School Excellence

A Training Manual for Educational Management

UNESCO International Institute for Capacity Building in Africa

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Preface

In this Module, four different topics are discussed. Unit One is on school improvement. Unit Two discusses about school culture, school climate and values. Unit Three highlights the organizational structure of the school. The last unit is on management functions.

The Module aims to introduce you to most of the key concepts and some of the management skills and approaches that you will need for school improvement. It also contains practical suggestions and can serve as a handbook to principals, school supervisors as well as teacher trainers.

The aims and objectives for each unit show what you should know and be able to do after studying the topic. Therefore it would be wise to go back to the objectives and check whether or not the objectives are achieved after completing a unit.

Activities designed to get one’s reflection on the topic under discussion and/or to apply the content to a particular educational situation are also included in this Module.

In using this Module, you must keep in mind the fact that there are many ways to do a thing. Therefore, you are encouraged to study, argue and discuss each topic in group, internalize the contents, find out better ways of doing things, if there are any, and apply them to the objective conditions of your schools.

The Study Manual prepared by University of South Africa in 1996 was used as the main source for this Module. However, effort has been exerted to compile, extract and organize the main points from various pertinent materials in order to serve the expressed purpose.
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Unit 1
School Improvement

Aims and Objectives

After completing this unit, you will be able to:
- Outline the various sources of change
- Show that resistance to improvement can be expected in any organization
- Explain different approaches to school improvement
- Propose a strategy for school improvement

1.1. Concept of School Improvement

School improvement refers to a particular kind of change aimed at achieving better quality and/or increased effectiveness. It implies that a new and improved situation takes the place of a current situation. School improvement is a process for addressing real problems with the intention of resolving them.

Activity 1.1.
Comment on the statement: “All change does not necessarily lead to improvement”.
List five matters that you consider to be in need of urgent improvement in a primary school located in your area. Arrange the matters you mentioned in order of importance.

1.2. The Meaning and Sources of Change

Change refers to any alteration or variation in something between two points of time. The variation could be positive or negative. Change in the context of education then means that something has happened between time intervals in the structure of the school system, in any of its processes or in its goals or purposes. Change means alteration from ‘what was yesterday’ to ‘what it is today’.

Two sources of change may be identified - creative motive to change and deficit motives to change. Creative motive to change refers to a voluntary and self-imposed desire to change customary usages, to reduce the gap between the objectives of the system and present practices, to redefine problems, to recognize new problems and to create new ways of dealing with them. Deficit motives to change, on the other hand, would be occasioned by crisis, competition or conflict: student or teacher strikes, dissatisfaction of citizens or communities, internal conflicts between school administrators and teachers, shortages of teachers or facilities, ‘educational emergencies’, etc.

Activity 1.2.
Discuss how each of the following preconditions may predispose an educational system to change.
- increasing public concern for quality education,
- increasing interest in technological advances,
- emphasis on research and development,
- growth of the educational system itself,
- rising educational qualifications of parents and graduates,
- growing proportion of the gross national product devoted to education, etc.

1.3. Types and Degrees of Change

Nature of change may include a change in operating methods, in systems and procedures, structures and organizations and organizational philosophy. Generally there are four types of educational innovations or changes.

Technological change: Innovations mainly concerned with changes in course content and methods of instruction. This will include changes in the aims, evaluation, materials and internal organization of the teaching and learning process, and the application of technology in education. (Examples: new curricula, materials and teaching methods, audio-visual aids and educational television, examination systems, etc.).
Behavioral change: Innovations mainly concerned with or requiring changes in the behavior of teachers, students, administrators, parents, etc. (Examples: introduction of new discipline procedures, participatory management, classroom reorganization, team-teaching, etc.)

Organizational change: Innovations mainly concerned with the organization and administration of the educational institution/system. This includes changes in structure, in decision-making procedures, in administrative techniques, in human interaction roles. (Examples: new management procedures, techniques for administrative control, redefinition of administrative responsibilities, new communication systems, timetabling procedures, alterations to use of physical plant, etc.)

Social change: Innovations mainly concerned with the objectives and functions of the educational system in its broader social and economic context. These will involve the re-distribution of power, resources and opportunities within the system. (Examples: introduction of comprehensive schools, development of community schools, out-of-school programs, universal primary education, changes in education structure, etc.)

Other ways of classification could be the following.

‘Hardware’: additions to school equipment, such as new classrooms, teaching machines, books, playgrounds, etc.

‘Software’: usually in the content and range of the curriculum, or in the methods of delivery and reception;

‘Interpersonal relations’: changes in the roles and relationships between teachers and students, between teachers and school administrators or teachers and teachers (as team teaching)

Activity 1.3.
a) Distinguish between planned and unplanned change.
b) Consider each type of change or innovation described above under the two ways of classification. Try to relate the above points to the situation in your country.

Degrees of change /how much change is required/ may be categorized into four types:

Change in size and scope of operations- requiring outlays of capital, labor, space and equipment.

Acquiring new skills- as in retraining teachers for new curricula, team teaching, utilization of language laboratories, applying self-contained classroom management, etc.

Changing goals- as in the introduction of self-instructional materials, educational radio programs, etc.

Changing values and orientation- where long-held principles are at stake, as the elimination of examinations, for example.

We can classify the types of change required for adaptation or adoption into six.

Substitution: probably the most common and most readily accepted innovation, in which one item is substituted for another previously in use (Examples: new textbook, new equipment, a replacement for a teacher, etc.)

Alteration: involving changes in existing structures rather than a complete substitution of parts or elements (Examples: transfer of responsibilities for school guidance from senior teachers to a specialist, introducing career ladders for teachers)

Addition without changing old elements or patterns: those which can be added to an existing programs without seriously disturbing other parts of it like audio-visual aids, workshops, diagnostic tests, etc.

Restructuring: seen either as-
Material rearrangement of work space (changing the composition and size of classes),
Rearrangements in the curriculum (introducing modern math or a new foreign language), or as
Revision of interpersonal relations (Examples: team teaching, para-professional teaching aids, non-graded schools/multi-grade classrooms)

Eliminating old behavior: as, for example, changing a single textbook or method of discussion in class, human relations training for reducing mutual suspicion and hostility.

Reinforcing old behavior: transmitting or adopting knowledge which reinforces what is already practiced, as in most refresher courses for teachers

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1.4. Resistance to Improvement

Implementing new programs and modifications implies change. This change actually requires people—students, teachers, and administrators to do some things differently. Thus program change is in reality people change. Although one should not assume that change would always be resisted, both experience and research indicate that resistance to change is not unusual. People tend to oppose to things that might change what they have become accustomed to. It is usual to observe two forces—driving forces and restraining forces—when a change is introduced to a system or an organization. The driving forces are the change agents and supporters of the change. The restraint forces are against the change. Change will occur when the driving forces are greater than the restraint forces. Hence, resistance to change is inevitable. Resistance is increased if people are less motivated or feel threatened by the change.

a) Reasons or causes of resistance to change

It would be important for principals or any change agent to be aware of the different forms of resistance, understand the underlying causes, and be prepared to deal with it constructively.

Activity 1.4.

a) Give reasons you know from your own experience why resistance to change or improvement may be expected at your school.

b) List some verbal reactions to proposed change or improvement that suggest resistance.

Some of the reasons for resistance to change could be the following:

People tend to maintain comfortable ways of doing things.
People tend to behave in the way that they have always behaved, and the familiar becomes a form of security. They tend to persist in doing things in ways which have been successful for them in the past.
Self-perception may be threatened by the suggested new way of doing things.
Resistance to change can occur if the proposed changes may reduce one’s power and influence in the organization.
People will resist changes that make their knowledge and skills obsolete.
Fear of the unknown is another reason. People like stability. They may have invested a great deal of time and effort in the current system. They have established a normal routine in performing their jobs. When a change occurs, the normal routine is disrupted, and there will be a need to find new and different ways to function within the environment.
Change implies that the ways people are doing now are not very effective.
Change may result in more work without extra remuneration.
The nature of the proposed change/complexity, financial cost, compatibility with the other phases of the school operation, ease of communicability, time and energy needed/may constitute a problem in securing its adoption.
People may resist a proposed change because they do not possess an adequate or accurate understanding of it.
Individuals with less confidence in their abilities are less willing to try out innovations. They reject the new and strange because the change consists a threat to their competence. They may feel that the change will expose his/her weaknesses and shortcomings.
There is no guarantee that staff members will perceive a proposed change as an improvement.
People may be influenced by the views of peers and hierarchical superiors.
A proposed change may be resisted because of an honest difference of opinion about whether it is needed, or whether it will accomplish all that its proponents claim.
Activity 1.5.
Consider what the reaction of a school’s staff will be if the following changes are introduced in the education system in your country.

- Self-contained classroom management
- Automatic promotion in grades 1-3
- Student-centered teaching approach/methodology
- Using local language as medium of instruction
- Teachers’ performance appraisal by parents, students, peers and principals

i) Discuss and analyze the possible causes of resistance for each item.

ii) Devise strategies on how you, as a school principal, would convince and support teachers to internalize and implement the changes in your school.

b) Reducing Resistance to Change

People usually tend to resist change due to the above mentioned reasons and a variety of others. This phenomenon complicates the process of improvement-especially at the implementation stage. But fortunately all is not lost. People can be receptive and supportive to change when:

- They feel that the problem is real for them.
- They see the need for change.
- Their self concept and security needs are not threatened by the proposed change.
- They have been involved from the beginning in the change process and feel that they helped to identify the problem and to develop the solution.
- They think they can solve it.
- They think it is part of their responsibility to solve it.
- They observe that those in formal positions of authority are supportive of change and can reward change-oriented behavior.
- They feel that valid objections are recognized and measures are taken to relieve unnecessary fears.
- They are assured that the change is kept open to revision and recommendation if experience indicates that changes will be desirable.

Principals may use at least six specific methods to reduce resistance to change: participation, communication, support, rewards, planning and coercion as explained in the Box.

Possible methods to reduce resistance to change:

- Involve those who will be affected by the change to participate in planning, design and implementation.
- Communicate and explain to staff the nature of and need for the change, including the effects the change will have on them.
- Give professional support to the implementers of change frequently and make the work environment more pleasant and enjoyable.
- Consider rewards to staff in exchange for support of a new program. This could be rewards such as recognition, increased responsibility, praise, monetary rewards, promotion, etc.
- Plan prospective changes well in advance and systematically. Introducing change incrementally can lessen the impact of change on subordinates and allow them to adjust to new expectations and conditions.
- Use coercion as a last resort when other methods have failed and the changes require immediate implementation.
Generally:
Expect resistance.
If you ignore it, it won’t go away.
Identify what form the resistance is taking.
Try to understand WHY someone is resisting and then deal with that.
For all these, good communication is essential to ensure that everyone is clear about goals and procedures.

Activity 1.6.

a) Discuss each of the following characteristics or features of change:

- Innovations usually fail.
- Barriers to innovation invariably emerge.
- Resistance to change seems universal.
- Change, if any, is usually transitory.
- Willingness to change appears related to conditions in society.
- Change may or may not be rational.

b) Case Study:

A change was proposed for the students of a school to become self directed learners with the teachers playing a supportive ‘catalytic’ role. This idea originated outside the school, but the principal and staff were originally enthusiastic, and thought that such a change would improve learning in the school. The teachers were generally receptive to innovations. Some seven months later the degree of implementation or level of use was found to be minimal.

What could be the possible reasons for the low implementation level of the introduced change?

1.5. The Principal’s Perception of School Improvement

The involvement and cooperation of teachers, students, parents, out-of-school organizations, and etc. are necessary for the successful implementation of school improvement. However, the principal is the crucial implementer of change at school level. Any proposal for change that intends to alter the quality of life in the school depends primarily on the principal. If the school leader does not believe in improvement (change) or cannot see the need for it, then there is very little likelihood that he or she will be able to persuade others to accept it.

New programs or school improvement can be usefully implemented in a school if a principal:

- is a believer, feeling a genuine commitment to the program;
- is an advocate who promotes and defends the program before a variety of audiences;
- is a linker who connects the program with other parts of the system;
- is a resource acquirer who obtains and allocates tangible and intangible resources;
- is an employer who hires staff or assigns teachers to it;
- is a leader who supplies initiative, energy, and direction;
- is a manager who provides problem-solving assistance and support;
- is a delegator who provides ‘move backstage’ when teachers assume leadership;
- is a supporter with words of encouragement and acts of assistance;
- is an information source who gives feedback to teachers and staff.

A principal cannot and should not attempt to introduce and implement a proposed change single-handedly. Establishing a school improvement committee could facilitate change in a school. One of the existing committees could serve for the purpose also. The committee could be headed by the principal or a deputy and comprise representative teachers, parents, students, etc. who are voluntary to be members and have something useful to offer. This committee could be charged with the responsibility for:

- assessing the need for change,
- encouraging efforts to improve the school,
- coordinating and providing assistance to those efforts, and
- monitoring and evaluating progress and achievements.

1.6. Approaches to School Improvement

School improvement is an important matter for a school. However, it is not a simple matter; and people have different views about it that can be roughly divided into three basic approaches.

a) A mechanical approach

This approach assumes that the school functions like a machine. Improvement is believed to be effected by attending to improvement of buildings, renewal of teaching aids, increased funding provision, creating an effective administrative
system. The implication is that if any of these parts become defective they have to be replaced on the assumption that the school will then automatically function smoothly again.

b) A people-oriented approach
This approach assumes that people can only effect improvement in a school. This means that it is essential to maintain good human relations in the school.

- Bottom-up decision-making prevails, with the result that decisions that initiate change originate at ground level.
- Groups are deemed more important than individuals.
- Informal relations in the school are rated very highly.
- It is typical for the school’s organizational structure to be flat (because it has low hierarchical levels or ranks)

It also implies that the school is seen as an open structure in which any improvements are virtually synonymous with improved interaction between staff, students, interest groups and management.

c) The pragmatic or practice-oriented approach
This approach is a combination of the previous two approaches. It is based on the fact that school improvement cannot be achieved without either good human relations or proper facilities and resources. This approach assumes:

- A two-way (bottom-up as well as top-down) decision making process
- The need to inform staff and other stakeholders like parents so that they will understand why change is necessary
- Training of staff is required to enable them handle the changes or innovations
- A healthy and secure learning and teaching climate must prevail in the school in order to fulfill the school’s primary function.

Activity 1.7.

a) Discuss the pros and cons of the three approaches to school improvement.

b) Which approach to school improvement do you support? Why?

1.7. Planning for School Improvement

Schools have different needs and problems. Therefore, it will be difficult to talk of a plan that will fit to all schools. However, the process of introducing change should include the stages and steps listed in the Box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Steps to introduce change:</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conduct a needs assessment/audit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orient the target group to the proposed change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decide whether to introduce the proposed change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plan a program of implementation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implement the proposed innovation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conduct in-process evaluation</td>
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</tbody>
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1.7.1. Needs assessment/Audit

This means an assessment of the school’s existing position in light of certain key criteria. Audit entails answering the question “Where are we?” This will help in identifying areas where development is required.

Checklists for auditing may include:

- Philosophy and ethos checklist
- Management checklist
- Curriculum checklist
  - Learning
  - Teaching
Schemes of work
Assessment / use of assessment instruments, management of assessment/
Organization and management of the curriculum / Planning, pupil time, space and facilities, material resources, grouping/
Care and guidance / philosophy, organization, updating of reports and records of achievement, external links, transition, cross-curricular issues and themes, discipline, attendance and punctuality/
Resources checklist / Resource provision, budgetary decisions/
Staff, teaching and non-teaching checklist / management, appointment, induction, placement, development, legal obligations/
Constituency (governors, parents and community) checklist / aims and policies, implementation, review/

After listing down the main aspects to be considered under each of the above category, mark each as strong, satisfactory, weak, and omission. From this audit, it will be possible to identify aspects that most urgently need change or improvement.

1.7.2. Orient the target group to the proposed change

Generally, the groups who will be affected by a school innovation or improvement will include the teachers, the students, the parents, the school board, the school administrators, the district education officers, etc. These groups represent, in most circumstances, the greatest sources of potential support for or resistance to a proposed change. Therefore, there is a need of creating an awareness and interest in the proposed improvement on the part of these target groups. Identifying the commitments, which will need to be made with the help of the target group, is very crucial at this stage.

1.7.3. Deciding whether to introduce the proposed change

The main considerations at this stage are:
- identifying those who should participate in the decision,
- deciding on the process by which the decision will be made, and
- deciding whether to proceed with the implementation of the proposed change.

1.7.4. Planning a programme of implementation

a) Defining vision and mission statements and formulation of objectives

After selecting areas for school improvement, the next step is to formulate the vision, mission and objectives. If an organization does not have defined vision, mission and objectives to achieve, it is not an organization at all but a mere collection of individuals and resources.

Vision is an organization’s hope for the reality to be, i.e., the desired situation, as opposed to the reality that is, i.e. the existing situation. This may not be realized in one’s life-time. However, the organization needs to have a vision based on a set of values that every one in the organization shares.

Vision is broad, but it points to where to go. The vision must be compelling, inspiring, make people want to join the organization. It is the driving force that keeps the organization more towards a feasible but inspired future condition.

Purpose of a vision:
- Shared vision is an initial force that brings people together.
- Inspires stakeholders
- It is a life-blood of an organization.
- Helps to see what you are working towards.
- Clearly articulated vision can provide energy, momentum and strengths to individuals.
- Provide bases for partnership.
- Binds an organization together in times of crises.
- Provide incentive to work through internal conflict.
In the school context, vision tells the sort of school we want to create. Vision is then an expression of a desirable direction and future challenging state of the school. It will tell what the school will be after 3 years, 5 years, 10 years, etc.

**Examples of Vision statements:**
- We would like to see a world free of child abuse,
- We would like Village B to be a community free of illiteracy,
- We would like to see a world where no women will be economically exploited,

A mission is a statement that describes the purpose for the existence of the organization/school. It states the ‘business’ the organization is in. It describes the broad characteristics of the school’s provision as it needs to be to achieve the aims and vision. Mission statements often refer to the curriculum, the ethos of the school, the teaching and learning styles, liaison with parents and others. They incorporate, implicitly or explicitly, the values of the school. It indicates areas in which the school intends to be successful and how it intends to achieve its aims in this regard. It will answer the basic question: **“Where do we want to go?”**

An effective school should have a statement of its own philosophy or mission. In designing the statement, the principal will need to consult the staff and address the following key questions:
- What is the purpose of the school? Why are the pupils and staff there?
- What knowledge and skills do the pupils need?
- How does the school identify individual differences, abilities and capacities amongst the pupils, and how does the school adjust methods, materials and programs to foster individual development?
- What are the desired relationships between:
  - a pupil and a pupil
  - a pupil and a teacher
  - a teacher and the head
  - the head and the community?
- What values does the school seek to promote?
- How does the school prepare pupils to participate fully in the real world?

**Examples of Mission Statements:**
- The Mission of St. Mary Primary School is to maximize learning opportunities for each student.
  - Our mission is to offer students high-quality learning opportunities by creating appropriate educational and social opportunities. We are committed to setting high standards in all areas and to ensuring in an accountable and responsible way that the means and resources required to promote effective learning are available.

Once the mission statement is carefully drafted, the next step is to consider what school objectives or aims should be pursued in view of the mission statement.

The objectives formulated should be:
- Simple to understand
- Measurable or Concrete (practicable)
- Attainable (possible)/ realistic
- Acceptable (to others affected by it)
- Time-bound

Questions that may be helpful in formulating a set of objectives for your school include:
- What is our school trying to achieve?
- For whom does our school exist?
- How is our school trying to achieve its mission?
- What resources does our school have to achieve its objectives?
- How will we know when we have accomplished our objectives?
- Are the objectives realistic and achievable?
- Do the objectives reflect the values of our school?
- Could our objectives be improved?
Examples of **Objectives**: establishing a modern library with at least 10,000 books; ensuring that every senior pupil in the school accomplishes at least one educational excursion every year, establishing an effective evaluation system so that every staff member will be subjected to at least two evaluation visits every year.

**ACTIVITY 1.8.**

a) What are your answers to the questions posed above regarding objectives?
b) Do schools in your country formulate mission and value statements; and success indicators? What is your own experience in this regard?
c) What implications does this have in terms of the performance of schools? What must be done in the future?
d) Formulate objectives for your school. Make sure that they cover all aspects of school life and are clearly and concisely expressed.

The next step is planning and carrying out a program of in-service or on the job training for those involved in the proposed change.

The availability of funds or resources is essential to realize the set objectives. This means that planning must be done in good time (preferably a year in advance) so that funds or resources can be made available by way of a budget.

The planning stage should include anticipating and attempting to resolve in advance for the operational problems, which may be encountered in implementing the proposed improvement.

**ACTIVITY 1.9.**

Develop possible success indicators for a primary school for the following factors:

- Educational success for each student
- Completion rates
- Responsiveness to those the school serves
- Parent/students/staff/community satisfaction
- Involvement of the school community in shared decision making and the educational process
- Honoring diversity of individuals and opinions
- Budget allocation and utilization

### 1.7.5. Implementation

Proper implementation of the school improvement plan must be ensured after drawing the specification of areas selected for improvement and the formulation of the mission statement and objectives, and allocation of estimated funds and resources required for the envisaged school improvement.

Support for the plan must be solicited by

- Advertising the plan as widely as possible
- Explaining the need for change to role players (teachers, students, parents, support staff)
- Providing opportunities for role players to ask questions about the plan, to comment, suggest constructive ideas and ways of doing things
- Communicating developments and progresses continuously and clearly

### 1.7.6. Conducting in-process evaluation

Evaluation is comparison of performance to standards and to examine whether there are discrepancies, gaps or not. Evaluation seeks an answer to the question “Have set objectives been achieved?” It has a judgmental characteristic.

In-process evaluation system or formative evaluation is used for the improvement and development of an ongoing activity and it leads to programme modification. It will provide feedback on the extent to which the proposed improvement is accomplishing its objectives. Outcomes should be measured against the envisaged objectives in order to get a reliable answer to the question whether good progress has been made towards achievement of the objective. Aspects of the program, which need improvement, should be diagnosed and corrected accordingly.
Unit 2
School Culture, School Climate and Values

Aims and Objectives

After studying this topic participants should be able to:
- Identify the main determinants of a healthy school climate
- Distinguish between the different types of organizational climate in schools
- Give an account of the place and importance of values as a component of school culture
- Describe the role of leaders in determining and forming values

2.1. Definitions of concepts

A school’s climate is its atmosphere for learning. It includes the feelings people have about school and whether it is a place where learning can occur. A positive climate makes a school a place where both staff and students want to spend a substantial portion of their time; it is a good place to be.

School culture is difficult to define, but is best thought of as the procedures, values and expectations that guide people’s behavior within an organization. The school’s culture is essentially ‘the way we do things around here’. It is meant to describe the character of a school as it reflects deep patterns of values, beliefs, and traditions that have been formed over the course of its history.

2.2. Description of a Healthy School Climate

Features of a healthy school climate include the following.
- The management arrangements are the most vital expression of the school’s culture. An important aspect of the character of effective schools is that management is not the unique task of those who are at the apex of a hierarchy but a shared responsibility of all who are involved in the school. Heads and deputies have specific management functions; but teachers and others also have management functions. All contribute to the culture of the school.
- The school is protected against unreasonable pressure from the community and parents.
- The principal is a dynamic leader who supports his/her staff while pursuing high academic standards, and he/she is capable of ensuring that his/her school’s needs are met.
- The staff tends to maintain high standards of conduct, and they set high yet attainable objectives for their pupils.
- The students work hard, are highly motivated and treat studious classmates with respect.
- The materials and aides required in the classroom for effective teaching are available.
- Staff morale is high and members get along well, are enthusiastic about their work and proud of their school.

2.3. Types of School Climate

All schools are not alike. Therefore, it is expected that different types of organizational climate prevail at schools. In practice, a school’s climate may not be classified under one of the types as it may contain components of two or even more. However, in general terms the types of school climate could be classified as follows.

- The open climate: Frankness based on mutual trust prevails between the school principal, the staff and pupils. High staff morale is maintained. Staff and pupils are motivated to cope with problems.

- The climate of autonomy: This is characterized by the freedom of teaching staff to meet social needs. They are more people oriented than task oriented.

- The controlled climate: This is task-oriented. It offers little opportunity for the promotion of social relations. Nevertheless the morale is high and the climate more open than closed.

- The familiar climate: Cordial relations prevail in the school. Job satisfaction is average, mainly because social needs are met. However, staff receives little guidance to motivate them to realize goals.

- The paternalistic climate: In this climate the principal is passive and there is lack of involvement, little cooperation, the forming of exclusive interest groups and low morale. This can be classified as an extreme form of closure.

- The closed climate: Staff as well as pupils is uninvolved and indifferent. Staff turnover is high and job satisfaction is low.
ACTIVITY 2.1.
Consider which of the above types of climate prevails at your school. Then briefly explain why you classified your school under the type you decided on.

2.4. The Role of Leaders in the Formation and Propagation of Values

Everyday actions stem from deeper motivations than are apparent. There is no merit in reasoning that an ineffectual school can be improved by simply erecting a new building or providing enough textbooks. It is more important to take stock of the school’s organizational culture and ask yourself:

- What do the people in the school consider to be important?
- What do they value? (i.e. what do they believe in? What values are upheld?)

Values define the philosophy of operation and the organizational/school culture. Values are guidelines for behavior, and they govern each person’s actions and attitudes. Values are learnt through experience, education and observation.

Activity 2.2.
List some of the values you yourself hold and believe your school should seek to promote.

Values that are very important and must be passed to the next generation include reliability, honesty, efficiency, punctuality, diligence, politeness, courtesy, fairness, self-discipline, tolerance, courage, respect for the dignity of labor, respect for other people and their property, good sportsmanship, impartiality, perseverance, respect for legitimate authority, public spiritedness, cleanliness, justice, etc.

Examples of Value Statements:
- The St. Mary Primary School community, comprised of staff, students, parents and community members, value:
  - Educational success for each student
  - Student, parent, and employee responsibility in the educational process
  - Responsiveness to those we serve
  - Involvement of the school community in shared decision making and the educational process
  - Honoring diversity of individuals and opinions
  - A safe, orderly, supportive environment
  - Fiscal responsibility and accountability
- Organization A values: Commitment to excellence; commitment and creativity; striving for gender equity; participation decision making.

The role of a principal is critical in the formation and propagation of values. Dealing with matters such as climate, culture and values is not an exact science, with the result that there are no fixed rules or recipes that the education leader can follow. Instead the leader’s role should be seen as an “art” and as a crucial part of his/her overall task that requires intuition, predicative ability, and a flair for the use of symbolism, for dealing with micro politics and for assuming a variety of roles. The following roles can be distinguished in this regard.

2.4.1. The Principal as “READER” of School Culture

One of the principal’s functions is to “read” school culture, especially if he/she is newly appointed at a school. The leader must understand

- The school’s mission and objectives,
- Why certain values are upheld at school, and
- Why the school functions the way it does, e.g. the appointment of committees, the influence of informal groups, the power wielded by external and internal role players.
Without this basic knowledge and insight, any changes planned by the education leader are doomed to failure. Therefore, a newly appointed leader must “read” the school climate through:

- Conducting conversations (informal) and interviews with as many role players as possible
- Moving around in the school and see how “things” are done.
- Reading whatever literature is available about the school.
- Taking time to consider (interpret) all the information gathered.

### 2.4.2. The Role of the Principal in Shaping School Culture

The education leader must at least set an example and take certain actions to form a school’s culture. Setting an example concerns the unofficial role of education leaders, which consists in such things as:

- the personal impression made by the way they dress,
- what their offices look like,
- their attitude to punctuality,
- the well-ordered and neat appearance of memos or notes they circulate, and
- their style of communication with pupils and staff.

The main issue is not that certain actions have to be performed, but rather how they should be performed; that is, the attitude maintained during performance, and whether the overall climate in which performance takes place are healthy or unhealthy.

Moreover, the principal must always be sensitive to situations. He/she must know whether a particular matter can be approached in a certain way or not. The context in which matters are dealt with must therefore be understood and taken into account. For example the leader may be persuaded by circumstances to adopt either a democratic or undemocratic management style.
Aims and Objectives:

After studying this topic, participants will be able to:

- Explain what is meant by an organization and organizational structure.
- Identify different types of organizations.
- Explain the place and purpose of the school in the education system.
- Describe the school as an organization.
- Distinguish between theories and models of education management.
- Describe a few education management models.
- Explain the organizational structure of the school.
- Discuss the management and leadership role of the principal within the formal organizational structure of the school.

3.1. Introduction

Organizations display differences and similarities. Organizations have individual properties and universal properties. Differences distinguish organizations one from another, while similarities characterize organizations as sharing certain features in common.

Knowledge or understanding of organizations may have an indirect effect on the way in which we manage organizations. It can help us to grasp why organizations “are what they are”. From this basis it is frequently possible to infer what can make “organizations better”. In this sense we could learn how to manage organizations better. Thus, knowledge of organizations leads to sounder management.

Organizations are formed to attain certain aims. The activities (or functions) of an organization are always geared to achieving the aims that prompt the formation of that kind of organization in the first place.

The school is one example of an organization. Teaching is the primary (functional) purpose for which the school was originally established. All the activities or acts in the school are therefore aimed at the achievement of the functional purpose of the school, educative teaching. All activities that are performed on a daily basis at school should be geared to teaching. To make sure that all activities are geared to the functional purpose of the school, the school, like any other organization, must, however, be managed effectively. The school as an organization is purposefully managed so that the functional task of the school, educative teaching, may be achieved or realized effectively.

There are two spheres in an organization, the human sphere and the task sphere which have reciprocal, interdependent, unique relationship to one another. Therefore, for an effective management, one has to have sound perspective on both man and his activities and the nature and essence of the organization itself.

School management is regarded as the way in which the principal manages the school to make of it an environment that is conducive to teaching and learning, in other words, so that teaching (the function of the teacher) and learning (the function of the pupils) can be realized as effectively as possible.

In order to understand people’s activities in an organizational context, we must know about the organization itself. Knowledge and understanding of organizations is therefore central to management.

3.2. What is an Organization?

Organizations involve people. However an organization consists of more than people. An organization is also a command structure or a framework that directs all human activities in the organization in order to realize organizational aims.

An organization is not a random combination of people and objects within a specific building. The activities are grouped into divisions and subdivisions with clearly demarcated and defined duties and responsibilities for every member of the organization. This orderly arrangement of divisions and subdivisions by which human activities are directed and coordinated and through which a formal command structure is established is known as an organization.
Therefore an organization, is on the one hand, the formal structure within which people function in specific relationships to one another and, on the other hand, it is the human actions within such a structure that are geared to achieving common objectives. This deliberate structuring and restructuring of people in social units in order to realize certain aims is regarded as the focus of the organization.

Four primary features of organizations are distinct:
- Organizations are composed of individuals and groups (WHO?).
- Organizations are composed in order to pursue and realize certain aims and objectives (WHY?).
- Organizations seek to attain their objectives by means of differentiated tasks and conscious coordination and leadership (HOW?).
- Organizations seek to attain their objectives (realize) on a continuous basis (WHEN?).

3.3. Organizational Structure

An organizational structure is a composition for determining the task and place of every person and resource in the organization. This is done by awarding and allocating authority and responsibility to people and by their being answerable to their superiors. Thus appropriate coordination and communication is effected between individuals and groups so that the purpose for which the organization was established may be attained.

The organizational structure forms a framework for the interrelationships between individuals and groups (departments). Thus, the structures should satisfy the following seven requirements.
- They should be an aid in the attainment of the functional purpose of the organization.
- They should be effective and should provide for everything essential for purpose analysis.
- They should consist of a formal framework that gives an overall picture of the complex interrelatedness of the organization’s basic elements.
- They should constitute a basis for teamwork so that every person in the organization knows what his or her tasks and responsibilities are.
- They should serve as a framework for the interrelationships between individuals and groups in the organization.
- They should be adaptable so that structural alterations can be introduced when necessary.
- Despite the variety of the structural features of an organization they should create unity with a view to attaining the organization’s general purpose.

Five steps or stages in the creation of an organizational structure:
- determining objectives and formulating a policy
- horizontal division of work
- allocation of authority or vertical division of work
- coordination
- control

These steps are generally valid in any organization and apply to all levels, including the school

Activity 3.1.
Draw the organizational structure of a primary school or a Teacher Training College you are familiar with. Examine whether the structure satisfies the seven requirements described above

3.4. Types of Organizations

Organizations may be classified in terms of their community roles as follows:
- Production or economic organizations
- Management or political organizations
- Maintenance organizations
- Innovative and research organizations
ACTIVITY 3.2.

a) Give two examples of organizations in each of these categories.
b) In which category does the school as an organization belong?

School’s community role can be seen as one of a maintenance organization, when the school is expected to uphold the existing social order, and innovative and research organization, when educators see their roles as changing and improving society.

Therefore, it will be the task of the school principal to distinguish between these two functions or roles of the school and to determine which of these roles should be regarded as primary and which as secondary in a particular community.

3.5. Open and Closed Organizations

An organization’s “openness” or “closedness” is determined as the degree of interaction it has with its external environment. The less interaction the more closed the organization, and vice versa. However, an organization is never open or closed in the absolute sense; it figures somewhere on an open-closed continuum.

Organizations have boundaries. Thus, open and closed organizations can be thought of according to the permeability of the organizational boundary by factors from the external environment. The less permeable the boundary, the more closed the organization, and vice versa. The interaction between the closed organization and the external environment is not dynamic. The boundaries of open organizations, however, are permeable and therefore there is an interactive relationship between this organization and its external environment.

ACTIVITY 3.3.

Would you regard your school as an open or a closed organization? Explain.

Features of closed and open organizations:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors/Features</th>
<th>Closed Organization</th>
<th>Open Organization</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boundary</td>
<td>largely impermeable</td>
<td>largely permeable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inputs from external environment</td>
<td>few</td>
<td>common</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outputs</td>
<td>limited</td>
<td>adequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activities</td>
<td>take place in isolation</td>
<td>do not take place in absolute isolation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback from external environment</td>
<td>limited</td>
<td>there is feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Existence of dynamic interactive relationship with external environment</td>
<td>lacks</td>
<td>exists</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship with external environment</td>
<td>self-sufficiency</td>
<td>accommodating</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nowadays, there is a shift in emphasis to open organizations. It is increasingly accepted that an organization does not function does not function in isolation and that there is definite interaction with the environment.

ACTIVITY 3.4.

Explain briefly what is meant by “The school is an open system”. Is this true for all schools?
3.6. Formal and Informal Organizations

This is another way of distinguishing between organizations. **Formal** implies the deliberate and purposeful arrangement of the organization, in other words, that it is deliberately structured. The expression “formal organization” tells us that we have to do with prescribed or specified roles, role expectations and relationships. **Informal** then implies a lack of formality and structure.

3.6.1. The Formal Organization

A formal organization originates by design, i.e. through purposeful planning, organizing and structuring. This implies formal structure and groups that are created deliberately by management for attaining objectives. Such structures include the following:

- a task structure
- a role/responsibility structure
- a command structure
- a communication structure
- a remuneration structure
- a structure for interpersonal relationships

A formal organization displays the following characteristics:

- There is a clear policy and objectives.
- It has hierarchical command structure.
- Tasks are entrusted to people whose posts are clearly defined.
- There are appropriate rules and regulations for the performance of activities.
- The activities are to a large extent coordinated by the effective exercise of control, among other things.
- Membership is official.
- The organization does not disband if members leave it.

**ACTIVITY 3.5.**

Is a school a formal organization? How many of these features are true of schools? Discuss briefly.

3.6.2. The Informal Organization

An informal organization is characterized by the formation of informal relationships within the formal organization. Informal group formation is a spontaneous reaction to interaction and communication between the members of the organization.

Three types of groups as elements of informal group are identified.

- Informal task groups: groups that were initially formally constituted to perform a certain task.
- Informal communication groups: consist of persons who bring about informal interaction voluntarily with a view to the exchange of information. These are not necessarily friendship groups.
- Informal friendship groups: are composed of persons who interact with one another spontaneously and voluntarily because they feel a mutual attraction, common interests or values or experience shared happiness and sorrow.

**ACTIVITY 3.6.**

Can you think of informal groups in the school situation? List them.
What are some of the reasons that these informal work groups form?
Do they entail any benefits for the school as a formal organization? Explain.

The effect of informal groups on the formal organization cannot be underestimated. Informal groups not only affect the formal organizational structure; they may be employed to its advantage.

The informal organization entails the following advantages:

- It fills gaps in the formal organization.
- It provides members with social satisfaction.
It is useful in the induction of new staff.
It provides informal channel of communication.
It promotes stability in the organization.
It promotes a sense of solidarity among the members.
It can improve the esprit de corps in the formal organization.

One should make use of the advantages of the informal organization in a formal organization. However, it is important that the aims of an informal organization should mesh those of a formal organization and that a balance be struck between formal and informal groups.

3.7. The School’s Place and Purpose in the Education System

Educational institutions or schools form part of the educational structure or the education system. The educational structure includes the following facets:
- instructional phases (pre-basic, basic and post-basic phases)
- instructional fields (formal, informal and non-formal fields)
- types of schools (technical, academic and art schools)
- streams (standards, levels of difficulty)
- study units or modules (bridging modules, remedial modules)
- entry and discharge points
- channeling options

The school is part of the education system and exists in interrelation with all other components of the education system and with the area in which the school operates. The school is the place in the education system where functional activities take place (educative teaching). The principal should therefore understand the place of the school within the education system and its links with the other components.

3.8. The School as an Organization

3.8.1. The Features of a School

The school is an organization that exists within the education system with educative teaching as its primary purpose. The structural features or properties that give a school its unique character are briefly the following:
- The school is a unique and self-sufficient societal institution with its own unique task, namely educative teaching.
- The school consists of learners (pupils) whose nature and properties determine the boundaries and possibilities of the school.
- The school consists of professional educators (teachers) with philosophical, technical and professional knowledge.
- The instructional task of the school is performed using selected and systematized study material.
- The purpose of the school is to meet the teaching, education and earning needs of a specific group of people.
- The school is purposefully supported by support services and by societal links that have an interest in education.
- The school is an institution that is managed and at which universal management tasks are rendered specific according to the nature and purpose of each particular type of school.

Thus, the nature, essence, function and purpose of the school are determined largely by the nature of pupils. The school must then be a life world for the pupils in whom they can assimilate the new and unfamiliar study material in safety and security. To do this, the school should comply with the following essential requirements:
- The school should be geared to the essential nature of the child.
- The school must create for the child a hospitable and secure experiential world.
- The school must make effective teaching and learning possible.
- The school should be organized and managed so that the child may be led to full self-actualization.
3.8.2. School Management

A school is a complex organization characterized by uncertainty because of the uncertain nature and outcome of performing its task. Uncertainty, instability, uniqueness, value conflict and the lack of a simple technology or teaching method characterizes the context of the organization within which principals work - and these characteristics do not diminish or disappear with good management. The principal must always bear these factors in mind and have due regard to them in organizing and managing the school so that teaching and learning can take place effectively.

To manage the school as an organization the principal must perform certain management tasks such as planning, policymaking, organizing, leadership, control, decision making, motivation and communication within certain management areas or fields. School management can therefore be regarded as the performance of management tasks (management actions) aimed at effective teaching and learning by the principal in operation with his or her management team within certain management areas (management fields) aimed at accomplishing effective teaching and learning.

The following management areas are identified:
- staff members (staff management)
- teaching and learning matters (educational programme management)
- pupil matters (pupil management)
- physical facilities
- routine facilities
- routine school administration
- financial matters (financial management)
- school-community relations (school marketing, parent involvement)
- classroom management

The task and responsibility of the school principal to manage all aspects of the school with due regard to its complex nature so that effective teaching and learning can take place. Therefore, successful school management depends on how the principal employs his or her management and leadership practice within the organizational structure of the school.

3.8.3. Some Theories and Models in School Management

Theory: relates to ideas and views, as formulated by individuals, regarding a certain scientific area (in this case, school management). A theory usually consists of a number of assumptions and presuppositions (hypotheses) which are established as a theory by means of research.

Model: relates to the grouping or joining of a number of theories in a single model. The following five education management models are identified.

- formal models
- democratic models
- political models
- subjective models
- conflicting models

An organization, like a school, does not always represent a specific model, very often a mixture or combination of models are used.
3.9. The Organizational Structure of the School

The school as a formal organization is characterized by the fact that it is goal oriented, and activities are performed in order to accomplish the set objectives. An organizational structure is created to coordinate activities and in so doing achieve objectives. This coordination entails work is given to people i.e. principal, deputy, unit leader, teacher, department head, store keeper, guards, etc. in the form of official duties through which official positions, among other things, in the school are confirmed. Positions are ordered hierarchically; and command structures are determined accordingly. Rules and regulations, in turn, determine what people do in their official capacity in the school and lend substance to interpersonal relationships between them within the school.

The organizational structure coordinates actions. In order to ensure the continued survival of the school/organization the person-in-the –organization has to be reckoned with very thoroughly. The human element remains the most important factor in the organization, because people determine whether or not organizations survive.

3.9.1. Formal Types of Organizational Structures

The principal and his management team use a formal organizational structure to order and coordinate the different activities within the school.

**ACTIVITY 3.8**

What formal structures exist in schools? Are they bureaucratic or loosely bound organizational structures?

There are two general types of organizational structures that occur on the above continuum- the bureaucratic, and the professional organizational structure.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics of the Bureaucratic and the Professional Organizational Structures in Schools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bureaucratic Organizational Structure</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a  hierarchical command structure with firm supervision and control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adequate structures for vertical communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clear rules and regulations in writing that lay down standards and orchestrate activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>well-devised plans and schedules for teachers and pupils to follow</td>
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<tr>
<td>very clear work delineation with specific responsibilities</td>
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Formal work groups result from the organizing function of management since organizing is the grouping of work activities to reach the organization’s objectives. The organization structure results from the assignment of work activities to work groups and the assignment of each work group to a manger/principal/supervisor. Examples: Work groups like various departments, administration and support staff, unit leaders, etc.
### Assumptions on Which the Five Models Are Based

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assumptions</th>
<th>The Formal Model</th>
<th>The Democratic Model</th>
<th>Political Model</th>
<th>Subjective Model</th>
<th>Conflicting Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mode of Function</strong></td>
<td>Functions as a system. System consists of parts that collaborate and have logical cohesion</td>
<td>Has staff who are highly trained professionally.</td>
<td>No clear objectives. The objectives differ from groups to group. Groups seek one another’s support and promote their objectives in a political manner. Is descriptive rather than prescriptive.</td>
<td>Organization is not a separate entity; does not have an objective structure.</td>
<td>No clarity on the place and importance of objectives and values in an organization. Vague objectives, not easily quantifiable, different role-players all have different personal objectives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organizational structure</strong></td>
<td>Has hierarchical organizational structure</td>
<td>Authority is shared between various participants in the decision-making process.</td>
<td>Group activities and interests more important than the individual and conflict is regarded as natural in the organization.</td>
<td>Organizational structure is merely a product of the perceptions of individuals.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Emphasis</strong></td>
<td>Management is done in a rational manner; emphasis is on the importance of management tasks.</td>
<td>On factors such as influence, which has more to do with informal authority and is usually exercised by subordinates</td>
<td>Emphasis on the individual and his place in the organization.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Stress uncertainty, unpredictability, instability and complexity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Decision making</strong></td>
<td>Top-down usually</td>
<td>Participate in decision making; decision made by consensus</td>
<td>Bargaining and negotiation are dominant decision-making activities.</td>
<td>Managers lay down rules and all individuals interpret events in order to vest them with meaning.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.9.2. Informal Organizational Structure of the School

In addition to the formal organizational structure planned and designed by the management of a school, the school also has an informal organizational structure. This organizational structure refers to the formation of informal groups by the staff of a school. The informal organization usually originates spontaneously from the interaction of staff members who have the same responsibilities, problems, interests and convictions.

The reasons for the formation of informal work groups are diverse. Friendships, mutual interests and the satisfaction of social needs are three main reasons why informal groups form. Furthermore, members get a strong sense of security from membership in informal work groups because such groups usually have a strong sense of loyalty and share common values. In general, informal groups develop to satisfy many of the basic needs of people. Members satisfy safety, social, ego, and self-actualization needs through membership in informal work groups.

Informal work groups should not viewed negatively. They can have positive benefits if their goals are compatible with the organization’s/school’s goals.

Principals must work with both the formal and informal organizational structures to make the school function as effectively as possible.

Activity 3.9.

a) Which one of the two types of organizational structures (bureaucratic and professional) is the best in your view for the realization of effective teaching and learning. Provide clear reasons for your choice.

b) Identify three types of informal groups in schools.
Unit 4
Management Tasks

Objectives:

After studying this topic, participants should be able to
- explain the importance of school management
- briefly define management
- define and describe the different management tasks
- indicate the different steps involved in each of the tasks
- explain the different approaches applicable to each task
- explain the significance of each task for school management

4.1. Introduction

Management basically means the ways of organizing a group of people and other resources from day-to-day to achieve certain ends, and an evaluation of the extent to which those ends have been met and if not why not. The emphasis here is the attainment of objectives.

Management and leadership are frequently used interchangeably. However, leadership is only one component of management. Management entails far more than leadership.

ACTIVITY 4.1.

a) There are thousands of schools in your country, with thousands of teaching and non-teaching staff educating millions of students. They are all managed in one way another. What are the advantages of attempting to manage them in a better way?

b) Can “management” be learnt or does one become a good manager through experience? Discuss

Effective management depends on the performance of certain managerial actions (also called management activities, management acts or managerial functions) or the implementation of certain managerial principles. The type of organization determines the way in which tasks are performed. The management tasks for a school would be functionally different from those for a shop or a farm.

ACTIVITY 4.2.

Should teachers be skilled at management tasks? Why?

Four fundamental management tasks are usually mentioned, namely planning, organizing, leadership and control, which take place in that order. All other secondary management tasks or subtasks could be classified under these four essential tasks. Thus, managers
- decide what should be done: planning
- decide how things should be done: organizing
- give instructions that things must be done: leadership
- verify that things have been done: control

However, it is wrong to infer that management consists only of the above four separate tasks that are always performed in the same order, and that all secondary tasks are always classifiable under the four primary tasks. On the contrary, management is the attainment of a specific objective. Thus management tasks are inseparable owing to their interdependence.

Some authors classify the activities of management into seven areas and put them logically into this order. Decision-making is not included in the list because in a sense all the activities discussed up to now are concerned with decision-making, and some would argue that this is the real essence of management.
planning – selection of objectives and procedures;
coordination – ordering things to provide a unity of purpose and action;
communication – the transference of information, ideas, and feelings;
cooperation – working together;
leadership – ‘to show the way by going first’,
control – ensuring that what has been decided upon is carried out;
evaluation – determining the worth of something.

Other authors distinguish five main functions of managers, namely: planning, organizing, directing, supervising and evaluating. Others have identified which are regarded as important in educational management. These are:

- policy making
- organizing
- decision making
- planning
- communication
- control
- leadership

All these management tasks are equally important because they are interdependent and mutually complementary.

This topic examines seven of the management tasks carried out daily by education leaders to achieve the school’s objectives. The school’s management team manages teachers while they in turn manage the pupils in a particular classroom situation (classroom management).

4.2. Determining Policy

4.2.1. Concept of Policy

Policy directs the organization’s activities towards the attainment of objectives. Policy gives the management of an organization direction is formulated concisely and is a guide for action can be either overall in application (general policy), or it can relate to subordinate part of the organization (specific policy) must reflect the goal of the enterprise concerns the broader principles and guidelines of an enterprise

Policy and objectives are closely linked. Policy-making includes setting objectives for the organization. The formulation of objectives is aimed at clarifying policy pronouncements and, therefore, at making policy more understandable and capable of being implemented.

Policy should not be confused with ordinary rules and regulations. Rules and regulations are inflexible prescriptions prohibiting or enforcing certain actions. Policy, on the other hand, is more flexible and seeks only to establish certain basic guidelines for the attainment of a specific objective.

Formulating Policy

Policy should

- as far as possible, be committed to writing
- as far as possible, be determined by negotiation
- be determined by different role-players
- reflect the objectives of the organization
- always be consistent
- not be rigid or inflexible—it should admit of change
- be distinct from rules and procedures

Teachers and parents should have a say in the formulation of school policy. Pupils can also be involved in formulating school policy and, in particular, classroom policy.
ACTIVITY 4.3.

a) Who should be involved in drafting an education policy for your country? Why?

Policy is the result of an exchange of views on the part of different specialists, groups and individuals. It therefore implies an agreement (a compromise) that must be arrived at between the different views. Often, however, a compromise cannot be reached. Different opinions on specific aspects of the school’s policy can give rise to serious problems in policy formulation. Therefore, no policy is perfect.

Policy should always be determined by means of negotiation. The democratic management style i.e. the “bottom-up” strategy is preferred to the conventional autocratic style i.e. the “top-down’ strategy.

The larger the numbers of participants in the policy determining procedure, the larger conflicting views on certain matters. Decisions reached will be the results of conflict, compromise and confusion. Members bargain among themselves about what the organization should do.

4.2.2. Different Types of Policy

Policy may exist at three levels, i.e. macro- level, meso-level and micro- level.

a) Education Policy (macro level)

The macro level policy is the central or first level of management (Education Policy of a country, Policies formulated at national level). Guidelines are formulated in the form of a broad education policy. This broad policy is interpreted and articulated by the various executive regions and institutions.

b) School Policy (meso level)

The meso level is the regional or second level of management (school management, e.g. governing bodies).

At this level, the general objectives, as contained in education policy, are converted into more practicable objectives. Every school must have its own goals which are embodied in its school policy. The general objectives of the school can in turn be detailed for every facet of the school’s activities. Objectives can be reflected in the school’s policy on, for example, homework, discipline and sport. No policy is perfect. Therefore, policy should be evaluated and adjusted on a continuous basis.

c) Classroom Policy (micro level) and Subject Policy

The micro level is the local or third level of management (classroom management)

Classroom policy as micro policy can be formulated against the background of school policy and education policy. A classroom policy is a prerequisite for effective classroom management because a policy means that everyone knows what to do and what his or her task entails. The classroom policy should contain the objectives, procedures, activities, order and rules that apply in the classroom.

There should be a policy for every facet of a school’s operation. A teacher in a specific subject formulates a subject policy within the framework of the school policy. As far as a subject policy is concerned, the purpose should be to promote educative teaching. The subject policy must be within the school’s general policy.

A subject policy should meet the following primary requirements;

• It should give direction.
• It should give direct and clear guidance on how the teaching of the subject should be organized in the school.
• It should provide continuity in the event of a change in staff.
• It should be uniform regarding subject presentation and approach.
• It should always be formulated within the parameters of the broad, general education and school policy.

4.2.3. Strategies for Determining Policy

There are mainly two strategies for determining policy:

“top-down” strategy where policy is determined by the management team and must be accepted by all
“bottom-up’ strategy where pupils, for example, also make inputs in determining policy.
The “bottom-up” strategy is the most popular strategy. The teacher not only implements policy, but it is his or her responsibility to formulate policy at the lower level of managing his or her pupils, who can in fact be drawn into policy making. The educative value of this involvement lies in the fact that pupils are given the opportunity to discover the workings of democracy firsthand.

ACTIVITY 4.4.
Give at least three examples of policy statements in relation to school policy, classroom policy and subject policy.

4.3. Organizing

4.3.1. Concept of Organizing

The second management action is organizing. Organizing is the process of arranging and allocating work, authority, and resources among an organization’s members so they can achieve an organization’s goals efficiently. It involves putting in order of priority and preference the resources which are available.

Organizing in a school context means simply those tasks and the people who are to perform them are systematically grouped together in order to accomplish educative teaching. Organizing also entails the effective coordination of people, finances and other resources in order to achieve the purpose in hand.

Teachers should also have the knowledge of organizing because (a) on the one hand, the teachers are “organized” enabling them to understand better what the management team envisages and (b) on the other hand they must do some organizing themselves from time to time; although on a limited scale, giving teachers the opportunity to apply the basic principles of organizing.

4.3.2. Steps in Organizing

Organizing entails that the manager undertakes the following activities:
- grouping of tasks or division of work in order to attain objectives in an orderly manner
- delegation of duties, authority and responsibilities
- determining relationships between different persons so that they can work together to accomplish tasks
- a concerted effort by all concerned to realize set aims and objectives

The five steps in organizing are:
- determining objectives (according to formal policy)
- horizontal division of work (division of work between departments)
- vertical division of work (delegation of authority)
- coordination (so that all activities work towards attaining the same objective)
- control (standards are set, activities of staff are directed and accountability is exacted)

Activity 4.5.

Draw the structure and establishment chart for your school starting with the chairman of the school committee or governing body and ending with the position of the pupil. Preparing the chart should assist you in understanding the nature of your school as an organization.

Typical organizations have the following aspects clearly stated and understood by all the people in them and hose who have interest in them:
- title of the organization: its name, logo or symbol or emblem or badge or trade mark, motto, location and address
- the mission statement and objectives of the organization
- functions of the organization
- expected results and products.
Activity 4.6
State the following about your school: name, motto, logo; current mission statement and objectives; its functions; its expected and actual results for the last three years. If your school has none of these, it is maybe time you initiated them.

4.3.3. Informal Aspects of Organizing

Teachers’ individual contribution is very important since all teachers do not have the same talents. Good teachers interpret the organizing directives according to their unique character, try to attain set objectives and try to act in a thoughtful and professional manner at all times.

The following are informal aspects of the teacher’s organizing in the school:
- grouping of pupils
- distribution of work, material and books
- assignment of duties to pupil leaders
- dealing with crises that may arise during a lesson
- messages
- organizing class outings
- a filing system for schemes and marks

4.3.4. Guidelines for Effective Organizing

The following five guidelines, taking the school’s policy as a frame of reference, are important for effective or sound organizing.
- **Unity and diversity**: The division of work (individuality) and coordination of activities (universality) are equally important.
- **General and specific objectives**: Every objective should be designed to help fulfill the functional purpose of the school, which should not be neglected at the expense of another.
- **Division and coordination of activities**: Although tasks have to be shared out, coordination should ensure unity. One task should not be neglected at the expense of another.
- **Unity and division of authority**: Ideally, each teacher should be responsible to only one other person. However, because the teacher must perform a variety of tasks each day he or she will necessarily be responsible to various people. This is something that can cause stress if it is not handled correctly.
- **Group spirit as opposed to individual enthusiasm**: Individual enthusiasm on the part of novice teachers, in particular, is very important for the school. However, if this enthusiasm cannot be identified with the objectives of the school it will be detrimental to school spirit and will not promote the school’s functional task.

Activity 4.7
There are many different types of organizations. Note down some of the similarities and differences between a school, a hospital, a bank, in terms of the organization concepts discussed earlier. What might be the implications of these for management practice?

4.4. Decision-Making

4.4.1. Concept of Decision Making

To decide means to pass judgment or to make up one’s mind. It implies two or more alternatives under consideration. Decision-making is essentially choosing between alternatives. It is the most important management task and one that plays decisive role in achieving the school’s objectives. Making and carrying out decisions is a dominant part of everybody’s life.
The school manager is faced with alternative courses of action in virtually every situation that arises in the line of duty. However, before a decision can be made, he or she should analyze the situation thoroughly to identify the different courses of action available to him/her, the object of decision-making must always be to arrive at the best decision with a view to attaining the school’s goals.

4.4.2. The Decision Making Process

Everyone makes decisions, but managers make decisions that affect other people. The school principal is constantly making decisions of immediate concern to his or her staff, parent, community and pupils. It is therefore essential to take account of what decision making entails and what the associated responsibilities are.

Decision-making is not an event but a process due to the fact that a decision causes either an action or decision to be made which in turn causes another action or decision, etc. Decision-making has no formula. Some of the steps suggested in order to make decisions in a systematic approach are listed in the following Box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Steps to make decisions:</th>
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| **Step 1: Identify the problem:** This involves defining and analyzing the problem.  
A problem is said to exist when there is a gap between what is actually happening and what should be happening.  
Analyzing the problem calls for assessing the situation. i.e. searching the environment for conditions calling for decision. Seek answers to the following questions: What is the problem? Where is it located in the school’s organization? When did it take place? What is the magnitude/extent? What is true and what is not true about the problem? Is the problem unique? Does it require creativity? Is the problem generic? What causes the problem? How urgent is the problem? Is it something that requires immediate attention? What additional information is needed? What issues are involved? Who are involved? Who does the issue involve? |
| **Step 2: Develop or identify different options.** This involves finding or generating alternative solutions to the problem. School principals should avoid attempting to solve problems with haste. Looking at several alternative solutions generally increases the chance of making a sound decision. One way of developing alternatives is brainstorming- thinking of as many alternatives as possible without stopping to evaluate- either individually or in-group. |
| **Step 3: Weigh up the alternatives and select the best possible option from those available.** To do this, each of the alternatives must be evaluated on the basis of probable consequences in terms of actual outputs. |
| **Step 4: Choose the best alternative** |
| **Step 5: Implement the decision.** The quality of the decision and the level of acceptance it has gained by those involved in the implementation of the decision are very vital. |
| **Step 6: Follow up the implementation and evaluate the decision.** |

4.4.3. Types of Decisions and Decision-Making Styles

Two types of decisions are made: routine decisions and innovative decisions.

**Routine decisions** are repetitive or recurrent. Every principal or teacher has a hand in ensuring that education, school policies are implemented, and this often requires routine decision-making. There are for example standing instructions regarding homework. They make the right decision regarding what has to be done at a particular time. These are decisions that are made daily and are very often simply repeated because they know from experience which decisions “work”.

**Innovative decisions** are, on the other hand, unique and spontaneous. The broad guidelines set in the school policy still have to be reckoned with. This requires the ability to consider simultaneously all the variables associated with the issue at hand.

A principal or a teacher can employ different types of decision-making styles i.e.
- an autocratic decision-making style
- a democratic (or participative) decision-making style
Seen from the level of involvement in decision-making in schools, there could be four possibilities:

- one-man rule, when the head decides on his own;
- consultation, when the head asks others but makes his own decisions;
- delegation, when the head empowers others to make decisions in his/her name,
- participation, when the head is not given the power to reverse a decision made by some or all of the staff.

**ACTIVITY 4.8.**

“Although at times circumstances arise that justify an autocratic decision-making style, a participative decision-making style is usually the best in education.” Do you agree with this statement?

Why does the decision-making task always entail risk?

Why are decisions seldom completely final?

Which level/s of involvement (one-man rule, consultation, delegation, participation) do you recommend for a principal to give decisions? Why?

### 4.4.4. Group Decision Making:

More often than not, a number of people participate in important decisions in schools, and they come together to solve school problems. Participatory decision-making or group decision-making is nowadays given due attention because it helps to gain cooperative effort in the implementation of decisions.

**ACTIVITY 4.9:**

Group decision making is usually practiced in schools through meetings in the various departments, committees like academic, extracurricular activities coordinating committees, school boards, parent-teachers associations, staff meetings, clubs, etc.

What problems or shortcomings have you observed in the process of making decisions?

What are the reasons for these?

What do you suggest by way of improving the situation positively?

Groups have generally the potential to generate and evaluate more ideas, and once a decision is made, acceptance will be easier. Group decision-making has its own advantages and disadvantages.

Advantages of group decision making include the following.

**Decision quality:** bring together more resources. Members can often fill in each others’ information gaps. Groups are more vigilant, can generate more ideas, and can evaluate ideas better than individuals.

**Decision creativity:** Groups provide a greater number of approaches to a problem because individuals are more likely to be close-minded in their thinking. Because group members do not have identical approaches, each can contribute by getting people to become more open-minded in their thinking. Group participation increases performance. More participation leads to more creative thinking, which often results in more feasible solutions to problems.

**Decision acceptance:** Participation in decision making increases acceptance of the decision or the solution to the problem. Group decision making promotes acceptance of the decision.

**Decision understanding:** Group participation increases understanding of the decision. When group members have been involved in the decision making process, further information about the decision does not have to be provided to them. Moreover, members comprehend the decision better because they were involved in the developmental stages of the decision process.

**Decision judgment:** Groups are more effective at establishing objectives, identifying alternatives, and evaluating alternatives because of the increased knowledge and viewpoints available to them.

**Decision accuracy:** Because group members evaluate each other’s thinking, major errors tend to be avoided. Poor or non-feasible alternatives are more likely to be spotted.
4.4.5. Problems in Group Decision Making:

Group decision making takes too much time.

Indecision is a problem.

Members do not have the same sense of responsibility i.e. any accountability.

“Group think” is a problem. This happens when in-group pressures are high and that the group members’ desire for consensus becomes more important than evaluating problems and solutions realistically. The group members know each other well and think as a cohesive unit rather than as a collection of individuals.

There is tyranny of the majority, no matter how useful the ideas of the minority may be.

Suggestions to improve group decision-making

Consider the size and setting: Look for an optimum number of people involved at the making of decision at a time depending on the situation and the type of issue to be discussed. The place and time have to be convenient to members.

The meeting should be carefully planned ahead of time. Agenda should be well set.

Unhealthy conflicts have to be avoided. Healthy is conflict of ideas. Unhealthy is conflict of personalities.

Discourage hindering roles.

4.5. Planning

4.5.1. Concept of Planning

Planning is anticipatory decision-making that establishes programs of organizational goals and specific methods to achieve them, given the opportunities and constraints the environment renders. Planning is the conscious determination of courses of action designed to accomplish purposes. Planning is an essential activity for any organization that wants to survive and to achieve its objectives. The activity of planning can be thought of as a response to three major questions: Where are we now? Where do we want to be in the future? How are we going to get there?

To answer the question “Where are we now?” there is a need to assess the current position of the organization reviewing and analyzing data about the environment, the resources needed and the internal capability of the organization itself is essential.

In order to know where one wants to go it is necessary to have information about what the future will be like. Forecasting is a major task.

Determining how to get there requires setting plans of different types, i.e. determining what to do, how to do it, who is to do it and when and at different levels based on the information obtained for the first two questions.

Planning entails determining the organizations objectives and the ways in which these are to be attained. Planning plays an important role in any organization. Planning is a complex action because planning can be seen as the basis for the performance of other management actions such as organizing and control.

A school, and even a classroom, involves a great deal of organization and administration. This requires much planning on the part of the principal and the teacher. They plan for example the school time-table, daily or weekly lesson plans / study material, learning objectives, method of lesson presentation, techniques, aids and evaluation, etc. / Good planning comes with experience. Therefore, inexperienced principals and teachers should not be discouraged if they cannot carry out their planning perfectly.

4.5.2. Reasons for and benefits of Planning

Some reasons for doing planning are:

Resources for education are not as abundant as we want them to be.

Demands upon and expectations of the schools are being expressed much more vocally.

People want to know the educational outcomes they receive for the resources they provide.

There is a great deal of current criticism of schools and school programs, especially in terms of quality, etc.

Schools and teachers will be held accountable for the effectiveness of what they do.

Users, supporters, and practitioners are demanding more of a voice in determining how schools are organized and what they do.
As much as time taking and resources consuming planning is its advantages significantly outweigh its costs. Some of the main advantages of planning are the following.

Planning is the best way to ensure that an organization achieves its goals.
Planning makes the utilization of purposeful, prioritized and orderly activities possible.
Planning is the best way to coordinate actions among a variety of actors.
Unproductive work is minimized as a result of planning.
Planning promotes the use of measure of performance. It makes work more definitive within space and time limitations.
Planning provides for a greater utilization of available resource and facilities, i.e. avoids over and under utilization of scarce resources. Guesswork is minimized.
Planning compels visualization of the whole operative picture clearly and completely.
Planning can provide better information to justify what is currently being done.
Planning can suggest directions for new and modified programs.
Planning provides a way to involve users, supporters, and practitioners in meaningful and productive activities.
Planning can improve decision-making by providing better information.
Planning can stimulate people to see the big picture over the long haul rather than the narrow, short run snapshot.

Once the kind of programs are identified, planning can also help answer the following questions.

What kinds of staff members should be hired? What kind of skills should they possess?
How should staff members be oriented and assigned?
What kinds of in-service activities are needed to insure that staff members possess the skills required by the program?
How can staff members be evaluated?
How better can better resources be tied to program in the budgeting and accounting procedures?

Planning can help to measure and improve performance.

4.5.3. Dimensions of Planning

Time: The time horizon of a plan is an important distinction that can be made between various types of plans. Short term, medium term or the long term. How these are defined varies according to the organization’s needs and circumstances.

Scope: This refers to the level at which planning is carried out. It could be federal, regional, local, school levels. It may also be for a sector: health, education or water. With in a level of government the scope of the plan may be a ministry, an agency, etc. or a school, a department, homeroom. It could be for the whole programme or just for a project.

Complexity: Plans may have inherent complexity as the result of the number of different actors involved, e.g. A plan that involves several ministries or levels of government.

Focus: Qualitative aspects or quantitative aspects

Degree of Structure: Plans may be more or less formal and structured. While some degree of structure is necessary and a process must be defined, there must be flexibility to respond to changing environment.

4.5.4. Planning Phases and General Guidelines for Effective Planning

Some phases of the planning process are:
Identify and prioritize goals (where you want to go).
Look at current program in relation to priority goals (where you are now)
Identify major discrepancies, gaps-needs (needs assessment)
Develop program and instructional objectives related to identified needs.
There are different types of planning which are apparent in education:

- Programme planning /instructional and extracurricular/
- Facilities planning
- Financial planning
- Personnel planning
- Material supply and inventory planning

The phases of planning identified earlier apply to each of these types.

There are different levels of planning for each type. **Policy planning** emphasizes goals and objectives; what should be. **Strategic planning** has to do with posing alternate routes for achieving goals; how do we get there? **Tactical planning** entails identifying specific actions necessary to implement a strategy; what specific tasks must be accomplished? These levels are related in descending order from the general to the specific.

### Guidelines for effective planning

- Planning:
  - must be done with a view to effective change.
  - must be done within the bounds of policy.
  - must be consistent in its various facets.
  - must be flexible rather than rigid.
  - must take human limitations into account.
  - should preferably be written down.

The amount and nature of planning to be done depends on various factors. Included here are the type and subject of the lesson to be presented, the number of years a teacher has been teaching and the personality of the teacher. A teacher should always plan for each day’s activities. All those involved (for example, colleagues and pupils) should be given due consideration in the planning. Sound planning gives teachers the latitude to think creatively. It is a continuous process and it should preferably be done in good time, that is, well in advance.

### Why do plans fail?

- Plans usually fail because of:
  - Lack of commitment,
  - Poor planning,
  - Confusion of planning studies with plans as many people believe they have planning when they all have a planning study.
  - Failure to develop and implement sound strategies,
  - Lack of meaningful objectives, and
  - Tendency to underestimate the importance of planning premises

### 4.6. Communication

#### 4.6.1. Basic Concept of Communication

Communication is the process of sharing information to achieve a common understanding between others and us. It is the act of transmitting information, thoughts, opinions, or feelings, through speech, signs, or actions, from a source to a receiver. Communication is essential for effective social interaction between people. Information, and therefore knowledge, cannot be conveyed or transmitted unless effective communication takes place. The school’s first concern is the transfer or transmission of knowledge. Communication should be effective to convey and enable abstract thought. Without effective communication there can be no exchange of information.
The word “communication” is derived from the Latin word *communis*, which literally means trying to gain mutual understanding. In essence communication means the transmission (encoding), receipt and interpretation (decoding) of messages by means of a specific medium. However, people also communicate by what they do not say or do.

A principal will communicate with a wide variety of people in a number of different ways about specific situations, problems, or issues. As a communicator, a principal needs to be aware of six basic aspects of communication:

- the purpose to be achieved by the message.
- the person(s) to whom the message is directed.
- the sender of the message
- the content of the message, i.e. the message to be conveyed
- the alternative channels for communicating the message.
- the need for feedback or a response to the message, indicating whether the message was understood, the sender’s communication skills

More specifically, MSCREF may represent the elements in communication:

- M: Message
- S: Source
- C: Channel
- R: Receiver
- E: Effect
- F: Feedback

Communication takes place mainly through language. Language consists of signs and symbols. Methods of communication include verbal methods such as oral and written communication (listening, too), but also nonverbal methods such as facial expressions and gestures made with various parts of the body, particularly the hands. As long as those who receive the signs and/or symbols interpret them correctly they are vested with meaning, which can lead to effective learning.

Culture and communication are interrelated. A sign can assume different meanings for different cultural groups because of differences in interpretation. It is essential that the sender convey his/her message with particular clarity.

### 4.6.2. Channels of Communication

In a school’s management hierarchy there are particular channels of communication for particular purposes. For example, besides a particular group of subjects, a head of department is also responsible for certain parts of the school’s extramural programme. A teacher would therefore communicate with different members of the management team about different matters. Consequently there are different channels of communication, which can be divided by type into formal and informal channels.

When a principal delegates an instruction concerning a teacher’s subject to that teacher via a head of department he is making use of the formal channel of communication. When a teacher gives feedback it should be through the formal channel of communication (via the department head). This is an example of vertical communication. Teachers who teach the same subject also communicate in a formal manner with one another. This is an example of horizontal communication. Both happen through a formal channel of communication.

Besides formal channels of communication, organizations have informal channels collectively known as the “grapevine”. Rumors on the grapevine may create harmful or incorrect impressions. Thus there is a need to handle them carefully. Managers often become frustrated with grapevines particularly when they carry incorrect rumors. Managers cannot stop grapevines. They exist against the will of managers. In this regard, managers are advised to

- increase the accuracy of the grapevine by feeding it correct information.
- try to reduce the relevance that is placed on the grapevines by making certain that formal communication is complete and timely.

### 4.6.3. Barriers to communication

People often listen rather than hear and look rather than see; communication is basically about effective hearing and seeing. In ineffective communication, the receiver does not have the same interpretation as the message sender. Several barriers to communication contribute to this end. Some of which are the following.
Barriers to Communication

- Using symbols or words that have different meanings
- Having different values
- Different perceptions of the problem
- Emphasis on status
- Conflict in interest
- Making decisions by majority vote rather than seeking consensus
- Attempts to keep feelings out of the discussion
- Use of words to prevent thinking
- Lack of desire to understand the other person’s point of view or feelings or values or purposes
- Lack of acceptance diversity a one-way concept of cooperation
- Feelings of superiority
- Vested interests
- Feelings of personal insecurity
- An obvious attempt to sell
- The concepts that the sender and receiver have of their roles
- Negative feelings about the situation

Activity 4.10.
Discuss each of the seventeen barriers to communication listed above and give examples for each.

4.6.4. Improving Communication

The points in the Box are suggested for a manager/principal to improve his/her communication.

**Suggestions to improve one’s communication:**

- **Communicate:** People need information. Unless they are given the information on time, they make assumptions or resort to grapevines. So communicate on time.
- **Know your objective:** what do you want to achieve? (inform, praise, discipline, etc)
- **Know the receiver:** (for example, the lazy teacher/learner) and the reason for the communication (for example, bad communication results)
- **Formulate your message:** be clear, specific and understandable by using short and simple sentences.
- **Be complete:** Make certain that the message is complete. Tell the whole story. Otherwise people make assumptions to fill the missing part and may distort the message totally.
- **Be clear and brief:** Effective communication involves transmitting and understanding information. Make the message clear so that people can understand you. Do not include unnecessary information. Avoid emotional messages, exaggerations, etc.
- **Consider how the message is best communicated:** this can be just as essential as the content.
- **Watch your timing:** Select proper time to communicate. Messages received too late would not be of much use. Message received too early could also cause problem.
- **Be aware of:** your attitude, behavior, non-verbal communication, gestures and facial expressions. Keep in mind that: positive feelings and emotions inspire positive attitudes amongst the staff and learners.
- **Encourage upward communication** (pupil to teacher, teacher to principal, etc.)
- **Listen effectively:** an effective communicator must be a good listener.
- **Make use of effective feedback:** communication is a two-way process so always ask questions to determine whether the message has been understood.
- **Use the grapevine**
4.6.5. Effective Communication and Managing Staff Meetings

Leadership is managing groups effectively. One way of managing groups is through the use of meetings. Meetings may have the following purposes;
- to make decisions
- to convey information
- to gather information
- to resolve a particular problem.

Meetings could be centers for communication break if not managed properly. Meetings could be unproductive, costly, time consuming and frustrating the participants.

Meetings are usually classified as follows.
- Statutory meetings: An assembly of persons meeting in accordance with legally defined rules and procedures to discharge business as required by law.
- Command meetings: These are meetings held to give instruction by super ordinates to subordinates
- Committee meetings: Meetings to make decisions on matters of mutual interest, or to forward recommendations to the organization which entrusted them to do so. The status of the committee could either be ad-hoc or standing.
- Collegiate meetings: Meetings held between persons of similar levels of professional competence i.e. skills and knowledge.
- Advisory meetings: Meeting discusses on specific problems facing the organization and advises the manager on steps to be taken or on solutions to be found. These are not decision making meetings.
- Negotiating meetings: These types of meetings involve at least two sides having their own objectives and negotiating.
- Management meetings: These are meetings held by the management of an organization.
- General/public; to report back to a group, for example, an annual general meeting of staff members or to air matters of membership meetings, public inquiries into public interest matters.

Activity 4.11
a) In your experience, what type of meeting would you arrange for the following?
   - A staff meeting;
   - To plan a school fund raising activity;
   - To discuss the behavior of a teacher with your student council;
   - To meet with the school board/

b) Discuss the reasons why you have made a particular choice.

The success of any meeting highly depends on the role played by both the chairperson of the meeting and the participants. The chairperson as a leader of the discussion should
- Create an atmosphere that is easy, businesslike;
- Guide the flow of discussion;
- Clarify questions when as necessary;
- Keep participants on the topic
- Keep order of the discussion;
- Summarize the discussion
- Watch if participants are still active.

Moreover,
For success of any meeting, the readiness to accept views of others /restraint and tolerance/, preparedness to learn from others and adapt to new approach and competence /open-mindedness and adaptability/, and reflecting sound technical knowledge are important for both the leader and the participants.
Each meeting should have a purpose that all participants recognize.
Meetings should not close without reaching conclusions.
A formal record or minutes should be kept of every meeting.
Attempt should be made to improve meetings from evaluation.

Activity 4.12:

Think of the several meetings held in your school or institution.

a) Give examples of meetings that fit the seven classifications of meetings mentioned above.

b) Discuss your experience of participation in a successful meeting and/or unsuccessful meeting and give reasons for each.

Staff meetings provide means of communication between the head and teachers on matters concerning the school affairs. An essential feature of successful meetings is good communication. The school head who communicates effectively can create an environment of trust. This is important so that the members of a school community can feel secure and confident enough to communicate freely and openly in staff meetings and other forums.

Some of the important practical things to remember about staff meetings are the following.

staff meeting notice: This should show the date, time, venue, and purpose/agenda of the meeting, who is to attend the meeting and the head’s signature as the convener and the school seal if there is any.

The notice should be sent out at least 7-14 days before the meeting so that teachers can prepare information for items on the agenda. However, impromptu and emergency staff meetings can take place any time. Scheduled staff meetings should not interfere with normal teaching time.

Minutes of the meeting: This is a brief record of things discussed, noted, adopted, agreed upon during the meeting. Some schools give consecutive numbers to minutes of staff meetings for reference, for example SM/2/2003 means the second staff meeting in 2003.

Minutes of staff meetings usually include:

title, date, time and venue of meeting
attendance/absence with and without apology
opening of the meeting /adoption of the agenda
announcements
confirmation and matters arising from previous meeting(s)
new business/agenda
any other business.

Planning staff meeting: It is important that you plan your meetings in order to reach agreements, resolve problems, receive reports on actions undertaken and formulate plans of action.

Activity 4.13

To prepare yourself for your next meeting, list the activities you have to do:

well in advance of a meeting;
the day before a meeting;
on the day of a meeting;
during a meeting;
after the meeting.

4.7. Control

4.7.1. The Concept

Control is determining whether task performance is in line with objectives and with what was planned. Further controlling involves taking action on any deviations that are found between actual and planned occurrences. In this sense control may be considered as a remedial activity.
Controlling involves three main elements:

- Establishing standards of performance
- Measuring current performance
- Comparing this performance to the established standards, and if deviations are detected, taking corrective action.

For the school situation this means a principal must exercise control to make sure that the management actions are performed. He/she tries to make sure through control that all inputs are used to best advantage with a view to achieving the set objectives; the school’s objectives.

### 4.7.2. Control and Authority

Anyone who exercises control does so because he or she has been vested with power. Control therefore presumes authority. Authority is needed to exercise control.

The exercise of control includes such things as disciplining, checking, remedial action, evaluation and feedback. The following sources of power are distinguished in the management sciences.

**Physical power:** It is the power of superior force. The bully or the big man has it. The tyrant or the commander of the army has it.

**Reward power:** There must be a control of the resources, and those resources must be desired by the potential recipient. A manager for instance has resource power to the extent that he/she can give promotion or pay increases to his/her subordinates. Resources do not have to be material.

**Group power:** is the power vested by a dominant group.

**Expert power:** is the power that is vested in someone because of his/her acknowledged expertise. Expert power is comparative. Anyone is an expert who knows more than anyone else around. Even a small differential in expertise can give one man great power over his/her fellows if that expertise happens to be in great demand.

**Legitimate power:** called also position power. It is the power that comes as a result of the role or the position in the organization. The manager is by right allowed to order people to do so-and-so. Example an inspector is by right allowed to inspect other people’s work.

**Charismatic power:** Called also personal power resides in the person and in his/her personality. It can be enhanced by his/her position or by his/her expert status.

A teacher wields a certain kind of power over his or her pupils (expert power) on account of his or her position and, more particularly, his or her specialized knowledge, but he or she can forfeit this power very easily through incompetence. Not all teachers have personality or charismatic power but every teacher who knows his or her subject and who knows how to teach it can obtain and retain expert power. This teacher is able to command respect from his or her pupils and will not be likely to encounter problems with discipline.


Give as many examples as possible for each of the sources of power, i.e. physical, reward, group, expert, legitimate, charismatic powers.

### 4.7.3. Methods of Influence

The above mentioned bases of power allow one to use one or more methods of influence. These methods of influence can be divided into two classes: the overt and the unseen. Force, exchange, rules and persuasion are the most obvious, or overt, methods used to get another to do something. On the other hand, there are also unseen and unperceived methods of influence: ecology and magnetism.

**a) Overt methods of influence**

*Force* is the crudest of the methods. It derives from physical power or, occasionally from resource power. A applies force, or the threat of force, to influence B to do what he/she wants him/her to do.

A vast amount of influence in our society, from childhood to old age, is exerted through *rules and procedures*. A can influence B to do something by laying down a rule that something must be done by all people in B’s position. It need not necessarily be an influence attempt on B specifically, but on all people in B’s position. If A is going to use rules and
procedures A must have the perceived right to institute these rules and procedures; and the means and will to enforce them, i.e. the appropriate power base.

Another method of influence is exchange. A agrees with B to give him/her something in return for desired behavior. Exchange methods can follow from any power source, depending on what is offered. But resource and position power are the most frequent bases.

Persuasion is another method of influence that relies supposedly on logic, the power of argument and the evidence of the facts. It is the preferred method of influence. However, in practice, it nearly always, gets contaminated by one of the other methods.

Activity: 4.15.
   a) Describe the strengths and weaknesses of each of the methods of influence.
   b) Which ones have long lasting effects? Why?

b) Covert methods of influence

Ecology is the study of the relationship between an environment and its organisms. The ecology of an organization, which refers to the relationship of the environment to individual behaviour or attitudes, is important. Behavior and attitudes occur within an environment, a physical, a psychological, and a sociological environment. That environment has its effects upon them.

For instance, in the physical environment, noise tends to impair performance on complicated tasks. Seating patterns tend to affect interaction patterns. Dangerous surroundings increase tension and lower productivity.

In the psychological and sociological environments, small groups are easier to participate in than large groups.

To ignore the influence of the environment is implicitly to accept constraints and conditions, to take a negative decision about influence. To adjust the environment in order to remove constraints or facilitate some aspect of behaviour is indirect influence. Attention to the way things are done, ecology, is one way of eliciting desired behaviour from individuals. To a very large extent, ecology consists in seeing that environmental aspects do not prevent or obstruct normal behavior.

It would be useless if ecological considerations are only taken into account after the event rather than before. The size of the group, the facilities, the time available, the method of decision-making, are all within the scope of the manager to change, no matter how weak his/her power base.

Magnetism, the invisible but felt pull of a stronger force, is the application of personal power. We have all felt, at some time, the perhaps illogical, often inexplicable, attraction of an individual, the desire to work with and for him/her whenever he/she called.

We are often influenced by someone not so much because of his/her personality but rather because we trust or respect him. Such a man does not have to persuade us, or to give us rules. We will follow him and be pulled towards him, because we are convinced of his ability, or of his principles, or of his loyalty to us. This pulling power, this magnetism of trust can stem from expert power at least as frequently as from personal power, for we will trust those whom we dislike if we respect their competence.

Empathy, the feeling of being pulled towards someone because you share the same views or convictions, because you suffer with them or rejoice with them, is another manifestation of magnetism. Trust, respect, charm, infectious enthusiasm, these attitudes all allow us to influence people without apparently imposing on them. The invisibility of magnetism is a major attraction as is its attachment to one individual. Each of us in some way is a magnet to someone, but the magnetism is unique, special to ourselves.

4.7.4. Different Methods of Control at School Level

There are two distinct forms of control, namely educational and administrative control.

Educational control would include matters such as written preparation and reports by teachers, class visits by the principal and written work and tests done by the pupils. Therefore, it includes everything relating to the functions or task of the school.

The principal, in turn, is required to report on his own activities to the woreda/ regional office, the educational and training board, among others. The school must therefore make information available to these bodies on a continuous basis so that certain aspects of the school can be controlled. This kind of control is known as administrative control, which applies to all administrative matters.
4.8. Leadership

4.8.1. The Concept

Leadership is a management task through which direction is given to people’s combined activities to ensure that they perform the tasks required to attain the set objective effectively. Leadership is therefore the task that a principal must perform in order to cause people to act effectively.

Similarly, the teacher is essentially a child leader. Pupils can only realize their potential optimally with the assistance of the leader. The teacher must orientate the pupils and point the way to that objective. This calls for knowledge and attributes such as creativity, initiative, foresight and future-orientedness.

Every class in the school is a unique entity that makes unique demands on the teacher. This calls for adaptability. The teacher must be able to lead a specific group as an effective team so that educative teaching can be realized. Teachers implement their planning and organizing through leadership, with the result that sound management characterizes their classrooms, that the objectives of their classes are attained, and that their instructional task proceeds with effortless ease. The teacher’s leadership will also determine how educative the climate in the classroom is.

Leadership has the following five important components.

A leader should always
- strive to maintain good human relations
- be prepared to serve
- be willing to bear responsibility
- display unlimited self-control in every situation
- be genuinely committed to both the cause and those who are supposed to benefit from it.

Teachers must know how they can exercise leadership and to what extent their effectiveness as leaders can be increased. Thus, it is necessary to take note of the different theories on leadership to be found in the literature.

4.8.2. Leadership Theories

Trait Theory

According to trait theory, personality determines leadership. A leader should have certain personality traits in order to be an effective leader. The characteristics include the following:

- adaptability
- insight into human nature
- ability to promote and maintain good human relations
- a sense of responsibility
- strong commitment to service
- involvement
- favourable disposition for teamwork.

ACTIVITY 4.16.

a) How important are personality traits for effective leadership?
b) Can possession of the traits alone guarantee effective leadership?

Contingency Theory

According to contingency theory, leadership is determined by the situation. The theory is based on the premise that different situations require different personality traits and skills. The situation the principal/teacher has to deal with is determined by factors such as the size of the school, the school climate and culture, and the type of school. Furthermore, situations change from one moment to the next and the teacher’s leadership style would have to change continuously and be flexible in order to meet the varied needs of all his or her pupils.
Group Function Theory

According to group function theory, group behaviour is a form of leadership. Leadership is not merely the conduct of a specific person who is called the “leader”. Leadership takes the form of participation by the group members, with the result that any behaviour that helps the group to attain its objectives or serve its purposes is a form of leadership. Members of a group, in which case leadership is initiated from within the group itself, can share the leadership task and role.

Relationship-task Interaction Theory

This theory explains leadership in terms of the interaction between the two poles evident in leadership situations, namely task relations and human relations on the one hand, and the leader’s attitude to these relations on the other hand. Some leaders tend to overemphasize the task (the so-called task-oriented leader) while others absolutize human relations (the so-called people-oriented leader). The ideal healthy leader tries to strike a healthy balance between relationships and the task. He or she would be intent on getting a certain quantity of work done while taking account, at the same time, of the needs and feelings of those with whom he or she is working.

ACTIVITY 4.17.

a) Discuss why it is said that in effect leadership is leading groups effectively.

b) In your opinion, is it possible to be a task-oriented leader without being people-oriented or the other way round? Explain.

4.8.3. Leadership Styles

Three general leadership styles are identified.

a) The autocratic leadership style

Autocratic leadership is leader-oriented and basically dictatorial. Authoritarian leaders lead by using power and followers are alienated. The leaders make all the decisions and keep to an inflexible, fixed schedule. Only one-way communication occurs because the leader gives instructions and the followers must carry them out.

Some of the disadvantages of this style of leadership are:

- lack of cooperation
- damping of initiative
- inhibition of creative thought
- inadequate communication
- a strained atmosphere in the work place/classroom

On the other hand, an autocratic style may provide a degree of certainty for those beneath the leader. They may feel safe because they do not have to be involved in solving problems. The autocratic leader usually has great self-confidence, a clear vision of what needs to be done, and the political skills to get things done.

ACTIVITY 4.18.

a) What are the advantages of the autocratic leadership style?

b) Can you think of a few examples of this leadership style? List them.

c) Is it possible for this leadership style to disappear altogether?

b) The democratic leadership style

In this style, the head believes that the staff should be involved in decision making processes. Decisions are arrived at after consultation with the staff, and even with the pupils. A democratic style allows freedom of thought and action within the framework of the mission and objectives of the school.

This style is group-centered, with the result that decentralized authority and decision-making typify it. The democratic leader helps the group to realize its objectives. Group members are involved in the determination of aims and the planning and execution of activities. This results in a positive group spirit.
Some of the advantages of such a style for the classroom are that
two-way communication takes place
a relaxed atmosphere prevails
pupils feel free to make contributions
maintaining authority is easy
pupils’ individual initiative and creativity are fostered

c) Laissez-faire leadership

This leadership style is individual-centered and leadership is exercised by suggestion and delegation. The success depends exclusively on the contributions of the followers. Where laissez-faire style is taken too far there is hardly any leadership and group members are allowed maximum freedom. In such cases, the leader actually merges with the background and allows his or her followers to assert themselves without restraint.

The head who uses this style of management believes that there should be no rules and regulations since everyone has the ‘inborn sense of responsibility’.

ACTIVITY 4.19.
Does the laissez-faire leadership have much value in the school context? Why?
Are there any disadvantages of adopting this style in the school and/or in the classroom?

ACTIVITY 4.20
Many management decisions are needed to ensure that a school runs smoothly and effectively. Which style of leadership/management would you use to reach decisions on the following components of decision-making in the school: the time table; the extra-curricular programmes; a fire in one of the laboratories; homework policies; the class monitor’s duties?