrator organizing a Refresher Course for teachers can build a decision-tree as below. Its complexity will increase according to the number of chance events involved and its value as a tool lies in being able to anticipate the future and be ready with an alternative solution.

![Decision Tree Diagram]

23. Apart from facilitating you to arrive at prompt and sound decisions, the management techniques of the kind we have so far discussed have an additional use. This particular use is important to you if you are more a decision-preparer than a decision-maker. They help you to make a more systematic presentation either in defence and explanation of your decision or in clarification of relevant aspects to enable the decision-maker to arrive at a sound decision. Some of these techniques utilize graphical and tabular methods of presentation and they are more expressive than mere words.
V - PROBLEM-SOLVING

I. INTRODUCTION

1. We have drawn a distinction between decision-making and problem-solving. In actual practice, one cannot draw a sharp line of demarcation between them. One can argue that every decision is a result of an attempt to solve a problem. Particularly, the class of decisions, we described as innovative decisions, is directly related to problem-solving. Yet we are devoting a separate lesson unit on problem-solving with the main idea of emphasizing the importance of the manager's role in finding solutions to problems.

II. AWARENESS OF A PROBLEM

2. The awareness that a problem exists is developed when one sees discrepancies between ACTUALITY and EXPECTATIONS that is, between what exists and what one intends should exist. The existence of such discrepancies become evident in an organization through such situations as the following :-

(a) High error rate
(b) Inaccurate information
(c) Difficulty in obtaining needed document or information
(d) Too long to process paper work
(e) Inability of a step in the paper work cycle to keep pace with other related operations.
(f) Excessive overtime
(g) Too many crash programmes
(h) Continuous crisis

Of which of these problems have you been acutely aware in your own organization? What steps, if any, have you taken to solve them?

3. Discrepancies are generally brought to light by discontinuities or contradictions in information. Once again, we come face to face with information. Information plays a major role in generating the awareness of a problem.

4. The evaluation of the relevant information is an important preliminary function in understanding the nature as well as the gravity of a problem. This is done by :

- Assessing the source and appearance of such information; and
- Setting standards of its acceptability.

In doing so, one has to be cautious about:

Contd. on p. 48
- Failure to assess all possible sources of information
- Failure in mechanics of collection, and
- Jumping to conclusions and unwarranted assumptions.

One should also beware of one's own bias in assessment.

5. In handling information one has obtained, one must, as a first step, classify it on the basis of Association (i.e. With what other bits of information is it associated or connected?) Similarity (i.e. Which are the similar bits of information and which are not?) Dissimilarity, and Categories (i.e. Into what categories or groups can they be divided?).

From classification, one proceeds to integrating the information, asking one's self two questions:

- What do I know? (An overview of all information on a given matter available to you)
- What do I need to know? (A selection among such information of what is relevant and useful to the matter under study).

6. Information on a problem must result in choosing corrective action. So one must have clear and accurate answers to questions like:

- What do I have to accomplish? (i.e. aims/goals)
- What do I want to accomplish? (i.e. objectives/targets)
- What do I have available? (i.e. resources).

As one proceeds to determine what one has to and wants to accomplish and with what resources, what is the most important thing to remember?

7. The most important thing to remember is the general rule: One has to accept or reject the tentative explanation of the cause of a problem upon the basis of evidence. For this purpose, evidence must meet criteria, such as:

- Relevance (Is the evidence relevant to the problem under examination?)
- Validity (Is it valid and acceptable on the basis of either the reliability of the source or the logical "fitting" with circumstances?)
- Adequacy (Does it cover all aspects concerned?)

It is important that each of the hypotheses is tested. Merely an educated guess does not suffice.
III. APPROACHES TO PROBLEM-SOLVING

8. We must remember that finding the cause of the problem is almost equivalent to solving the problem. Therefore, we develop a number of hypotheses in determining why the problem exists. Each hypothesis you develop must be tested. The process of testing generally leads you to new information about the problem and to new ideas as to its cause. Each cause you identify suggests a possible way to solve the problem.

IS THIS NOT AN APPLICATION OF THE SCIENTIFIC METHOD FOR A MANAGERIAL PURPOSE?

9. Yes. It is. In fact, it is called the scientific approach to problem-solving and its steps are elaborated as follows:

1. Recognize that the problem exists
2. Collect facts (information) pertaining to it
3. Analyze and classify information
4. Establish one or more hypothetical solutions
5. Select each one and assess feasibility
6. Select the optimal solution and try it
7. Check and make adjustment if necessary
10. This replaces the traditional approach wherein one used his knowledge of the system and his intuitive capacity and depended on observation as his main method.

**IS CONFLICT RECOGNIZED AS A BASIC PROBLEM IN MANAGEMENT AND IS THE SAME METHODOLOGY PRESCRIBED FOR IT?**

**IV. CONFLICT-RESOLUTION**

11. Conflict is recognized as a problem. But Management approaches it differently mainly because conflict, unlike other problems, is welcome as a contribution to the growth of an organization. Both inter-organizational and inter-personal conflict is "a normal process by which socially valuable differences register themselves for the enrichment of all concerned." Conflict-resolution is, nevertheless, an important aspect of problem-solving. One of the earliest to suggest a methodology for conflict-resolution was Mary Parker Follett, who saw three ways of doing it:

- **(i) Domination** - i.e. a victory for one side or the other;
- **(ii) Compromise** - i.e. each side gives up something for the sake of peace, and
- **(iii) Integration** - i.e. finding a place for desires of each side so that neither side sacrifices anything.

Her recommendation was that integration was the most constructive method.

12. Another interesting concept developed by Simon relates to the problem of resolving individual or group conflict in organizations. Conflicts, he showed, led to four kinds of reactions in an organization, namely:

- **(i) problem-solving** (where the causes are looked into and eliminated through corrective action);
- **(ii) persuasion** (where an individual or group tries to win over others to a particular point of view);
- **(iii) bargaining** (= compromise); and
- **(iv) "politics"** (where a power struggle takes over the situation)

With his penchant for a mathematical approach to management, he placed greater faith in problem-solving as the most efficient way to resolution of conflict.

Contd. on p. 51

IS THE M.P. JUSTIFIED IN HIS CRITICISM?

Yes - see yellow frame 31

No - see green frame 31.

TIMELINESS OF PROBLEM-SOLVING

Optimal solution to a problem is judged on:
- achievement of objective
- feasibility of implementation
- lack of adverse consequences.

In addition, solution to a problem must be:
- politically defensible
- legally permissible (unless the solution itself is a new law)
- socially and culturally acceptable
- technically workable
- administratively practicable
- financially feasible
- economically beneficial

...
14. A manager cannot wait for the best solution. All he can do is to find the optimal solution, that is the best under the circumstances. He cannot satisfy himself. He can only "satisfice" (a term coined by putting together satisfy + suffice) himself.

THE GOVERNMENT HAS FOR POLITICAL REASONS DECIDED SUDDENLY THAT SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS BE MADE COMPELLARY IN ALL SECONDARY SCHOOLS. THE EXISTING STAFF AND FACILITIES SERVE LESS THAN 25% THE SCHOOL SYSTEM. THE DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION SOLVES THE PROBLEM BY ASKING EVERY TEACHER WHO HAD DONE SOME MATHEMATICS OR SCIENCE IN SECONDARY SCHOOL TO REPORT TO REFRESHER CLASSES HELD EVERY SATURDAY. IN THESE CLASSES, THE TEACHERS ARE TAUGHT HOW TO DO THE NEXT WEEK'S WORK AND GIVEN COURSE GUIDES. THE ASSOCIATION OF TEACHER EDUCATORS CRITICIZES THE DIRECTOR FOR DOING A HURRIED JOB. IT SAYS THAT THE PROGRAMME SHOULD HAVE BEEN POSTPONED BY AT LEAST FIVE YEARS UNTIL TEACHERS ARE TRAINED, INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS PREPARED AND LABORATORIES BUILT. WAS THE DIRECTOR RIGHT IN THE WAY HE APPROACHED THE PROBLEM?

- Yes because he had no alternative
- No, because he could ask for time

VI. TECHNIQUES FOR PROBLEM-SOLVING

15. With the emphasis on scientific method, many techniques of problem-solving have come into existence. They are of varying degrees of sophistication, the most complex ones being so mathematically oriented as to necessitate computers. Among these, what an educational administrator can use may only be a few. For example, the use of the sophisticated techniques of Operations Research may not be within the reach of an average educational system, because of the time-factor involved, the high quality of data needed and the excessive cost. But certain elements of Operations Research such as Linear Programming, Game Theory, Simulation and PERT/CPM may both be relevant and feasible.

16. Among the techniques which an educational administrator could use with advantage are:

- Work Study - see page 53.
- Management Analysis Planning - see page 55.
- Systems Analysis and Design - see page 56.

Contd. on p. 53
VII. WORK STUDY

17. Work Study is a method of analysing in detail the work of an organization with a view to maximizing the use of its human and material resources for the accomplishment of its goals.

18. Basically Work Study consists of:

1. Method Study, which involves organizational and procedural analysis and aims at Work simplification.

2. Work Measurement, which analyses each job in an operation into its constituent elements and times each element at various levels of performance.

19. What is looked into in Method Study include:

   STRUCTURAL PATTERN IN RELATION TO THE NATURE AND THE ENVIRONMENT OF ACTIVITIES,

   RATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF WORK

   OVERLAPPING AND DUPLICATION

   FUNCTIONAL OR JOB SPECIALIZATION

   LINE OF AUTHORITY AND UNITY OF COMMAND

   STAFF AND LINE RELATIONSHIP

Contd. on p. 54
20. In Work Measurement, the emphasis is on analysing each job into its constituent elements and timing them.

21. Repetitive work is timed by means of time-study while non-repetitive work is subjected to analytical estimating. The aim is to find out the standard time allowable for each job. The process of work measurement enables changes in procedures, adjustments in movement of persons and their physical motions and improvement of the working environment.

22. In many countries there are study units - popularly known as Organization and Methods (O & M) Units responsible for making such work studies. Many such studies have revealed that the structural pattern of organizations and distribution of work needed to be made more rational. In many places work suffers from over-staffing, excessive centralization and unnecessary paper work.

Contd. on p. 55
SALARIES OF 12,000 TEACHERS HAVE TO BE PAID BY INDIVIDUAL CHEQUES FROM MY OFFICE. I FIND THAT EVERY MONTH THE 10 CLERKS IN THE SALARIES UNIT HAVE TO WORK AT LEAST 300 HOURS OF OVERTIME, USUALLY IN THE LAST WEEK. I HAVE URGED FOR MORE STAFF: BUT THE O & M INSPECTOR SAYS THAT MY STAFF IS MORE THAN ENOUGH ACCORDING TO PREVAILING NORMS. IN FACT, HE PUTS THE BLAME ON ME SAYING THAT I SHOULD HAVE CONDUCTED A WORK STUDY - BOTH METHODS AND MEASUREMENT. IS THE O & M INSPECTOR CORRECT?

- Yes - see yellow frame 33.
- No - see green frame 33.

VIII. MANAGEMENT ANALYSIS PLANNING

24. As a technique, MAP is a simplified version of Method Study aspect of Work Study. It is directly oriented towards an identified problem whereas Work Study could be undertaken as a step in finding out what the problems really are. In MAP the emphasis is on problem-specification and installation of corrective action.

25. MAP consists of four stages:

1. **Research**, when all facts are collected, analysed and assessed.

2. **Analysis** when following activities are undertaken:
   - define the problem
   - determine causes
   - determine objectives of solution
   - ascertain constraints
   - develop solution in principle
   - obtain approval of relevant authori-ties to solution in principle
   - design solution in detail

3. **Presentation** when the solution is explained through written and oral media to those, who will implement it.
4. Installation and Follow-up. (Installation may begin on a pilot scale and the final installation will be on the findings of an evaluation of experience).

IX. SYSTEM ANALYSIS AND DESIGN

26. Systems analysis is the examination, in detail, of the functions, routines, procedures, and methods which go to make up a system so as to learn enough about a system—(Equipment, personnel, operating conditions and demands met)—and to establish the foundation for designing and implementing a better system, if feasible to do so. Systems Analysis has as its objective systems improvement—not necessarily automation. Its main aim is to establish a balance between speed, cost and quality.

27. Systems Analysis, too, begins by defining the problem. But the main difference is that it takes into consideration all interrelated, interdependent and interacting components of a system together and examines all aspects starting from the objectives themselves. Systems Analysis usually examines problems where the output of the system is not in keeping with its objectives. The discrepancy is to be explained by three possible causes:

(a) Inputs are not correct while the process is adequate.
(b) If inputs are correct, something is wrong with the process.
(c) If inputs and the process are both correct, the objectives need revision.

Systems Analysis operates on the principle that alternatives exist in relation to Inputs, Outputs, Processes and Objectives. The aim is to select the optimum combination of such alternatives.

28. System analysis is becoming increasingly popular. One of the well-known examples of the application of system analysis to education is the study made in Indonesia in 1971-72 by a team of international experts.

29. The application of the fundamental principles of system analysis to any complicated problem is also known as the systems approach. The main idea here is to identify a problem clearly, examine it from all important angles, and then to formulate an integrated set of related actions necessary to solve it. Systems approach is widely recognized as a useful technique in educational planning, curriculum development and teacher education.

.../
X. CONCLUSION

30. Each of these three techniques, briefly introduced in the foregoing pages, as well as other management techniques demands specialized training and experience. In fact, each technique is practised by specialists who can be engaged for solving a problem just as one engages an architect to design a building.

31. What an educational planner or administrator should be able to do is to determine how sophisticated a technique would be justified in terms of the magnitude, urgency and importance of the problem in hand. At the same time, he would benefit by (a) learning to handle information and (b) adopting the application of the scientific method as well as the basic principles of these techniques in his day-to-day problem-solving functions.
VI
HUMAN RELATIONS - COMMUNICATION

I. INTRODUCTION

1. So far, we addressed our minds to certain conceptual and technical aspects of management. Now we shall return to our basic concern, namely, the involvement of people in implementing our plans to achieve our objectives. We shall consider two of the major factors which contribute to good human relations in an organization and consequently to enhanced effectiveness: (i) communication, and (ii) motivation.

WHY DO WE EMPHASIZE HUMAN RELATIONS IN MANAGEMENT?

II. HUMAN RELATIONS MOVEMENT

2. When the Human Relations movement began in management about four decades ago, it defined an organization as "a social system, a system of cliques, grapevines, informal status systems, rituals and a mixture of logical, non-logical and illogical behaviour". It emphasized the need to improve the relationships among organizational members through an understanding of the human nature, the individual's social and psychological needs and the role of informal relationships. Its main doctrine is that people work better if they are treated as human beings. The principles expounded by it are nothing but simple and obvious rules of interpersonal relationships.

WHAT RELEVANCE HAS HUMAN RELATIONS TO EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT?

3. Human relations play a prominent role in educational administration. Education, as already emphasized, is the most human of the vast enterprises organized by man. The crux of education is an infinitely significant interaction that takes place between the teacher and the learner. Equally important are the relationships between the administrator on one side and the teacher and the learner on the other.

Education is also characterized by the intellectual capacity of the persons constituting the categories of teachers, learners and administrators. Their ability to be effective collaborators of a team is greater than in many other large enterprises.

IF SO, DO EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS RECOGNIZE IT?

Yes - see yellow frame 34.
No - see green frame 34.
4. But emphasis on human relations creates its own problems as were experienced by industrial organizations after the human relations movement. Educational enterprises and industrial agencies are in many respects similar. As in industrial production, after the Human Relations movement, educational enterprises are showing eagerness to establish a balance between

(i) the organization and its members
(ii) organizational objectives and individual goals and aspirations
(iii) output and the people.

5. A people-oriented management which is aware of the interests of the people concerned as well as the need to maintain the highest possible output is the ideal towards which most educational administrators would wish to progress. This is evident in the types of motivational forces which are being recognized and used. The older notions of reward and punishment (i.e. the carrot and the stick methods) are being replaced by a system of motivation which accepts the diversity of human needs, particularly in relation to social, egoistic and self-actualization needs.

6. These developments in Human Relations also have their impact on communication. An educational administrator has to acquire skills in both oral and written communication.

III. WHAT IS COMMUNICATION?

7. "Communication" is a dynamic process by which someone, who has a purpose to accomplish, tries to get someone else to do something for the achievement of that purpose.

8. Primarily, communication is a purposeful act and as such its success or failure is to be judged in relation to the purpose itself. When we try to convey our thoughts, ideas, intentions, opinions, desires etc. to another person, we use such a wide variety of means such as the spoken word, printed word, graphs and pictorial representations, facial expressions, bodily movements, gestures, actions etc., etc. The purposeful use of all these means becomes very important in an organization because people act on the basis of communications received.

HOW IMPORTANT IS COMMUNICATION IN AN ORGANIZATION?

9. In any organization, the executives performing management functions spend as much as 90% of their time in

(i) receiving
(ii) interpreting and
(iii) issuing communications. Communications form the cohesive bond among organizational members and as such they provide an energizing function in an organization.

Contd. on p. 61
10. In the daily mail, incoming telephone calls, interviews and meetings, the manager is receiving all kinds of communications which have arisen from a purpose which someone feels is important to accomplish.

11. When he plans and organizes his actions and make decisions he interprets the communications, received by him, with reference to objectives he has to attain for the organization. Then he begins to issue communications in the form of oral and written messages, telephone calls, letters, addresses at staff meetings, etc. The inseparability of communication from decision-making, which pervades all aspects of the management process makes the study of communication theory extremely important.

IV. COMMUNICATION THEORY

12. Communication theory, as a discipline, attempts to study the nature and problems of communication. It involves the study of

- Semantics,
- the process and problems of abstracting,
- the symbolic nature of words,
- the distortion of reality in language, and
- confusion of meanings caused by various factors like limitations of language and backgrounds in experience and environment of the persons communicating to each other.

ONE OF THE ROOT CAUSES OF ALMOST ALL CONFLICTS AND MISUNDERSTANDINGS AMONG PEOPLE IS THE PROBLEM OF CONVEYING TO ANOTHER PERSON EXACTLY WHAT ONE WANTS TO CONVEY.

13. If you are to analyse most of these conflicts, you are bound to find that sooner or later all contending parties begin to protest that others have not understood the "proper meaning" of what had been said or written or the "proper context" in which the communication in question was made. But, often, neither the problem of meaning or context is associated with language. It is more often than not a difficulty with deeper psychological implications.

LET US CONSIDER AN EXAMPLE.

Contd. on p. 62
THE PRINCIPAL, WHO ANNOUNCED IN THE ASSEMBLY THAT THE SCHOOL SHOULD BE GRATEFUL FOR MR. X FOR THE RESOUNDING SUCCESS OF THE BADMINTON TEAM OVER THE WEEK-END, COULD NOT UNDERSTAND THE REASONS FOR THE ANNOYANCE OF MR. Y WHICH FOUND EXPRESSION IN A SERIES OF MINOR BUT STILL NOTICEABLE ACTS OF PROTEST. WHEN MATTERS BECAME SERIOUS AND THE PRINCIPAL CONFRONTED MR. Y, BOTH ENTERED INTO A SERIES OF PROTESTATIONS IN WHICH EACH PLEADS "PROPER MEANING" AND "PROPER CONTEXT". THE WORDS SPOKEN BY THE PRINCIPAL WERE ANALYSED AND ONE HARDLY SAW A REASON FOR A DISPUTE. BUT WHAT WORDS DID NOT RECORD MORE IMPORTANT. THE PRINCIPAL MADE INQUIRIES FROM THOSE TEACHERS WHO KNEW HIM AND MR. Y WELL. ONE OF THEM VENTURED TO SAY, "IT MUST HAVE BEEN YOUR TONE, SIR YOU SOUNDED A LITTLE CYNICAL." ANOTHER SAID, "IT MUST BE THE SLY LOOK YOU GAVE MR. Y. YOU WERE ALMOST ASKING MR. Y, "YOU SEE, YOU NEVER BELIEVED MR. X COULD MAKE IT?" A THIRD TEACHER SAID, "IT WAS REALLY THE NOD YOU GAVE MR. Y. IT WAS LIKE ASKING HIM "HOW DO YOU FEEL, OUR PROPHET OF DOOM?"

Are non-verbal communications as important as this story makes out?

- Yes - see yellow frame 35.
- No - see green frame 35.
14. Communication theory distinguishes between

(i) Communications in formal organizations and

(ii) Communications in informal organizations.

In a formal organization, communications are governed by relationships imposed by the authority and power structure, accountability and the organizational ritual of channels, precedence and "pecking order". Information flows in certain determined and limited patterns through the organization. The patterns are determined by roles assigned to each person and the organization chart which, while showing the paths of authority, power, responsibility and accountability, indicates also the formal communication network of the organization.

15. The existence of an equally important - and sometimes, even more effective - system of informal communications within organizations has to be recognized. The "grapevine", instead of being discouraged, is viewed by management specialists as a very desirable feature in any organization and is called "automatic horizontal communication".

WHY ARE INFORMAL COMMUNICATIONS REGARDED AS MORE EFFECTIVE THAN FORMAL COMMUNICATIONS?

16. Because of at least four reasons.

(i) expediting decision-making by enabling those who need information to get it from where it is available without going through the hierarchical channels;

(ii) providing a means of pre-testing a decision and improving the accuracy of a decision (Visualize a Principal using the 'grapevine' to find out possible reactions of teachers and pupils to an intended increase in working hours of the school);

(iii) involving in the decision-making process a larger number of persons than formal channels permit, and

(iv) finding quicker and more effective solutions to problems by utilizing the inherent speed and flexibility of the informal communication networks.

WHY SHOULD ALL FORMS OF COMMUNICATION BE UTILIZED IN AN ORGANIZATION?

Contd. on p. 64
Because, as Herbert G. Hicks emphasizes, "Members of Organizations bring with them a complex package of roles, expectations, feelings, norms, prejudices, values and so on. To expect them to lay these aside in organizational communication is naive, for they cannot lay these factors aside in any behaviour. However, understanding the fundamental concepts of communication will increase the probability of adequate communication among organizational members. And better communication will always lead to more effective accomplishment of organizational goals."
20. Yes. If the communication is oral, there are further requirements such as being able to
- pronounce clearly and accurately,
- to use the correct diction, inflection,
- to make appropriate facial expressions and gestures,
- to use the effect of voice modulation to emphasize meaning and to detect reactions of comprehension, doubt, confusion, agreement or disagreement in the exclamations, expressions and gestures of the listener.

WHAT OF WRITTEN COMMUNICATION? WHAT SPECIAL SKILLS DOES ONE NEED?

21. Encoding in writing is a more difficult task and calls for several special skills. To write clearly with the least room left for misunderstanding, one has to develop an insight into the language usages and the comprehension levels of the party to whom the communication is meant.

Example: A Principal addressing the school assembly on student discipline is performing an easier function because his audience is his sounding board; he reads faces and accordingly re-phrases or paraphrases what he says; he further uses his voice and gestures to clarify, emphasize and sustain interest. He has no such advantage when he drafts a circular on the same subject. To get the cold word on paper to generate meaning, clarity, interest and motivation, a greater mastery over expression is required.

WHAT CAUSES MOST OF THE DIFFICULTIES IN COMMUNICATION?

22. It is the experience in most organizations that many of the delays, mistakes and organizational failures have resulted from difficulties inherent in written communications.

23. For effective communication, eye-ball to eye-ball confrontation still remains the most efficacious, and the telephone providing two way communication of reactions and advantage of voice modulation, comes a close second.

WHAT HAS BEEN DISCUSSED SO FAR ARE PRIMARILY LINGUISTIC SKILLS. ARE THERE OTHER SKILLS WHICH ARE EQUALLY IMPORTANT?
24. There are at least three. They relate to
   1. non-disclosure of unhelpful attitudes
   2. width and variety of knowledge
   3. grasp of socio-cultural peculiarities and variations in different environments.

Let us explain each of these.

25. **Non-disclosure of unhelpful attitudes**: We encode our messages not only to convey what we intend to be done but also how we feel towards their receiver. Unless we are conscious of this, our attitudes get reflected in our speeches and writings. If we feel superior to the receiver of our message, our attitude gets reflected in an unconscious mood of "talking down". Similarly, our feelings of inferiority can result in stage-fright, fumbling and even stammering. In writing, our attitudes can be reflected in the kind of words and expressions we choose.

   **TWO SCHOOL SUPERVISORS WISHED TO DISCUSS SOME IMPORTANT MATTERS WITH THE REGIONAL DIRECTOR AND WROTE FOR APPOINTMENTS.** MR. X RECEIVED A NOTE SAYING, "I SHOULD CERTAINLY LIKE TO SEE YOU IN MY OFFICE WHENEVER YOU ARE FREE." MR. Y RECEIVED A NOTE SAYING "YOU MAY SEE ME WHENEVER YOU FIND ME FREE". MR. Y WAS VERY ANGRY. HIS COMMENT WAS, "I KNEW THE REGIONAL DIRECTOR DID NOT LIKE ME VERY MUCH. NOW I HAVE PROOF."

   Is Mr. Y's conclusion correct?
   - No - see yellow frame 36.
   - Yes - see green frame 36.

26. A manager cannot afford to disclose his attitudes towards his team members - specially the unfavourable ones - without harming the organization in some way or other.

27. A control over one's feelings becomes important. But it does not mean the adoption of a cold expressionless officialese jargon as a mask. What is needed is the development of a positive attitude of being nice to people even when the task you perform is unpleasant.

29. Every time a message is encoded, it is desirable to weigh it from the point of view of "How will I feel if I were to receive this message?" This helps to develop a receiver-oriented techniques of encoding.
The width and variety of knowledge: The clarity, purposefulness and completeness of a message is governed by the amount of information one has on a subject.

The more one knows of a subject, clearer one's thoughts and intentions. Communications are most effective when one's knowledge of the subject, the medium of the message and the background of the receiver is at its highest. This again is an acquireable skill.

Grasp of socio-cultural peculiarities and variations in different environments: The grasp of socio-cultural variations of the environments of the originator and the receiver of a message helps to avoid many "pit falls" of communication. Words do not mean the same even in the same language:

Example: "Homely" is an admirable epithet to a girl in India while in U.S.A. it is an unpardonable insult. One may call his boss by his first name in one culture. In another, it will be regarded as an affront and dealt with quite nastily.

But is this not a matter of language skills?

Yes, but only partly so, because the socio-cultural variations go beyond differences of meanings of words. They relate to a variety of things like recognized forms of address, greeting, the degree of informality, the interest shown in the out-of-office life of the person concerned, the willingness to extend the work-a-day relationship to a personal friendship involving also one's family, the stratification of society and the hierarchical notions and rituals of the organization. One learns to avoid, "treading on other's corns" by knowing as much of these variations.

What about "decoding" skills?

These same skills are required for decoding, that is, comprehending a message as it is intended to be comprehended. Linguistic and literacy skills besides the knowledge of the subject, medium and the source and grasp of socio-cultural differences minimize the chances of misinterpretation, hard feeling and resulting confusion or non-cooperation.

All these make communication a very serious matter in management. Bigger an organization, more complex the task.
VI. CONCLUSION

34. Communication as a function going hand-in-hand with decision-making and thus permeating all stages of MP is vital to good management. Its importance is best expressed in the words of Morris E. Massey who says "To be a manager is to be a Communicator - the person and the function are inextricably interwoven."
I. INTRODUCTION

Motivation is an essential element of the function of Direction.

A study of motivation is most important because:

(i) More often than not, managers forget this important aspect of Direction and feel that their function is with commanding and/or leading.

(ii) In democratically oriented and intellectually based organizations like an educational system, what is more effective in achieving goals is motivation rather than ordering people about.

(iii) In the emerging concept of management as the means of creating, innovating and changing, the task of getting others to accept change becomes a fundamental obligation and motivation is an essential methodology to accomplish it.

II. WHAT IS MOTIVATION?

Motivation may be defined as the discovery and the utilization of the stimuli that would bring the desired behaviour pattern in a particular individual:

Example: You want a group of children to develop a particular behaviour pattern like using the leisure hours in profitable reading. According to older concepts of both management and education this was achievable through a command or order. If there was a doubt that this command or order would not be carried out, a punishment was threatened. Further, to show that the originator of the command "means business" several defaulters were punished and held out to others as a deterrent. Very soon everyone was reading. Even if they did not, they were anxious to show you that they had taken a liking to it. Some were doing it under pressure and were waiting for the first opportunity to throw all their books out of the window.

WHAT WAS THE STIMULUS USED?

- Readiness to obey - see yellow frame 37.
- Fear of punishment - see green frame 37.

.../
4. The stimulus, exploited in this case is the fear of punishment, about the most primitive motivating factor.

5. The child who does his homework for fear of being castigated in class, the teacher who comes on time for fear of the Principal's rebuke, the Principal who replies promptly all letters of his superior for fear of getting a "stinker" or the Office Superintendent who manages school funds honestly for fear of losing his job are all motivated by the same stimulus. Many people believe in it still as an efficacious motivation factor. But this kind of motivation, called the "stick approach" is negative.

6. It operates on the basis of "anxiety-production". People may act under anxiety to avoid being reprimanded, punished or dismissed, but they do not give their best to the organization. In any case, no one creates or produces quality work when motivated by fear.

IF FEAR OF PUNISHMENT IS NOT A PROPER MOTIVATIONAL FACTOR, WHAT ELSE MAY ONE ADOPT?

7. On the other hand, one may adopt the "carrot approach" using the desire to be rewarded as the stimulus.

Example: The child who does his homework neatly and regularly to enjoy the pleasure of being praised in class, the teacher who works diligently to get himself recommended for a promotion and the Principal who spurs his staff to work harder to see his school topping the list in National Higher Secondary Examination results are all motivated by a reward.

Rewarding is a positive motivation factor and its advantage is that it is "anxiety-reducing" and hence conducive to innovative work.

WHAT ABOUT MONEY AS A MOTIVATIONAL FACTOR?

8. The main reward which most working situations applied as a stimulus was money. "More pay better work" had been a popular slogan. In fact, systems like "piece-work" and certain other types of incentives had worked on this principle. But soon it was found to have serious limitations:

Contd. on p. 71
(a) Rewarding good work with money could not be carried on beyond a certain point in any organization. So the moment this stimulus could not be provided, the worker lapsed into indifference and lethargy.

(b) Money is not the only "want" of a human being. There are many other needs, wants and personal goals which money cannot satisfy. So money, by itself is a limited stimulus. There is a point at which money ceases to spur a person to better work.

WHAT HAS THE REALIZATION OF THE LIMITATIONS OF FEAR, REWARD AND MONEY AS MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS LED TO?

III. RESEARCH INTO MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS

9. The recognition of the limitations of fear and money as stimuli to initiate and sustain the desired behaviour pattern, and the conviction that motivation is an inseparable function of the management process resulted in researches leading to:

(a) a better understanding of human behaviour by discovering what actually were the wants, needs and personal goals of individuals;

(b) discoveries of stimuli, so far not used, to initiate and sustain the kind of behaviour required to achieve organizational objectives.

WANTS-OBJECTIVES-BEHAVIOUR CHAIN

10. Studies into human behaviour drew attention to the existence of a wants-objectives-behaviour chain. Every individual has wants and his objectives are the ends which provide the satisfaction of these wants. His behaviour is conditioned by his wants and objectives. But there are no universal rules applicable to all persons.

11. The wants of individuals vary according to environment, knowledge, perception, social norms, attitudes and psychological defence mechanisms.

ON WHAT DO OBJECTIVES DEPEND?
12. Objectives depend on four factors, namely:

(i) the cultural norms and values that are instilled in him as he is maturing,

(ii) his inherited biological capacities - mental and physical,

(iii) his backlog of personal experience and learning influences, and

(iv) mobility in his physical and social environment.

13. Subject to all these factors, the wants-objectives-behaviour chain operates, and a better understanding of its influence on individual's working life is an essential qualification for a manager, who has to motivate others to work efficiently in a manner beneficial to the organization.

Maslow's Theory of Need Hierarchy

14. A significant contribution to our body of knowledge on the subject is the Theory of Human Motivation propounded by A.H. Maslow. Maslow's theory is founded on a series of propositions which are of general (and not specific) applicability:

(i) Man is a wanting being - he always wants and he wants more.

(ii) A satisfied need is not a motivator of behaviour.

(iii) Man's needs are arranged in a series of levels - a hierarchy of importance.

WHAT SORT OF A HIERARCHY OF NEEDS HAS MASLOW DEVELOPED?

15. Maslow spelled out a hierarchy of needs having general applicability (which of course allows for individual variations) in the following manner :

(i) Physiological needs - the basic needs of food, drink, rest, sleep, etc.

(ii) Safety needs - the need for protection from physical danger and for economic security and "the desire for an orderly predictable world".

(iii) Social needs - the need to belong to, associate with, and gain acceptance from one's fellows and to give and receive affection and friendship.

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(iv) **Esteem or Egoistic needs** - self-esteem needs for self-confidence, achievement, competence, knowledge, self-respect, independence and freedom, reputation, esteem from others, status, recognition, importance, appreciation, deserved respect of fellows, etc.

(v) **Self-realization or self-actualization needs** - needs for realizing one's own potentials, self-fulfillment, continued self-development and for being creative in the broadest sense of the term.

**DOES THIS PRESENT ITSELF IN IDENTICAL ORDER TO EVERYBODY?**

16. This hierarchy of needs ranging from "belly to brain" does not present itself in identical order to everyone. Various factors affect the manner in which these needs condition the objectives and finally the behaviour of different individuals.

17. We may illustrate the operation of the hierarchy of needs in relation to two concrete cases:

**Example (a)**: Mr. A., a teacher of fairly independent means - a pillar of the community - finds his physiological, safety and social needs fairly well satisfied. So according to Maslow's second proposition a satisfied need cannot be a motivator. What will motivate him towards better work? His esteem or egoistic needs may urge him to crave for recognition as the best teacher in the school. He may want to establish a reputation, find his name and picture in publications, see himself honoured, bemedalled, and eulogised. Imagine his performance continuing to be on upward movement for several years. He may find these needs satisfied. Then all he needs will be opportunities for not merely performing at his highest best but as a policy-maker, decision-maker, innovators and so forth. It is at this point that his self-actualization needs begin to influence his objectives and subsequently his behaviour.

**Example (b)**: Mr. B., a temporary office clerk, finds his salary barely adequate to buy his food and clothing and to rent a little hovel of a house. The foremost in his mind are physiological needs of a better house, better food, more clothing, etc. Along with that go his safety needs to see that his appointment is made permanent. More money for physiological needs and promise or prospect of tenure will serve as effective motivators. But the day he feels that these are satisfied, the rest of the needs will come to the fore. ...
18. The manager's function with this knowledge of human behavior, is to identify the needs of every organizational member and use the appropriate stimulus as a motivator. Equally important for the understanding of a manager's role in relation to the motivation of his subordinates are the Theory X and Theory Y as developed by Douglas McGregor.

WHAT ARE THE BASIC ASSUMPTIONS OF THEORY X AND THEORY Y?

THEORY X AND THEORY Y

19. The basic assumptions of Theory X are:

(a) The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can.

(b) Because of the human characteristic of dislike of work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives.

(c) The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, wants security above all.

This theory is not only an extremist point of view but also a totally unacceptable set of assumptions about human beings.

WHAT IS THEORY Y?

Theory Y states -

(a) The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest. The average human being does not inherently dislike work. Depending upon controllable conditions, work may be a source of satisfaction (and will be voluntarily performed) or a source of punishment (and will be avoided, if possible).

(b) External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about effort toward organizational objectives. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed.

(c) Commitment to objectives is a result of the reward associated with their achievement. The most significant of such rewards, e.g. the satisfaction of ego and self-actualization needs, can be direct products of effort directed toward organizational objectives.

Contd. on p. 75
(d) The average human being learns, under proper
conditions not only to accept but to seek respon-
sibility. Avoidance of responsibility, lack of
ambition, and emphasis on security are generally
consequences of experience, not inherent human
characteristics.

(e) The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree
of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the
solution of organizational problems is widely,
not narrowly, distributed in the population.

(f) Under conditions of modern industrial life, the
intellectual potentialities of the average human
being are only partially utilized.

Which of these two theories accords better with your own experience
of handling juniors and colleagues?

WHAT MORE THEORIES HAVE WE GOT RELATING TO MOTIVATION?
HUMAN RELATIONS APPROACH

20. To this body of knowledge were also added the findings of those who advocated the Human Relations approach to Management. The principles they expounded were like the following:

(a) People like to feel important and to feel that they are doing important work.
(b) They are more interested in the size of their pay packets relative to those of others than in the absolute amounts of pay.
(c) They want to be treated well by their supervisors, to be praised rather than blamed and not to have to admit their mistakes -- at least not publicly.
(d) They like to know whether they are meeting expectations -- how well they are doing.
(e) They like to be listened to, consulted about changes that will affect them or at least warned of changes before they take place.

IS THIS NOT SIMILAR TO UTILIZING THE ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVE OF PEOPLE?

21. Yes, it is. Similar points have been emphasized by those who emphasized the importance of utilizing the achievement motive of people. They suggest the following:

(a) Place more responsibility on employees.
(b) Allow genuine participation (i.e., consultative supervision).
(c) Ensure that each employee can see the results of his efforts.
(d) Enable each employee to get a feeling of satisfaction in his work.

So far we have taken note of the contributions made to our knowledge of how people are motivated.

HOW WOULD A MANAGER PROCEED TO STIMULATE OTHERS TO IMPROVED PERFORMANCE?
IV. PRACTICAL APPLICATION IN MANAGEMENT

22. Management Science identifies three major steps to stimulate improved performance:

(a) Define acceptable boundaries for actions of different levels of employees,
(b) Grant them the freedom to act within these boundaries;
and (c) Supervise by results.

23. To accomplish these steps, several conditions have to be fulfilled, namely:

1) Adopting a realistic attitude.
2) Having a comprehensive system of rules of discipline.
3) Maintaining an adequate system of communication.
4) Developing an objective follow-up pattern.
5) Maintaining a sound organizational atmosphere.

24. The manager has to adopt a realistic attitude towards the employees. It is here that our knowledge of the human nature - as enunciated in the theory of a hierarchy of needs and Theories X and Y - are helpful. The Manager's attitude towards the employees has to be in keeping with changing times. A realistic attitude recognizes a basic factor - people want to be treated as human beings and accorded minimum respect and courtesies no matter what their position in working life is.

25. The Organization should have a comprehensive system of rules of discipline. An organization cannot function efficiently if its members are at cross-purposes and their efforts are random and undirected. People want to know what the rules of the game are and also that the game is fair. The employees have to know when they should be at work, what they can do, and what they cannot do. Equally important is to ensure that the rules whether of procedure or discipline are purposeful and designed only for more efficient and effective achievement of the objectives of the organizations. Rules which are meaningless, erratic and give the impression of being used to repress, subdue or eliminate basic freedom, can be as harmful to an organization as the feeling that rules are administered without due impartiality and objectivity.

.../
26. The organization must maintain an adequate system of communication. Information, news and even rumours must flow through the system freely. Secrecy - other than where it is justifiable, say, in the case of question papers or matters of high policy - begets suspicion and results in imputing motives. "Inner Cabinets" of managers acting as custodians of information and decisions, can be a major factor in the growth of antagonism in "less privileged" circles, leading ultimately to the development of "cliques" working against organizational objectives. Communication does not mean that employees only should know what and why the manager decides. It includes also the very significant need for the manager to know what the employees think about what he does.

27. The organization should have an objective follow-up pattern through which the performance of its members is supervised by results. This method of supervision is identical with what we have already discussed as Management by Objective. For instance, the function of educational or academic supervision is as much a management function - even though most educationalists would immediately protest when they are told so - as a foreman supervising the quality of articles turned out by a worker. The esteem or egoistic needs of a teacher determine the boundaries of the function of academic supervision. A worker worried with only his physiological and safety needs may not worry if the supervisor keeps on shouting at him all the time. But the teacher's needs are different and his sense of self-respect, his desire to be honoured and accepted by his pupils and colleagues determine that a more subtle approach is needed for his supervision. It is here, that supervision by results has a greater role to play. A practical difficulty - apart from the motivational requirements - indicates the need for this kind of supervision: it is becoming almost impossible to find a supervisor who can competently supervise even one-third of the subject-areas of a school.

28. The most important condition to be fulfilled is the maintenance of a sound organizational atmosphere. The interdependence of the different levels of managers, administrators, supervisors, office staff and other employees within the organization and the community outside has not only to be recognized but every effort has to be made to ensure that each plays his legitimate role for the betterment of the organization. The secret of creating and maintaining the kind of organizational climate conducive to motivation lies in three simple but extremely important steps:

1. Relaxing top-to-bottom pressure to conform;
2. Providing more opportunities for unrestrained organizational performance; and
3. Resorting to principles of participative management to the maximum possible degree.

All these contribute to the maintenance of the morale of the organizational members and that is a fundamental duty of the manager.
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Contd. on p. 80


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1. Yes. You are fully correct. The human element is as important as (or even more important than) technical perfection in planning and plan elaboration. Proceed to next question.

2. You are not quite correct. Because elections and democratic decision-making processes are only procedures which some nations or organizations have adopted for this purpose. - See Yellow frame 2.

3. Yes. It is MANAGEMENT. What does it really mean? If you look for its meaning in a standard dictionary like the Oxford Concise Dictionary, you will be quite surprised that the meaning in which we use it is not even recorded other than indirectly. The Oxford Dictionary defines Management as "trickery, deceitful contrivance"; the verb, to manage, is given the following meanings: "conduct (undertaking etc.), control (household, institution, State) ..... gain one's ends with (person etc.), by flattery, dictation etc.; ..... succeed in one's aim (often with inadequate material etc.); make proper use of." Management, as the name of the process by which we change other's behaviour to achieve our objective, is quite a new word. So it demands a definition. - Proceed to p. 3.

4. You are wrong. When I write the text-books myself I do not function as a manager. I am only an individual worker. I become a manager only when I involve others in achieving my organizational objective. Proceed to Yellow frame 4.

5. You are correct. Management Process has progressively become a human operation in which collective acceptance of organizational objectives is a crucial characteristic. In such a situation the manager becomes more and more "the first among equals" (Primus inter pares) - Proceed to next question on page 4.
6. Not quite so. PODC is a simplified form of analysis because these four elements are present in every single management activity - Proceed to page 5.

7. You are right. Even a very simple operation like getting a report ready involves all stages of the Management Process:

- Planning - when you decided what to do and how
- Organization - when the work was distributed, persons identified and responsibilities assigned
- Direction - when instructions were issued
- Control - when deadline was specified and a meeting with the coordinator fixed.

In every operation - however brief in terms of time - all these stages are discernible.

Each of these stages consists of a number of basic components which are common to all of them. One may describe them as underlying all stages of the Management Process.

Proceed to page 7.

8. You are correct. Your statistician has not given you information on the subject; he has only given data. This is a major problem in management. There is no dearth of data. But information - good, reliable information - is very rare. To generate information the manager must take special steps.

- Proceed to page 8.

9. You are wrong. The two types of reports do not fall into the same category. The report on schools the Engineer visits is an ad hoc report. So it is an Informal Feedback. The Monthly Report, on the other hand, is a Formal Feedback.

- Proceed to page 9.
10. You are a poor supplier of information your donor will be very displeased. Besides, you have failed to make the best use of the donation. See yellow frame 10.

11. It depends on whether you wish to accept PODC as an adequate description of the Management Process. One would argue that creating in the sense of innovation extends to every stage of management. Proceed to page 12.

12. You should read pages 10-12 again. You will find that the process adopted is quite a systematic planning exercise. Proceed to page 13.

13. You are not quite correct. It is not a thing. Here we are concerned with the function or the process of arranging tasks, defining relationships, etc. The outcome of this function is the thing which we call an Organization. But we are not concerned, at this stage, with another function of management, which may be referred to as Organization-building. Read also Yellow frame 13.

14. You are correct. This principal has attended to all aspects of organization - division of labour, allotting workloads, establishing lines of authority and ensuring coordination. Proceed to page 14.

15. While the set of jobs we have evolved in para 9 does not constitute an organizational structure, we are now closer to determining one. Proceed to para 10 on page 17.
16. You are correct. These lines also represent the lines of vertical communication and the flow of accountability. Proceed to page 18.

17. You are right because this implicit mechanism of coordination can be supplemented by formal arrangements:

**Example:** The project in our example may have a **coordinating Committee** consisting of the specialist in C.D. and Unit heads. Rules may provide for its periodical meetings and functions.

Proceed to page 20.

18. You are wrong. There is a distinction. Efficiency is "internal" while effectiveness is "external". Proceed to para 20 on page 21.

19. Yes. But these measure efficiency in the management sense. There is a concept of efficiency in economics too. This relates to the use of resources to achieve the objectives with minimum waste. In a school we measure the degree of internal efficiency in terms of stagnation (repeaters) and wastage (drop-outs) - Proceed to next question on page 22.

20. This would be correct only if producing first class passes in public examinations was the only objective of this school. - Read Yellow frame 20.
21. This is good. You are evaluating the organization from the point of view of consumer satisfaction. But this is only partial. 
   - Read Yellow frame 21.

22. You are correct. Proceed to page 24.

23. Your assessment is correct. But remember that the other officer was adopting an equally valid management principle of management by exception. See Yellow frame 23.


25. Control is expensive. Hence optimum control has to be achieved by identifying only the critical, key or limiting points in the activities of an organization. Greater control is not necessarily achieved from having controls at a greater number of points.

   Controls should fit the organization. Self-control or self-policing of each unit of an organization has greater effectiveness than external controls. Proceed to page 33.

26. You are correct. Proceed to page 36.

27. Read para 8 again. Also read Yellow frame 27.

28. You are correct. The planner has only made routine decisions on the basis of "business as usual". This is not very satisfactory in a field like education. Proceed to page 41.
29. Precisely. If Regional Director X did as good a job as Regional Director Y, so much effort, trouble and time could have been saved. Proceed to para 13 on page 42.

30. You are far too cautious. You do not want to take any risk. - Proceed to page 45.

31. Reads paras 11 and 12 and also the question again. If you now feel that the M.P.'s criticism is valid, proceed to Yellow frame 31.

32. No manager is going to ask for a postponement of a government decision unless he just has no way of complying with it. The Director, being innovative and resourceful, had adopted the best possible. He has done well. Proceed to para 15 on page 52.

33. The O & M Inspector is quite correct. It is possible that the methods adopted in the unit need overhauling. Wherever a norm is consistently exceeded, one has to review the methods first and then measure the working speed of staff members. Proceed to para 24 on page 55.

34. Your answer is apparently indicative of the situation in your country. Read Yellow frame 34. Do you still find that your answer to this question is "no." If it is so, this should be noted as a special problem for attention. Proceed to page 60.
35. You are in for a real surprise. We communicate non-verbally in a far more effective a manner than verbally. Proceed to page 63.

36. You are correct. A person need not be too sensitive to realize the tone difference in the two replies. Proceed to para 26 on page 66.

37. You are right. Proceed to page 70.
1. Yes, it is only partially true. But your answer is also only partially correct. Technical perfection, by itself, is one of the ingredients for successful implementation of plans, but only one. Proceed to next question.

2. You are correct.

In the division of labour which human society has evolved, people have set up institutions to deal with the needs of society. One such institution is the hierarchy of goal-setters which are established for every purpose. On every occasion that a man has to act not individually but in collaboration with one or more others, he develops a hierarchy of goal-setters who assume the role of leadership.

Examples: Imagine a group of primitive hunters trying to ensnare an animal or descend down a cliff to collect bee's honey. Visualize a group of children in a play-ground trying to amuse themselves.

It is the same process which has been formalized into legislative, executive, judicial and such other institutions of human society. Each institution and the human beings constituting it form a hierarchy of goal-setters who lead the society towards its commonly accepted (or acquiesced) objectives.

HOW DOES SOCIETY ENSURE THAT THE LEADERSHIP GIVEN BY GOAL-SETTERS IS FOLLOWED BY OTHERS?
- Proceed to page 2.

3. No. This would not be a full answer. Human relations and motivation are components of a wider function which we call management - See Green frame 3.
4. You are correct. I am not a manager when I write the textbooks myself. But if I were obtaining the cooperation, participation, intervention and involvement of others in the process, I become a manager. When I do that, I plan in advance what each of my colleagues have to do, divide work among them, give them guidance and instructions, obtain and provide all personnel and material support they need, watch over the progress, solve problems etc. etc. When I do these functions I am a manager; and what I do is MANAGEMENT.
- Proceed to page 4.

5. No quite so. It is true that commanding has a military connotation which is less favoured in the management of civil institutions and operations - See Green frame 5.

6. You are correct. PODC has this special advantage.
- Proceed to page 5.

7. You are incorrect and you have apparently missed something in our discussion up to this point. So, go back to page 5. With the question in mind, read carefully para 13(a), (b), (c) and (d). Then proceed to Green frame 7.

8. You are wrong. Information is selected data. What your statistician has done instead is to give you a whole heap of data he has in his hands. He certainly has no information on the subject. Read page 7 again - Proceed to Green frame 8.

10. You deserve to be congratulated on being methodical and thoughtful. - Proceed to page 10.

11. You seem to prefer the simplicity of PODC. But read Green frame 11 and proceed to page 12.

12. Yes. It has been quite a systematic planning exercise. - Proceed to page 13.

13. Yes. You are right it is a function. We are speaking of a function. But it is useful to bear in mind that the main outcome of this function is the thing which we call an Organization. - Proceed to para 2 page 13.

14. You are a bit too critical. Perhaps, you think that the principal should coordinate the work of the committees himself. But this is not correct. A good supervisor always does different work from that of his subordinates. - Proceed to page 14.

15. You are wrong. This is not an organizational structure. It is only a division of work among the personnel envisaged. To arrive at an organizational structure we have to go through a few more steps. So the answer to the question on page 16 is "no". - Proceed to para 10 on page 17.

16. Your answer is not right. These lines also represent the lines of vertical communication within the organization. They also show the flow of accountability which is generally upwards along the lines of authority. - Proceed to page 18.

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17. You are incorrect because this is not the only form of coordination. What we find here is an implicit mechanism for coordination. This can be supplemented by an explicit formal mechanism. - Proceed to Green frame 17.

18. You are right. Efficiency is internal while effectiveness is "external". - Proceed to para 20 on page 21.

19. No. You are not doing it adequately - Read Green frame 19.

20. This is the correct approach. But it has to be remembered that all objectives cannot be evaluated objectively. - Proceed to next question on page 22.

21. Yes. This is a comprehensive evaluation. You are looking into all three aspects of consumer satisfaction, adequacy of financial resources and management training. Proceed to page 23.

22. If you have read para 28 carefully, you will know that responsibility cannot be transferred. Proceed to page 24.

23. One would not say that he is the better officer. It is true that he follows the principle of management by exception. But in a repetitive task like cheque-writing, such frequent supervision could reduce the motivation and initiative of the clerks. Region B had adopted management by objective with more satisfactory results. - Proceed to page 26.
24. Control is not comparable to brakes. Nor is it comparable to the steering wheel. It is a combination of both. One uses it to slow down or stop as and when necessary. But most of the time it keeps the operations on the course.
   - Proceed to para 3 on page 31.

25. You are wrong. Firstly, it is simply impracticable. Secondly, such a stringent system of control is not necessary. Thirdly, such a system can lead to a slowing down of the operations of the organization. Read Green frame 25.

26. In a way you can say that both are decisions. But they are different. Read para 5 again. You will observe that (b) guides the Ministry to make future decisions. As such, it is a policy. Proceed to page 36.

27. It is correct to call the Minister's decision a strategy. It really consists of a battery of decisions: e.g. (i) a qualified teacher can get promoted if he consents to serve a minimum period in a rural school; (ii) a qualified teacher has to forego his promotion if he does not agree to the condition? Proceed to page 37.

28. Probably you think that the planner made innovative decisions when he projected the needs on past trends. He has not brought his mind to bear on new approaches and changes. As such he is only a routine decision-maker. Proceed to page 41.

29. Telephone system is hardly to be blamed. The telegram of the Regional Director X is a poor specimen of problem specification. Proceed to para 13 on page 42.
30. Yours is a reasonable appraisal of the situation. Proceed to page 45.

31. The Director of Education tried to solve the conflict by domination. The Secretary-General made it worse by attempting a compromise which kept both sides dissatisfied. The M.P.'s criticism is valid at least up to the point that they lacked competence in conflict-resolution. Proceed to para 13 on page 51.

32. You are right. The Director has shown initiative and resourcefulness in adopting the best possible course of action. Proceed to para 15 on page 52.

33. Yes. A Work Method and Measurement Study is indicated in this problem. Proceed to para 24 on page 55.

34. "Yes, to an increasing degree" would be a more correct answer than a straight "yes". The concept of Leadership has received considerable attention in circles of educational administrators. A transition from authoritative (whether autocratic or benevolent) to consultative and participative leadership styles is a recognition of the importance of Human Relations. Proceed to page 60.

35. You are right. Sometimes, non-verbal communications are more effective. Proceed to page 63.

36. Read the two replies carefully. Put yourself in the position of Mr. Y. You will notice that the Regional Director reveals his attitude towards Mr. Y. very emphatically. Proceed to para 26 on page 66.
37. There is no such stimulus as readiness to obey. One obeys out of such stimuli as respect for superior knowledge or wisdom or fear of punishment or eagerness for reward. Here it is clearly a case of fear of punishment. Proceed to page 70.