Indira Gandhi National Open University
Staff Training and Research Institute of
Distance Education

MDE-414
Management of Distance Education

Block

1

EDUCATIONAL SYSTEMS MANAGEMENT

UNIT 1
Management Functions and Processes: An Overview **9**

UNIT 2
Management of Educational Systems **34**

UNIT 3
Managing Educational Institutions **57**

UNIT 4
Management Processes in Education **83**

MDE-414: Management of Distance Education

(New Course in place of ES-314 : Management of Distance Education)

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Course Outline

Block 1 : Educational Systems Management

Unit 1 : Management Functions and Processes: An Overview
Unit 2 : Management of Educational Systems
Unit 3 : Managing Educational Institutions
Unit 4 : Management Processes in Education

Block 2 : Management of Higher Education

Unit 1 : Higher Education in India: Retrospect and Prospect
Unit 2 : Higher Education in the Developing Countries: An Overview
Unit 3 : Higher Education in the Globalized World
Unit 4 : Management of Higher Education: Systemic Level
Unit 5 : Management of Higher Education: Institutional Level

Block 3 : Planning and Management of Distance Education

Unit 1 : Understanding Distance Education Systems
Unit 2 : Distance Education Methods and Practices
Unit 3 : Organizational Structure of Higher Distance Education Institutions
Unit 4 : Management of Distance Education Systems
Unit 5 : Issues in Planning and Management of Distance Education Institution

Block 4 : Planning and Management of ODL Institutions-Case Studies

Unit 1 : Management of a Mega Open University: A Case of IGNOU
Unit 2 : Promotion and Coordination of Distance Education in the Country
Unit 3 : Management of a National Open University: A Case of NOUN
Unit 4 : UNISA: A Case Study
Unit 5 : Management of a Provincial Open University: A Case of BRAOU
Unit 6 : Management of a Dual Mode Institution: A Case of IDOL

Block 5 : Management of Change

Unit 1 : Strategies for Management of Change
Unit 2 : Factors Affecting and Facilitating Change
Unit 3 : Quality Management in Open and Distance Learning Institutions
Unit 4 : Organizational Mechanisms for Self-Renewal

MDE-414 MANAGEMENT OF DISTANCE EDUCATION

Course Introduction

Education management is a relatively new discipline, and the functions and processes associated with education are quite different from those normally associated with any other enterprise. Therefore, a broad familiarity of the organisation of the education system, its structures and functions as well as its processes, is very essential to have a better understanding of the tasks associated with the organisation and management of distance education. With these objectives in view, we have designed this course on Management of Distance Education. This course, when initially conceived and developed in 1994, relied heavily on the literature and experience then available. During the last few years, we have learnt a great deal and this revised course on Management of Distance Education attempts to share our own learning and experience with you.

This course consists of the following five blocks.

As we said, Block 1 gives an overview of Management functions and processes. This introduction to the principles and practices of management is designed to provide you with a broad familiarity with the art and science of management, which as a discipline relies heavily on business studies. With this understanding, we move to look at the organisation and structure of the education systems, how they are constituted, who runs them and how they relate themselves to one another. From these macro-management concerns, we move to look at the micro-management issues at the institutional level and then take a look at the educational processes and the issues associated with their management.

Block 2 is about Management of Higher Education, and its focus is Indian Higher Education along with other developing countries . And this focus remains so in Blocks 3 and 4 as well. We have a good reason for doing so. We believe that management theories are generalised views based on practices and experience. In our view, the Indian experience has considerable significance and relevance at least to the developing country contexts globally, and at any rate, in size and complexity, the Indian experience provides a wide range of experiences to draw upon. It is to relate this Indian experience to the global context that we take a broad-brush treatment of Higher Education in the Third World countries, in Unit 2 and 3 of Block 2.

Blocks 3 and 4 deal with the specifics of Planning and Management in Distance Education. We treat this theme at two different levels. First, we look at the theories and practices in Planning and Management on the basis of the literature on distance education. From there, we move to look at these concerns in the Indian context, partly to establish the validity of the existing theoretical framework, and partly also to point out that new practices and principles are established as distance education gets universally organised as an evolving system.

At the core of this evolution is the issue of change, and how changes are managed. We discuss the issues involved in the management of change in Block 5, somewhat on a more abstract theoretical framework to enable you to reflect on the issues rather than look at quick-fix solutions. We conclude the discussion on management of change with a close look at the ways in which a distance teaching institution can also learn, so that it can stay upfront in managing changes.

BLOCK INTRODUCTION

This block introduces you to the general principles and practices associated with management as a profession. Two basic concepts that are central to the understanding of these principles and practices are (a) organisation and (b) management. An organisation is a structured process in which persons interact for attaining some objectives. It follows that all organisations have people involved with one another in some way, for one or more specific purpose or purposes and that their involvement is in an ordered (structured) manner. The second concept of management is about leading an organisation to purposeful, coordinated, goal-driven activities.

These concepts and practices are by no means exclusive to the domain of business or industry; they are equally relevant to all organised endeavors irrespective of their objectives.

Unit 1 of this block take you through the basic functions and processes associated with management. Though this unit might appear to be a little too long, we thought you should have a fairly comprehensive overview of what managers do, and how they go about doing their work, so that you have just enough understanding of the essentials in grappling with the management of educational systems.

In Unit 2 we look at the organisation and structure of education systems at the macro level, their constituents and the relationships among them. Unit 3 discusses the management of educational institutions at the micro level with a focus on the distinctive features of academic organisations and the issues involved in their management. We look at the processes associated with education in Unit 4 with a view to understand their unique characteristics and their effect on the functions of managing them.

We hope you will find this course useful and rewarding.

LET US BEGIN HERE

Study Guide

The course on Management of Distance Education is divided into five Blocks. This is the first of them. It comprises four units in all. A schematic representation of the design of units is given below to facilitate your access to the content presented here.

Unit X*

X.1 Introduction

X.2 Objectives

X.3 Section 1 (Main Theme)

X.3.1 Sub-section 1 of Section 1

X.3.2 Sub-section 2 of Section 1

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.....

Check Your Progress

X.4 Section 2 (Main Theme)

X.4.1 Sub-section 1 of Section 2

X.4.2 Sub-section 2 of Section 2

.....

.....

.....

Check Your Progress

Wherever, check your progress exercises appear; they are in boxes to stand out from the rest of the text.

X.n Let Us Sum Up

Check Your Progress: Possible Answers

* 'X' stands for the serial number of the unit concerned.

As the scheme suggests, we have divided the units into sections for easy reading and better comprehension. Each section is indicated distinctly by bold capitals[1] and each sub-section by relatively smaller but bold[2] upper and lower typeface. The significant divisions within subsections are in still smaller but bold[3] upper and lower typeface so as to make it easier for you to see their place within sub-sections. For purposes of uniformity, we have employed the same scheme of 'partitioning' in every unit throughout the course.

We begin each unit with the section 'Introduction' followed by 'Objectives', which articulate briefly

- What we have presented in the unit, and
- What we expect from you once you have finished working on the unit.

In the last section of each unit, under the heading, 'Let Us Sum Up', we summarise the whole unit for purposes of recapitulation and ready reference.

Besides, we have given self-check exercises under the caption 'Check Your Progress' at a few places in each unit and at the end of the unit is given possible answers to the questions set in these exercises.

What, perhaps, you ought to do is to go through the units and jot down important points as you read in *the space provided in the margin.* (Broad margins in the booklet are there for you to write your notes on. Make your notes as you work through the materials. This will help you prepare for the examination and also help in assimilating the content. Besides, you will be able to save on time— do use these margins.) This will help you keep track of and assimilate what you have been reading in the unit; answer the Check Your Progress exercises and the, assignment questions and easily identify the item(s) to be clarified.

We hope that we have given enough space for you to work on the Check Your Progress exercises. The purpose of giving "Check Your Progress" will be served satisfactorily if you compare your answers with the possible ones given at the end of each unit after having written your answer in the blank space. You may be tempted to have a furtive glance at the possible answer(s), as soon as you come across an exercise. But we do hope that you will

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[1] BOLD CAPITALS

[2] relatively smaller but bold

[3] *Still smaller but bold*

overcome the temptation and turn to the possible answers (which are not necessarily the best answers) only after you have written yours.

These exercises are not meant to be submitted to us for correction or evaluation. Instead, the exercises are to function as a study tool to help you keep on the right track as you read the units.

On an average, each block will have at least one or a part of one assignment. At times an assignment may expect you to work through more than one unit to prepare your responses. In all, you have to work on one assignment per course consisting of a few parts covering all the blocks of the course. Assignments are sent separately and they are changed every year.

We suggest the following norms to be strictly practised while you are working through the assignments.

- Write your roll number legibly.
- Before you put anything down in words, assimilate what you have read, integrate it with what you have gathered from your experience to build your answer, and preferably prepare a concept map before starting to write it.
- Make the best use of the block and additional reading materials by diligently working through the assignments.

At the end of this block, we have provided a questionnaire to be filled by you after you complete reading this block. Your feedback will be very useful for future revision and maintenance of the course. Please take note of the time you devote in studying this block. Maybe you complete this block after 4-5 sittings. But for every sitting, kindly note the time separately so that you can categorically say how much time you took to read this block. You can send the feedback questionnaire by post or you can e-mail the same to: crkmurthy@ignou.ac.in. You may also contact us for any difficulties related to the programme in general and MDE-414 in particular.

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UNIT 1 MANAGEMENT FUNCTIONS AND PROCESSES: AN OVERVIEW

Structure

1.1 Introduction

1.2 Objectives

1.3 The Systems Concept

1.4 Management Functions

- 1.4.1 Administration and Management
- 1.4.2 Leadership and Creativity
- 1.4.3 Planning and Controlling
- 1.4.4 Organising
- 1.4.5 Leading and Motivating

1.5 Management Processes

- 1.5.1 Policy Formulation
- 1.5.2 Decision-making
- 1.5.3 Planning Processes
- 1.5.4 Creating the Structure
- 1.5.5 Controlling Processes

1.6 Let Us Sum Up

1.7 Check Your Progress: Possible Answers

1.1 INTRODUCTION

How does one begin a course on Management of Distance Education? Of course, we begin from the very beginning. That means, to begin with, one needs to know what management is all about before one begins thinking about managing specialized systems and organisations. This Unit tries to take you through the basics of management, its functions, methods and practices. Remember, this is not a course for a business management student; all that this unit seeks to endeavour is to acquaint you with the functions of management and its processes. This limited objective is sought to be achieved through as simple and straightforward a presentation as possible.

1.2 OBJECTIVES

On completion of this Unit, you should be able to:

- *describe* the concepts of organisational systems and their components;
- *identify* the major functions that the management of organisations involves;
- *analyse* the processes associated with the performance of major management functions; and
- *explain* the roles and responsibilities of managers in any organisation.

1.3 THE SYSTEMS CONCEPT

As you go about the business of living, you find that you are surrounded by organisations of different kinds, big and small, formal and informal,

economic and religious, government and private, educational and cultural, social and political. You belong, at the same time, to many of these groups; at any rate, your life and living are largely influenced, even conditioned, by these organisations and their work. And many a time, you will find that you are negotiating with one or more of these organisations, and are adjusting with the ways in which they work to find your own space and establish your own identity.

We know from the beginning of recorded history that even the early groups of human beings had grown into complex organisations; the tribes, the religions, the army, the empires and the merchants. Today, diverse organisations are interwoven in a complex tapestry in which you and other members of these organisations are bonded more and more closely together, without perhaps, fully realising it. Satellite communication networks now link people through a meticulously organised system which has its own protocol, code of conduct and patterns of interaction. All these are outcomes of organisation, which is, in its simplest form, a structured process in which people interact with one another for fulfilling specific objectives.

This definition of an organisation may seem very simple, but in a complex organisation, there are countless interactions at various levels among large numbers of people. For instance, in a University, there are students, teachers, deans and heads, administrators and accountants, laboratory technicians and janitors, estate managers and canteen workers. While all of them are working for the purpose of the university, each one of them is also working for the fulfilment of a personal purpose. Some of these purposes are noble and idealistic, some very practical, some supporting and reinforcing others, while some might be in conflict with others. But overall, they all contribute to the purpose of the university, and therefore, each of these purposes, and the ways in which they are sought to be achieved, are all organically related to the organisation of the university. It is this relationship of several elements that constitute the structure of an organisation that we call a system. In other words, a system is defined as the aggregate of several inter-related components (sub-systems) which have been put together according to a specific scheme or plan, and in order to achieve stated objectives.

A system has the following components:

- A number of parts or sub-systems which when put together in a specific manner form the whole system;
- Boundaries within which each part exists;
- A specific goal or goals expressed in terms of performing a task, producing an output or providing a service, etc.; and
- Close inter-relationship and interdependence among the different sub-systems.

The inter-relationship among the sub-systems can be identified in the following terms:

- The *flows* that exist between them, such as the flow of information, materials, money, and so on;
- The *structure* within which they relate to each other;
- The *procedures* by which the sub-systems relate to one another;
- The *feedback* and the control process and mechanisms which exist to ensure that the system is moving towards the desired objectives.

In our example of the university as an organisation, there are several sub-systems that include:

- Prescribing the courses, determining the curricula, and setting the standards of achievement for the students;
- Admitting students, collecting fees, maintaining records;
- Recruiting teachers, training them and administering their conditions of service;
- Holding examinations and certifying the performance of the students;
- Construction and maintenance of buildings, classrooms, laboratories, student hostels, staff houses, etc.;
- Buying equipment, furniture, books, stationery, etc., as well as ensuring their maintenance and managing the inventory;
- Administering the organisation and its finances.

You will notice from the above that within the context of a university, each of the set of functions listed above does not have independent existence or goals. Courses have to be prescribed to enrol students, teachers have to be appointed to teach them, examinations have to be held to test the outcome of students' learning and grade their performance, and each of these functions should inform the other for achieving the university's goals of educating the people. In order to ensure that all this happens in an orderly manner, each of these functional areas has to be structured with its roles, responsibilities and relationships with each other clearly defined, and the methods and processes of interaction among them specified through appropriate procedures.

Organisations, at their core, are defined by the people who constitute them. They are therefore part of the social systems which constantly interact with their environment. They are also known as open systems which, in a larger context, are the sub-systems of the environment within which they operate. The environment itself consists of social, economic, political and legal sub-systems. In our example of the university, you will notice how the environment influences the determination of policies, courses, admission procedures and so on from time to time. The national policies that guide the education system would determine the university policies on admission of students and appointment of teachers (equal opportunities, special provisions for the disadvantaged sections, remedial programmes for the weaker students); induction of new technologies would influence the methods of teaching and learning (communication technologies, computer applications); and funding regimes would affect the scales of fees charged for different programmes.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.

ii) Check your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

How do you visualize the inter-relationship among the several sub-systems of a university as an organization? Answer in about 50 words.

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1.4 MANAGEMENT FUNCTIONS

Management is about directing the energies and resources of organisations to purposeful, coordinated and goal-oriented activities. The functions of managers include policy-making, planning, organising, motivating, communicating, monitoring and controlling. These managerial functions are essentially the same regardless of the type of the organisation, or the level of the managers in the organisation. The Vice-Chancellor of a University, the Dean of a Faculty or the Registrar performs these functions in the same manner as does the President of a manufacturing company, the Marketing Manager of its products or the Secretary of the company. There would, of course, be differences in styles as the purpose of a university is vastly different from that of a manufacturing company, but the substance of managerial functions would be more or less the same.

1.4.1 Administration and Management

Before we get into the details of management theories and practices, it would be worthwhile to understand the two concepts; administration and management. Early thinking was that administration involved thinking, a top level function that focused on the determination of the objectives of an enterprise, its plans and policies. This view was held by some early writers like Oliver Sheldon (1923), William Spriegal and Ernest Davies (1952) and G.E. Milward (1960). According to them, management had more to do with "doing" than "thinking". And at the top level, more time is spent on administrative activity, and as one moves down in the organisation, more time is spent on management activity. Another view, held by E.F.L. Brech and others (1972), considered 'management' as a comprehensive generic term that included the entire processes of planning, organising, directing and controlling. Administration, according to them, was only a part of management comprising the functions of planning and control. They made a distinction between administrative management and operations management.

According to Peter Drucker (1970), the basic difference between management and administration is the use of these terms in different contexts. The governance of non-business institutions (such as government, army, church, etc.) is generally called administration while the governance of business enterprises is called management. In other words, the chief domain in management is economic performance while in administration, the economic consequences are only secondary.

Yet another view is that administration is primarily concerned with the successful maintenance of an organisation, and its running according to rules and regulations. Its emphasis is on regulation of the system. In Management, the emphasis shifts from maintenance to improving efficiency, that is, accomplishing tasks with minimum resources, or optimisation in the use of resources.

It will be useful to remember these distinctions as we go along when we will be grappling with all of these concerns. And remember, education is a non-business activity, and still it has to do with economic issues and concerns of efficiency.

1.4.2 Leadership and Creativity

The success of every organisation depends upon its leadership. Organisations, as we said earlier, are groups of people brought together for a common

purpose. The attainment of that purpose depends on how the groups are held together, how they are motivated and how their efforts are channelized. As the organisations become more complex, there would be greater need for direction and coordination of activities among various participating units. All these require able leadership. Transforming the desire for achievement into a burning passion for successful accomplishment is what skilful leadership can do. According to Peter Drucker (1970), "Leadership is the lifting of man's visions to higher sights, the raising of man's performance to higher standards, and the building of man's personality beyond its normal limitations". In short, leadership is the ability to secure desirable actions from a group of followers voluntarily without the use of coercion, or the ability to persuade others to seek defined objectives willingly and enthusiastically.

Creativity involves the application of a person's mental ability and imaginativeness to some area leading to the creation or discovery of something new as a result. The "something new" could just be a theory, a product, a process, a better reporting system, or an improved version of something that already exists. The creative process is the manifestation of a fundamental ability – that of relating previously unrelated things, and the ability to look at things with a fresh eye. Creativity in any field is stimulated by an inward motivation to contribute, by challenging current goals and practices, by reshaping the existing organisational climate and culture, and by the sense of satisfaction that a person derives from his/her work.

A typical example of creativity in an organisation is the problem-solving approach which is widely understood and accepted as a creative process. The underlying assumption of this approach is that if you are able to define the problem, the solution will be quick to follow. The elements involved in this process are collecting the facts; analysing them; identifying the problem; considering alternative solutions; selecting the best; and putting the selected solution to practice.

Another example of creativity in management is the ability of the leadership in transforming organisations. While most management functions turn out to be transactional, that is, policy-making, planning, coordinating, monitoring and controlling, transformational functions go beyond the immediate tasks and seek to build institutions, leaders and teams by creating new visions, developing new models, building new cultures and nurturing talent. There are many examples of organisations, inspired by the vision of a creative leadership, attaining peaks of excellence have become models for others to emulate.

Check Your Progress 2

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.

ii) Check your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

What is the difference between management and administration as explained by Peter Drucker? Answer in about 40 words.

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1.4.3 Planning and Controlling

Planning is an intellectual process that requires managers to think before acting. Thinking in advance about what, when and how to do things and by whom is at the core of planning. All organisations have a purpose. It is that purpose which has brought the people who constitute the organisation together in the first place. As organisations embark upon their journey in achieving their purpose, it might become necessary to review and redefine the purpose itself from time to time. In that process, new visions might emerge, new goals will be set and new ways of reaching the goals will be identified.

In the list of management functions, planning comes at the top, and controlling at the bottom. But the two generally go together because plans can be effectively executed only if there are good controls that help you measure the achievements at different stages as you proceed to reaching what you have set out to accomplish. In other words, good control systems are essential elements of an effective planning process, and therefore, in the context of management functions, the two are discussed together.

a) Planning

From the point of view of an organisation, planning consists of setting its goals or objectives and determining the ways in which they are going to be achieved. Planning determines where the organisation is going and what approaches it will adopt to get there. The purpose of planning is to coordinate the activities within the organisation to attain the stated objectives. Unplanned activities often tend to be sporadic, disjointed, disoriented and therefore dysfunctional. Planning, on the other hand, brings a higher degree of rationality and order in to the organisation's working.

In the absence of planning, managers are often left to react to situations and problems as they arise. Planning allows a manager to act with initiative and to create situations to the organisation's advantage. It is not unusual that most poorly managed organisations are almost totally occupied with managing crises one after another, and are always engaged in fire-fighting rather than directing their energies and resources to the achievement of the organisation's goals. Planning helps the management to shape the future of the organisation rather than get caught up in endless operations to get over current crises. This explains a key feature of planning which is that planning is concerned with the future. It is this concern with the future, which is always unknown and uncertain, that makes planning a risky process; it also explains why several organisations do not always engage in adequate planning.

That brings us to another key feature of planning – flexibility. Because we do not know exactly what the future holds, it is likely that the plans will not work out precisely the way they are expected to. It is for this reason that all good plans always provide for review and modification. As we have noted earlier, environmental factors are very critical to organisations' goals and strategies. Discoveries, inventions and new technologies may radically alter lifestyles and consumption patterns, often forcing traditional products and services out of the market. Those involved in their production will have to quickly rethink their plans and strategies which would mean redefinition of goals and reorientation of strategies. For instance, the advent of colour television forced manufacturers of traditional black and white television to switch over to the manufacture of colour TV sets or to move out to rural

markets that could not afford high-cost colour TV sets. In more recent times, we have seen how the phenomenal expansion of mobile phones has reduced fixed landline phone providers to a marginal player in the telecommunication industry.

What happens in such situations is that a revised plan is put in place before the old one is fully carried out. In other words, if and when the existing plans become obsolete, or its goal becomes unworthy of pursuit, a new plan, with a new goal, is put in place. This process of midway corrections and renewals is what makes planning a dynamic process. If a plan does not admit of any modification, it is a bad plan. Flexibility is, therefore, an essential feature of any good plan.

Planning minimizes risks and uncertainties, it focuses attention on the organisation's goals, it leads to success and it facilitates control.

Check Your Progress 3

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.

ii) Check your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

What makes planning a dynamic process and a risky process? Answer in about 50 words.

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b) Controlling

We have noted that there is a close relationship between planning and controlling. Control supports planning in two ways: first, it helps review current goals and strategies and while doing so, draws attention to situations that require new planning exercises; and, second, it provides useful and necessary inputs upon which new plans can be based. Controlling, as we said earlier, comes at the end of the list of management functions because it is concerned with: i) comparing events with plans, and ii) making corrections when events deviated from plans. Both these concerns reflect an end-of-the-event appraisal of all that went into the pursuit of attaining a specified goal, and an assessment of what did indeed happen as against what was expected to happen. If there are departures, corrections follow. Franklin G. Moore (1964) described the controlling function thus: "There is many a slip between giving work assignments to men and carrying them out. Get reports of what is being done, compare it with what ought to be done, and do something about it if the two aren't the same". Controlling is part of the manager's job in which he/she checks up on assignments, sees what is being done, compares it with what was expected to be done, and does what is needed to correct the deviations, if any.

You will recall that we said earlier in this section that planning and controlling go together. In fact, there is a symbiotic relationship between the two, both supporting each other. Planning is a pre-requisite for effective controlling; without planning, there is no pre-determined, explicit understanding of desired performance, and without such an understanding,

controlling becomes ineffective. When managers try to control organisations which do not have adequate planning, confusion and chaos result because pronouncements of unsatisfactory performance, in the absence of desired performance standards agreed upon by all concerned, would surely lead to resentment and dissatisfaction among the members of the organisation.

The main purpose of accounting is to provide data to assist controlling in business or other economic enterprises. For instance, the budgets of organisations indicate the levels of desired performance. The accounting staff record data from the actual operations and at regular intervals, the summary of these data is compared with the budgeted levels and corrective action is taken where needed.

We shall return to the processes involved in the performance of these functions later in this Unit.

1.4.4 Organising

'Organising' is a major management function after planning, and involves:

- determining the specific activities that are necessary to accomplish the organisation's goals;
- grouping these activities into a logical pattern, framework or structure;
- assigning the activities to specific positions and people.

The planning process will have identified the organisation's goals and strategies to achieve them. In simple terms, the goal definition would have clearly indicated what to do, and the strategies would have spelt out how to do it. In operational terms, these 'what' and 'how' will have to be formulated into specific sets of activities that can then be assigned to people for implementing them. In our example of the University as an organisation, we have identified certain activities (we called them sub-systems) while discussing the system concept in the beginning of this Unit. We do not wish to repeat them here except to say that each one of these sub-systems comprises a set of functions and activities necessary to achieve the purpose of the university.

a) Structuring the Organisation

Having identified the activities, it is important to group them into different units of operations to ensure efficiency. It is here that the strcture of an organisation assumes significance. Some essential features of a structured organisation are the following:

- An organisational chart which depicts the "road map" showing the structure of authority and accountability relationships, activities and communication channels. It indicates how the affairs of the organisation are to be planned, directed and controlled.
- It helps each member of the organisation understand his/her role, responsibilities and relationships as well as the boundaries within which he/she will have to operate.
- It endeavours to evolve objective criteria for measurement of results in terms of goals achieved, and facilitates communication of data and instruction vertically and horizontally.
- It represents certain orderliness in the conduct of the affairs of an organisation.

In structuring an organisation, certain basic principles have to be kept in mind. For example, activities have to be grouped and assigned to appropriate organisational units. The criteria for grouping should include:

- Creation of separate organisational units only if the functions proposed to be assigned to them are logically separable;
- Every unit should work towards a common objective or a major function that can be identified with the organisation;
- It should be possible to justify a separate unit in terms of span of control or reach of management (optimum number of employees) and accountability relationships within the unit.

One major purpose of an organisation chart is to indicate the structure of authority, power, responsibility and accountability in the organisation. While the chart will only show the flow of these attributes and their connecting links, effectiveness in organisational functioning requires:

- Clear definition of the responsibility assigned to every person;
- Delegation of appropriate authority that matches the responsibility;
- Clarity about the reporting relationships and levels of authority; and
- Consistency about reporting relationships and the nature of assigned responsibilities.

b) Principles in Organising

We have just talked about several new concepts like accountability, authority, delegation, power, relationships, responsibility, etc. It will be in order if we pause for a moment and reflect on these concepts so that they can be appreciated in the perspective of the organising function and the organisational structure.

Authority and power are often understood to be the same, but the two can be clearly differentiated. Authority is the *right* to do something, while power, on the other hand, is the *ability* to do something. From the organisation's point of view, authority is the right that a manager has to ask or require a subordinate to do something to accomplish the goals of the organisation. In exercising this right, he/she also assumes the power to cause the subordinates do what he/she wishes them to do, since he/she has the ability (understood as power) to reward or punish them. There can be situations in which a manager has the authority (right) to do something, but does not have the power (ability) to get it done.

In most of our public organisations, we see that the Head of the organisation has the authority to ask people to do assigned jobs, but does not have the power (ability) to reward the doer or punish the non-performer. This absence of authority-power relationships often cause instability in organisations leading to their decay and destruction.

Responsibility is related to both authority and power. It means the obligation to do something. In the organisational context, responsibility means the duty that one has to perform the function, task or assignment given to him/her. In that sense, everybody in an organisation has a responsibility, as without that responsibility there is no reason for him/her to be in the organisation, in the first place.

Delegation of authority (and power) is the process by which, in an organisation, the senior management gives their juniors the authority (and power) to do certain things. When that happens, the person to whom authority is delegated can perform all the functions, and exercise all the powers, as though they are in fact vested in him/her. In the absence of such delegation, accomplishment of organisational goals cannot take place as the top manager has to personally intervene in the performance of every little task. On the other hand, the manager cannot also delegate totally all the authority for performing the managerial functions of planning, organising, controlling, communicating, and so on. To delegate complete authority in all these areas would mean that the manager is abdicating his/her responsibility.

We have seen that authority and power can be delegated. But it should be noted that there is no delegation of responsibility. When a manager delegates his/her authority and power, he/she remains responsible for any action (and inaction) on the part of the persons to whom he/she delegated authority. A supervisor's responsibility is not in the least diminished when he/she delegates authority; on the contrary, it could possibly increase his/her own responsibility as he/she is assuming the additional responsibility arising from the performance of his/her junior colleague as well.

That brings us to another concept, namely, accountability. It is a natural tendency in most people to minimize the responsibility they are expected to shoulder. They are also not too willing to be accountable to a higher authority. This unwillingness is at the root of many organisational frictions and strains. A stable organisational equilibrium requires that authority, power, responsibility and accountability are all balanced evenly.

Check Your Progress 4

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.

ii) Check your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

What do you understand by authority, power and responsibility? Answer in about 50 words.

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1.4.5 Leading and Motivating

We made a brief reference to the quality of leadership and creativity as part of the management responsibility earlier in this unit. We shall now look a little deeper into these attributes. Peter Drucker said: "Management is doing things right; leadership is doing the right things". Though leadership and management often overlap, the two are not quite the same. Management is about accomplishing a goal efficiently; leadership is about setting the desirable goals.

Leadership is a management style. It is the ability to inspire people to do what the leader wants them to do. It is inspirational and personal. It inspires cooperation and action based on loyalty and often unquestioning

obedience. A good manager does not have to be an inspirational type. But he/she ought to have some leadership qualities and a positive personality that wants to get things done. He/she should conduct himself/herself with purpose and confidence and should be result-oriented. His/her job is to guide, direct, influence and even demand action. A good manager is a problem solver, who is driven by the goals set for him/her. He/she is not just the presiding deity of a group, but is leading a group somewhere, taking them along to attain a purpose, even as he/she is thinking of a new goal, a new purpose, for tomorrow.

A manager need not be a charismatic person to inspire people to perform and attain higher levels of achievement. He/she will, nevertheless, have to 'get things done through people' and see that they work efficiently and produce results that are beneficial to the organisation. 'Motivation' is all about this task of getting the people do the organisational tasks efficiently and effectively.

There is a whole body of literature on behavioural theories and patterns. This is not the place to make a comprehensive survey of these theories and principles. For the purpose of this unit, however, we mention a few examples of how managers motivate people.

First, there is the "carrot or stick' approach. The "carrot approach" suggests positive motivation, also called "anxiety-reducing motivation". It offers a person something he/she considers valuable (praise, pay rise, promotion) for good performance. Negative motivation, called the "stick approach" uses or threatens to use punishments (reprimands, removal, reduction in rank) for unsatisfactory performance. This approach is also known as the reward and punishment theory which influences behavioural patterns.

As we said earlier, an organisation is its people. No group of people can be expected to be homogeneous in their attitudes, behaviour and outlook. For instance, self-disciplined people do not require externally imposed discipline for doing what is expected of them. But this tribe is a diminishing lot. The central problem of motivation for the management is how to induce groups of people, each with a distinct personality, outlook and attitude, to work together to achieve the organisation's objectives. The organisation's objective may not coincide with the personal objective of each member, yet each one of them has to be convinced that the attainment of his/her objective (assured income, high standards of living, esteem in society) will contribute to the objective of the organisation as well. To play this motivational role, the manager has to have a deep understanding of the processes involved in relating individual needs to the organisational objectives.

Maslow' theory of human motivation (1960) makes two important propositions about human behaviour; (i) man is a wanting being – he always wants, and wants more; and (ii) a satisfied need is not a motivator of behaviour. According to Maslow, what man wants depends upon what he already has; when one need is satisfied, another appears in its place and this process is unending. It is only the unsatisfied need that motivates behaviour. It is a significant lesson for managers who set about the task of motivating people.

A vibrant, dynamic management style would seek to carry all the members of the organisation together in achieving the organisation's objectives. The more conventional reward and punishment, or stimulus and response, theories are now giving way to newer styles of organisational management.

Participatory management, team-building, decentralised structures and autonomous management, project-based management, result-based management, etc., are all examples of evolving management styles.

Check Your Progress 5

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.

ii) Check your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

What is the main difference between 'management' and 'leadership'? Answer in about 30 words.

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1.5 MANAGEMENT PROCESSES

Having acquainted ourselves with the major functions involved in the management of organisations, it is time now for us to turn to the processes associated with the performance of some of these major functions. You will have noticed that while explaining most of the functions, some idea has also been given about how they are performed. We do not, therefore, propose in this section to take up each of the functions and discuss in detail all the processes and activities involved in its performance. As the purpose of this unit is to acquaint you generally with the functions, methods and practices associated with the management of organisations (in order to make you familiar with the broader concerns of a distance education organisation), we shall confine ourselves to certain major processes only.

1.5.1 Policy Formulation

We have noted earlier that all organisations have well-defined goals and objectives. You might well ask why organisations need a policy when their objectives are already defined. It is difficult to say where objectives end and policies begin. There is a degree of overlap between the two. Even so, it would be correct to assume that an objective is what you want to accomplish, or where you want to go, while a policy outlines the method or practice that you will use to get there. A policy, thus, is an enduring decision which holds good on a continuing basis to guide the members of the organisation in doing what they are called upon to do. What distinguishes policies from objectives is that you first decide the objective, and then set out the method for achieving it. Objectives are the ends; policies are the means to achieve those ends.

Policies can be long-term, medium-term or short-term. There can also be major policies and minor policies. Policies at the level of the head of the organisation would be stated in broad terms, their purpose is to pilot the overall working and operations to attain the organisational objectives. At the second or executive level, policies might enter into specifics, though still broad, dealing with activities in different departments. At the operating level, policies would go into further details, sometimes even in the form of policy and procedure manuals or rules and regulations.

While the broad policies generally originate from the top, most of the policies, especially at the middle and lower levels, get articulated from the experience of dealing with day-to-day problems. When a problem first arises, you decide how to handle it, when it comes up again and again, you establish a way of handling it as a policy so that in the future, people at lower levels do not have to grapple with the problem all over again. When a new problem arises, you treat it as an exception and decide on its merits. If the same problem comes up repeatedly, you set a policy for it. Over a period of time, you are sure to end up with a set of policies to handle every conceivable situation. That is also the way organisations become bureaucratic structures.

What are major policies? They are the ones that govern the conduct of the core business of the organisation. For example, a major policy statement would set out the range of products and services that an organisation would be offering over a reasonably long period of time. It could also set out the territorial limits within which it would operate; the methods of production and distribution of its products (centralised or decentralised or a combination of both); whether it should undertake the production of all associated products and services in-house or sub-contract them; whether or not it should undertake research and development for new products; and the list could run much longer. Suffice it to say that these major policy statements are just as important as the objectives of the organisation which may be the manufacture of automobiles or running a grocery chain or providing education and training.

At another level, there could be several policies that govern the execution of major policies. For instance, the personnel policies (recruitment, training, rewards and punishment), the pricing policy, the distribution and marketing policies, maintenance of plant and machinery, and so on are just as important in the performance of the functions of an organisation. Still lower down, there could be minor policies on a range of issues reaching down to such trivia as who can use the organisation's car, who gets the favoured parking locations, who can travel by air and who should travel only by road, and who should be entitled to comfortable furniture and decent curtains.

The important point in formulating a policy is that it should have a reasonable degree of stability while it should not become too rigid. A good policy should be forward-looking, it should be lawful and ethical and it should permit changes as the environment changes.

1.5.2 Decision-making

The stereo-typed view of a good executive is of a person who is decisive, takes quick decisions, and almost always takes good decisions. It is not, however, true that, in practice, executives are always called upon to take instant decisions and that all their decisions reflect good judgement. A good decision is always based on adequate information, necessary application of mind and balanced judgement. It follows that the process of decision-making involves gathering relevant facts, analysing them, identifying the issues for decision, consultation with those concerned with its implementation, drawing up a set of alternatives and making a judgement based on an evaluation of possible alternatives. Decisions so taken always tend to be good decisions.

A decision also needs to be rational. It is the choice of a course of action that one thinks is the best. A reflex action like kicking the ball in a football field with the right foot or left foot is not a decision in which any process is

involved. Yet, it could be a right decision in the circumstances. Not all decisions are, however, taken on impulses; most of them require deliberation, exercise of good judgement and sometimes even risk-taking. For instance, the decision to change the design of a product, say a passenger car, should precede a good deal of research involving market surveys, studies on passenger comfort, fuel and machine efficiency, driving comfort, cost structure, and so on. Such decisions cannot be making-up-your-mind situations, but should be the culmination of a process that blends thinking, deciding and acting. In other words, good decision should be a rational decision too. A decision becomes rational when it is reached through a process that involves (i) recognition of a problem, (ii) decision on priorities among problems, (iii) diagnosis of the problem, (iv) development of alternate solutions or courses of action, (v) measuring and comparing the consequences of alternate solutions, and (vi) converting the decision into effective action and follow-up.

Usually, a good decision-making process should involve the following:

- It should be based on expert advice. Most situations will have a professional or technical dimension to them. And, in most major organisations, there would be professionals and technical personnel whose job is to assemble facts, analyse them and to recommend possible sets of alternatives;
- Decision-making should be participatory. The process not only brings collective wisdom in dealing with issues, but also helps in people accepting decisions which they helped to make. Further, a sense of participation in decision-making contributes to the growth of a healthy environment in the organisation;
- Participatory process could have a negative dimension too. Not everyone would want to be serving on all kinds of committees, not the least in making suggestions and nearly always finding them overruled;
- Most decisions are likely to be in the nature of solving problems. The problem solving approach implies first defining the problem, then exploring a set of solutions and choosing the best among them. It has to be remembered that in nearly all situations, you have several courses of action open to you, which could also include the choice of inaction;
- Every choice follows an assumption that it will work best. This assumption is based on the awareness of the premises that are implicit in the reasoning behind the decision, and that considerable thought has been given to those reasons;
- When a decision is taken, responsibilities should be assigned to persons to carry it through. Decide also on the stages of implementation, and who should do what. Carrying a decision through involves planning, delegating, communicating and controlling.

Check Your Progress 6

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.

ii) Check your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

What is the main difference between ‘policies’ and ‘objectives’? Answer in about 30 words.

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1.5.3 Planning Processes

Planning deals with the future, and therefore is filled with uncertainty and possible changes. It is this uncertainty that often gives an edge to the management that can forecast well and plan its future. If you do not plan, you will probably be "muddling through", and still get somewhere, though not exactly where you intended to reach. If you wish to reach where you want to, you have no choice; you have to plan.

To put it differently, 'where you want to reach' is really your goal, your objective. That is to say that a plan must of necessity start with an objective. Since we have already discussed the nature and significance of the planning function, we shall not go over them again here, but shall proceed to looking at the processes associated with the performance of this function.

a) Forecasting

Given the objectives of the organisation, a planner must take a view of the future and decide in advance where the organisation would like to be and what should be done to get there. This would mean two things: first, forecasting the future, and second, planning the strategies.

Forecasting is the first step in planning, and reliable plans are based on accurate forecasts. Accurate forecasting is no more than projecting today's trends into the immediate and foreseeable future. For example, in an economy that is on the road to development, the more recent trends in the rate of growth, the pattern of income distribution, the consumption pattern, and areas of continuing shortages, etc. would suggest what goods and services are likely to be in greater demand in the near future, say, the next five years. It is possible to project reliably the number of school-going children five years from now depending upon the rate of increase in enrolment in the last five years and the trends in population growth. If the number can be forecast, you can proceed to forecast the number of new schools to be opened, the number of new teachers to be appointed, new teacher training facilities to be created, and so on. Similarly, in the case of consumer goods, one can make reasonably accurate forecasts about the growth in consumption of several goods ranging from toothpaste to television sets and cosmetics to computers based on current trends.

While this sounds very easy and practicable, what about economies that are already developed? Well, there are established trends there too. May be, one has to look at the changing life styles and their influence on consumption patterns. The forecasts in such situations would be about the kind of comforts that people are looking for, or the tastes and styles that are likely to emerge. In such cases, the forecasts would be about improvements in products in terms of design to suit different tastes and styles.

Forecasts could be reliable, but they can also fail. Many economies may not be able to sustain current levels of growth over long periods. Economic depression and political turmoil can affect markets (the 2007-08 meltdown in the American economy impacted world markets severely). New technologies may force conventional goods and services out of even traditionally large markets. Population policies may influence the demographic profile of the population sometimes forcing even existing schools to close. There are uncertainties about the future. Even so, most of these could be anticipated and allowance for such uncertain risks could be built into the initial forecast itself.

b) Strategic Planning

The second major process in planning is the formulation of strategies in reaching the goals. This process, called strategic planning, should include:

- Information analysis, or reviewing the performance of the organisation and the environment to relate internal strengths to external opportunities;
- Making the strategic choice, or determining the directions based on this analysis that should inform the goal and the time-setting exercise for the future;
- Within the major objectives, setting specific goals, with time targets, that should provide a sense of direction to all managerial activities.

An objective analysis of the current performance is an essential pre-requisite to effective strategic planning of the future. You need to know the capacities and capabilities of your organisation. You need to know whether your people will be able to deliver according to your plans. You need also to know your resources, and how much more you can commit to new initiatives. If nearly all the resources at your disposal are already committed, your choices on new initiatives are limited, and so is your planning freedom.

The information analysis should take you through the collection and interpretation of all the basic data about your organisation for an objective assessment of the current strategy and identification of the key problems concerning that strategy. This analysis should also include an appraisal of the environment in which the organisation operates, the likely changes in the environment (emergence of new competitors, new customers, induction of new technologies and other relevant aspects) and the new opportunities that it might offer. A change in strategy, or a new strategic choice might be needed because:

- The aspirations and requirements of the stakeholders in the organisation have changed;
- The environment has changed; and
- The current strategy is failing to meet its objective due to poor performance.

The changes in environment which might call for a close look at the current strategy would include:

- Increase or decrease in market opportunities;
- Opportunities or threats that induction of new technologies might offer;
- Overall performance of the economy (growth, stagnation or decline) leading to distortions in the distribution pattern of income; and
- Changes in the social and legal systems.

Forecasting the future and determining the strategies are the two major processes involved in planning. However, these do not complete the total planning exercise. There are a number of other steps involved in planning.

c) Operational Planning

Operational planning is a major step in this process. Once the broad picture of the goals and the strategies are clear, the management proceeds to develop the operational plans. This exercise is more specific and concerned

more with the operations of different functional areas like production, marketing, finance, research, development, etc. The operational plans guide the managers of departments and units within the organisation and their focus is more on the present than the future. These plans address mainly the current problems in operational areas, take into account the existing constraints of resources, the current levels of efficiency, information management, organisational culture, and so on. Because these plans deal with the present, changes or improvements in them tend to be marginal or incremental, though they have to be consistent with the new proposals in the strategic plans.

In short, operational planning involves the following processes:

- Perception of opportunities through needs assessment, demand forecasts, changes in environment, etc.
- Establishment of goals involving the determination of the organisational goals as well as the goals for each unit of the organisation. These should be measurable since performance will later have to be assessed against these standards which could be expressed in terms of costs, budgets, etc.
- Appraisal of planning premises that influence performance. These premises would largely be factors in the environment. For example, changes in government's policies can favourably or unfavourably influence the current plans of an organisation. Since all plans are based on a series of assumptions about conditions that constitute the environment, it is necessary to constantly watch the changes in the environment and review, modify or renew the plans from time to time. All plans must have this flexibility built into them.
- Determining action paths is the final step in the planning process. Once goals have been established and strategies settled, the actual action plans in the form of activities and budgets are formulated. These will indicate the allocation of responsibility for action among various units, the time for completion of different stages of accomplishment of the goals, the interdependence among various units in the completion of tasks as well as the allocation of resources (money, materials and personnel).

There is another process that goes along with that of planning. As we said earlier, this is the process of controlling. After all, those who plan would be interested in knowing the outcome of their efforts and whether it was successful or not. This evaluation of the performance is a major function of the management, and we shall discuss the processes associated with it in some detail separately in this unit.

1.5.4 Creating the Structure

We discussed earlier in this unit, the major activities associated with the broad function of organising. Designing an organisation is not just drawing a chart and filling the boxes. A great deal of thought and imagination has to go into that design. The objectives of the organisation would of course determine its functions, but those functions will have several activities as their components. Organising these components into viable and coherent groups is a major part of the initial design of the organisation's structure.

But a design does not make an organisation. The organisation takes shape only when its people are in place, at least the core groups that constitute the nuclei of the organisation. How the initial groups are constituted will

depend upon several factors, including how the organisation was born. For instance, if the new organisation is set up by an existing authority, say the Government or another company, that authority will also have settled its nucleus. We shall now look at the processes associated with the design and structure of an organisation.

a) Recruitment and Training

The first step, of course, is to put the people in place. This involves recruitment, training and placement. Managers are not born, they are made. All organisations, whether they are in the business of making cars or chocolates, or of exports and imports, or of education and training, also make managers. They develop new managers, as old ones move up or out. This process of choosing people and preparing them for shouldering tomorrow's responsibilities is important. We are confining our discussion here only to the development of managerial personnel and are not considering the recruitment and training of all staff.

Development of managerial capacity in the organisational context involves selecting the right people, training and placing them, motivating them and also retaining them. Bright young people can be selected, on the basis of their qualifications and educational attainments and assessment of their aptitudes and potential through appropriate tests and interviews. This part of finding people fresh from college is not very difficult. But the more difficult part of the process would be the clear definition of the requirements of each job and each position and fitting the people with each of them. This first step is very important because a great deal of the organisational culture is evolved by the aggregate of the attitudes and behaviour of the young people inducted into the organisation.

Training is an important element in the management development process. In recent times, training has turned into a huge industry, preparing people for various professions and occupations. It is not unusual to hear that education systems are not able to deliver ready-to-employ people, and in most cases, employing organisations have to invest time and resources to prepare young graduates for assuming responsibilities at workplaces. On-the-job training helps develop future managers, exposes them to real situations at work and challenges them to assume responsibilities in finding solutions to various problems as they arise. Whenever new openings come up, younger people are encouraged to take up those assignments, even if temporarily, only for the experience it will give them. Today, it is very common among organisations to send their executives at different levels to participate in formal executive development programmes, short training courses and seminars, etc. organised by universities and other educational institutions. Job rotation, special assignments, assistantships, committee work, self-development and external training programmes are all integral to the organisation's efforts in developing its managerial competence.

b) Performance Appraisal

Performance appraisal of managers and their advancement in the organisations are just as important as the initial recruitment and training. After all, considerable efforts and resources go into the development of personnel for managing organisations. It is important to ensure that this talent pool is available to the organisation for its own growth and development. There are several factors that motivate people. Money, security and power are as important as recognition, status and pride. A

shared sense of acceptance, loyalty and commitment is what it takes to make a person feel that he/she belongs to the organisation, and vice-versa. And yet, human nature being what it is, driven by determination to attain greater heights and desire, often ambition, to make quicker progress in financial terms as well as control of the organisation, people perform differently with different objectives. Regular performance appraisal can be a helpful tool in this context. It could help the management judge how well a person is doing on his/her current job, and more importantly, assist in assessing how well he/she would do in the future both on the current job as well as in a higher position.

c) Delegation

Delegation of authority and power, as we noted earlier, is an important management practice. As the job grows beyond the personal capacity of a single manager, he/she begins getting the work done through other people. These other people become, in a sense, extensions of the original manager who assigns work to them and gives them authority to do it. This is the process known as delegation. Simply put, delegation is just telling a person what you want him/her to do, and then letting him/her do it. In reality, however, it wouldn't work in that simple way. You cannot just ask another to do something on your behalf and then sit back and relax in the hope that he/she would produce the results. That would be taking a great risk because, in the end, it is your responsibility to deliver. So, you have to guide the other person, sometimes driving, sometimes coaxing, and sometimes even coercing. Telling a person what to do is only part of the delegation process. Letting him/her do it is another part. This comprises giving the means to carry out the responsibility which would include tools, machines, materials, personnel, and not the least, the power and authority to use all of these. The two processes should go together to make delegation workable. In more complex organisations, power and authority are delegated formally through detailed rules and procedures which form part of the organisation's structures and processes.

d) Decentralisation

Decentralisation is a major process in decision-making in most organisations. Truly speaking, centralisation and decentralisation are not areas in black and white; it is often difficult to distinguish where one process begins and the other ends. In reality, there is no 'totally' centralised or 'totally' decentralised organisation because you never can make all the decisions at either the top or the bottom. These processes, therefore, reflect in relative terms, how decisions are taken, who takes them, and how the organisation owns up these decisions. To the extent an organisation permits more decisions at the lower levels, it can be called a decentralised structure while the opposite reflects a centralised structure. Which of these two structures an organisation should adopt would depend upon its functions, operations, their spread and the relationships between them. Neither of them can be said to be all good and no bad; at best it can only be some good and some bad. Centralisation overburdens executives, delays decisions, and can lead to poor decisions as they are far removed from the realities on the ground; decentralisation, on the other hand, while correcting some of these shortcomings, can land you in the midst of loss of control, poor decisions by incompetent subordinates, inconsistency and drift in meeting organisational goals and, not the least, loss of time and resources.

Check Your Progress 7

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.

ii) Check your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

i) What are the major steps in the planning process? Answer in about 30 words.

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ii) What are the factors that determine the design and structure of an organization? Answer in about 40 words.

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1.5.5 Controlling Processes

You must have heard of Murphy's Law: "if anything can go wrong, it will". Control helps you prove Murphy wrong. But what does one actually do to control? First of all, you plan; then you control. What you do control is no more than guiding things to go in the direction that you want, to reach your goals. To put it differently, control helps you to deal with the area of difference between good and bad performance. Good controls have a regulating effect; they help to measure the progress towards your goal and assist you in assessing performance vis-a-vis plans. But control is not just an instrument to watch the progress of things as they happen; it is in fact a tool that helps you to intervene when performance falls behind expectations so that remedial action can be taken.

The most common purpose of a control mechanism is to assure the management that performance does not slide back. It has to be remembered that control does not substitute for performance; it can only help you arrest the fall in levels of performance when it occurs. Henry Fayol (1949) said: "in an undertaking, control consists in verifying whether everything occurs in conformity with the plans adopted, the instructions issued, and the principles established. Its object is to point out weaknesses and errors in order to rectify them and prevent recurrence. It operates on everything – things, people, actions". The responsibility for control is not confined to the top management only; everyone at every level who has a responsibility to perform, and to deliver, would find controls useful and necessary. What follows are presentations on the areas, instruments, and methods of control; and on management information system.

a) The Basics

Before we proceed to look at the instruments of control, it would be worthwhile to take a look at some of those areas that need control. If we know what we need to control, it is easier to understand how to control them.

- The first, of course, is performance in terms of progress towards the goal. If the goal is time-specific, performance is reflected in the actual achievement of the target. If, on the other hand, the goal is far too distant like eradication of illiteracy, for example, progress would reflect stages of accomplishment of the ultimate goal.
- A second object of control is the quality of the output. All organised efforts have an outcome. If the outcome is not worth the effort, it is a waste. Control helps monitor the quality of the output.
- Activity coordination is another area that requires control. In any enterprise, there are several operations that require execution either in a sequence or in parallel to one another. If these activities are not completed as per the schedule of the operations, there could be idle capacity in one area, and non-performance somewhere else.
- Quality of work is an aspect that has a good deal to do with controls. Constant monitoring of the way the work is done in the organisation can establish the adequacy or otherwise of the skills and competence of the staff engaged in the work as well as the tools and techniques used in doing their work.
- All activities involve utilisation of some resources; time, money, material and personnel. It is necessary for the management to make sure that these resources are optimally utilised, there is no wasteful expenditure and that the out put is commensurate with the resource inputs.

b) The Instruments

Having identified some of the key factors that require the management's attention from the point of view of control, it is now time that we look at the major tools that are basic to the controlling process.

To begin with, you need to know what a good performance is, and how it can be measured. The first task therefore is the establishment of standards, or criteria of performance. There is no magic formula by which these standards can be set; they are functions of several variables, some of which would be quantitative, and some qualitative. If an organisational goal is eradication of illiteracy, for example, the performance criteria can only be an approximation of the achievement as you can never really set out a precise target, and still less achieve it. On the other hand, if your goal is to capture at least 50% of the market for a particular product within, say a period of three years, it is possible to assess the performance level at the end of three years by assessing the volume of your sales relative to the total market for that product. In establishing performance standards, the following measures could be useful:

- Productivity
- Market share
- Production costs
- Return on investment
- Social benefits.

The second important concern would be the actual measurement of the performance. As we said earlier, this is a comparison between what you set out to do, and what you actually did. Ideally, the measurement should be done on a forward looking basis to predict probable variations between goals and attainments rather than as a post-mortem exercise or a fault-finding effort. The purpose of control is to apply corrections, and not just to apportion blame.

Management control is usually perceived as a feedback system. This can be clearly seen by looking at the processes involved in a control system shown below in Figure 1:

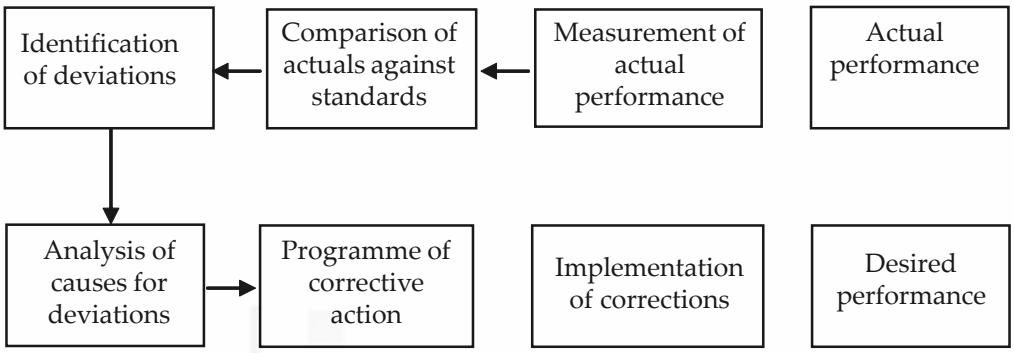

Figure 1; Feedback System in Control Process

Source: Koontz Harold (1981), "Management", Auckland, McGraw-Hill

The feedback system however assumes a time interval in the control process. It takes time to collect the feedback, analyse it and compare the findings with the desired performance standards. Good management needs future directed control which requires obtaining information as feedback before the event takes place rather than after the event. With technological advances, it is now possible to obtain this feedback in real-time without any time lag, concurrently with the event taking place, or through such proactive methods as field testing or sample testing of a product. The following diagram (Fig.2) explains how such a control system will work.

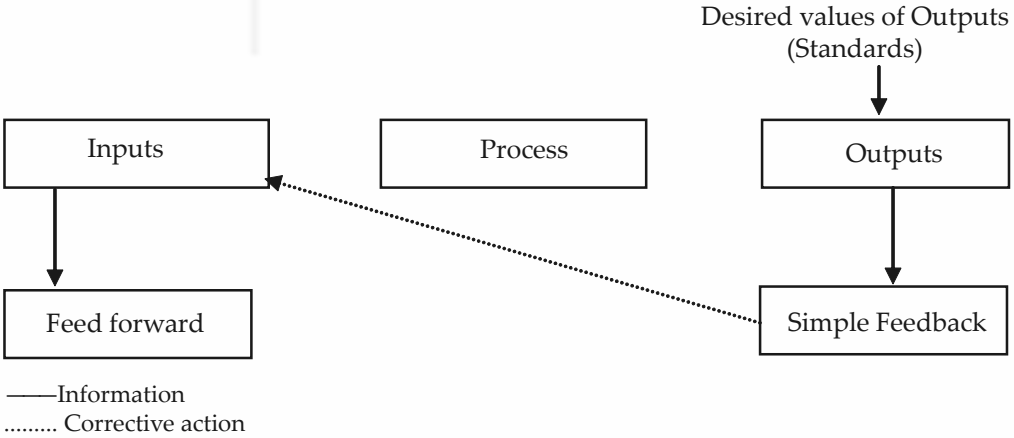

Figure 2: Comparison of Simple Feedback and Feed forward systems

Source: Koontz Harold (1981), "Management", Auckland, McGraw Hill, p.30

c) The Methods

We should now look at some of the methods of control. The foremost of these is control by reports. Since the top manager cannot be everywhere, and see everything for himself/herself, he/she has necessarily to rely on a feedback of information in the form of reports, most of which are written

statements. These reports form the backbone of control. Although reports can never be perfect in assessing performance, if a good deal of care and attention is given to designing the form of reports, they can communicate a great deal about what is going on. Some considerations that should go into the designing of reports are:

- Reports should be relevant to the structure of the organisation, and the responsibility assigned to each unit of the structure. They should reflect events, acts, information and circumstances that influenced operations in each area.
- The design of the reports should be such as would help you establish the points of control. These control points are those where a stocktaking of the performance of an assigned responsibility is possible (Purchase Department, Sales Department, Accounting Department, etc.).
- Good reports should communicate precisely and accurately. They are not intended to confuse or conceal.
- The purpose of the reports is to establish the accounting of responsibility. This means that the report will reflect the relationship of costs and benefits (or losses) with the exercise of responsibility by each manager or department.
- Activity costing and cost control are effective tools in monitoring the efficiency of programmes. Regular cost reports on activities of each Division can help identify areas in which economy of expenditure can be affected by reducing overheads and optimally utilising the resources.
- Budgets are instruments that support the controlling system and its process. They set out money available and the money that can be used. Most departments may not be income generating; for them the budgets mean cost plans and cost limits. Usually, those who spend less and get the results are perceived to be better managers than those who overspend even if their results are also good.
- Auditing is a part of control, but it is different from the processes we are discussing as it is done by someone outside the organisation. It is not normally a part of the internal management process though auditing helps to verify the accuracy of reports, their conformity with records, adherence to procedures and observance of rules and regulations in the exercise of authority and power.
- Performance appraisal of personnel can also be an effective method of exercising control. These appraisal reports help identify those who are better performers and if the organisation has a system of rewards and incentives in place, they would be the beneficiaries. Normally, it is to be expected that no one wants to be a poor performer.

Before we close this discussion, it is necessary to point out that controls can also have negative consequences. Responsible people react strongly against controls; they feel that they are not being trusted. Submission of reports is for them an exercise of proving their commitment. This resentment can sometimes be counterproductive for good performance. On the other hand, it is a human tendency to explain away all failures; there can never be any shortage of excuses for non-performance. Between these two extremes, there can be a host of situations like exaggerated presentation of achievements, concealment of failures, overestimating budget needs and overspending to justify higher budget allocations.

d) Management Information System (MIS)

So far, we have talked about instruments of control mostly in the context of monitoring performance and efficiency. Organisational effectiveness, however, demands that all management decisions are taken on the basis of adequate information which is timely, relevant, accurate and reliable. Much of this information would be available from the organisation's own experience in the form of its past performance reports which we talked about earlier in this section, but a great deal would still be needed to make major decisions which might affect the organisation's goals, its methods and processes, and indeed its structure itself. The sources of this information may vary; in many cases, it has to be obtained through market surveys or research. Whatever the source, the important point is that organisations need to put in place systems for gathering information from internal and external sources, collating and analysing them and presenting them in summary form to the management to help it take decisions. For example, at the top level of management, such summary will show the average earning of the organisation per employee, or the earning per share of its capital, and so on. At the executive levels, the MIS would help Divisional managers to assess the stage of each process at a given time, compare the progress of input-output flows within the system with the schedule of operations, locate bottlenecks, if any, and take corrective action in time. Information management has now developed into an essential tool for all organisations.

1.6 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we have tried to take you through the basics of management as a profession and its concepts and practices. We began with a study of the anatomy of an organisation, what its component systems are, how each of these sub-systems supports and strengthens each other, and how all of them together make for the 'life' of the organisation, which is to attain a specific goal. We then moved on to take a close look at the staple diet on which organisations live, and what their 'bread and butter' tasks are. With this understanding of the core functions of management, we proceeded to explore the methods and practices that managements of organisations follow in the performance of their functions. In this unit, we have not entered specifically the area of education management; our effort was to provide a broad perspective of the issues and concerns involved in the management of any organisation. It is our assumption that this broad-brush treatment of the subject 'management' would have equipped you with adequate knowledge and understanding that would enable you to grapple with the more specific functions and processes associated with the management of a distance education system.

1.7 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS: POSSIBLE ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

Academic sub-system of the university is responsible for determining the programmes, developing curricula, prescribing guidelines for admission, fees, assessment procedures, etc., based on which the respective sub-systems like admission division enrol students, evaluation division carries out student assessment, etc. To enable these sub-systems to perform their functions, administration and finance sub-systems provide necessary infrastructural and other support services.

Check Your Progress 2

The major difference between the two terms, according to Peter Drucker, is that while governance of non-business organisations such as government, army, church, etc., is called administration, the governance of business organisations (which seek to make profits) is called management. Management essentially relates to economic activities while it is only incidental to administration.

Check Your Progress 3

Flexibility and the scope for mid-way corrections and modifications make planning process a dynamic one. Planning is always concerned with future which is unknown and uncertain, and therefore, is a risky process.

Check Your Progress 4

Authority is the right to do something in an organisation, whereas power is the ability to get that done. A manager in an organisation has a right (authority) to ask his/her subordinates to do something, and the ability (power) to reward them on performing the assigned task, or punish them for non-performance. Responsibility means the duty and the obligation to perform the function, task or assignment given to a person and his/her accountability for such performance.

Check Your Progress 5

"Management is doing things right; leadership is about doing the right things"says Peter Drucker. The two often overlap, but are not the same. Leadership is concerned with setting the desirable goals, while the task of management is to accomplish those goals efficiently.

Check Your Progress 6

The objective of an organisation indicates broadly what it wants to do, while its policy outlines the methods and practices that it would follow to achieve the objectives and to reach the targets. Objectives are the ends; policies are the means to achieve those ends.

Check Your Progress 7

i) The major steps in the planning process are forecasting, setting the goals, preparing the strategies and determining action paths with provision for review and revision.

ii) The objectives of an organisation determine its functions and activities. These functions and activities have to be grouped into coherent sets, each set constituting a distinct area of activity. Putting these sets together with effective flow of work and information is at the core of an organisation's structure.

UNIT 2 MANAGEMENT OF EDUCATIONAL SYSTEMS

Structure

2.1 Introduction

2.2 Objectives

2.3 Understanding the Education System and Its Organisation

- 2.3.1 Education as a Social System
- 2.3.2 Education and the Government
- 2.3.3 The Government and its Agencies
- 2.3.4 Governments and University Autonomy
- 2.3.5 Education and the Market
- 2.3.6 Educational Institutions

2.4 The Education System and its Structure

- 2.4.1 Basic Education
- 2.4.2 Secondary Education
- 2.4.3 Higher Education
- 2.4.4 Technical and Professional Education

2.5 Management of Education and the Question of Quality

- 2.5.1 Planning and Coordination
- 2.5.2 Organisation and Control
- 2.5.3 Accountability
- 2.5.4 The Issue of Quality

2.6 Let Us Sum Up

2.7 Check Your Progress: Possible Answers

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In the first Unit, we presented an overview of the basic principles and practices associated with the profession of management in general. Management, as we noted, evolved into a profession during the middle of the 20th century, and during much of its professional evolution, it was perceived to be associated primarily with business. Peter Drucker's distinction between administration and management in 1970 clinches this perception. According to him, while administration is generally the field for non-business organisations, management focuses mainly on business that involves enterprise, risk-taking, selling to maximise profits and the organisational efforts needed to do all these, and do them efficiently. However, as the sweep and scope of the management profession extended over new areas, specialisation in management studies also began to emerge. Notable among the special areas in management are marketing, finance, human resources and operations.

Education management is a relatively new area of specialisation that developed strongly in the United States. Remember, unlike most other countries in the world, education in the United States of America is largely in the private sector. The initial offerings of educational management (administration) programmes relied heavily on the concepts and practices relevant to business settings. In the U.K., the Institute of Education of the University of London was the first to launch a specialised course in educational management in the 1960s. During the 1970s and 1980s, interest

in the field grew in the Commonwealth and Europe. The Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration and Management (CCEAM) was founded in 1970 and over 40 countries became its members. The European Forum on Educational Administration (EFEA) was established in 1976 with 20 members.

Attention to issues in education management is rapidly growing. There are several reasons for this growing interest. In the first place, resources for education are progressively shrinking. Secondly, education itself is spreading phenomenally; it is no more the privilege of a few. Today, education is universal, with societies aiming at universal primary education for all children across the world by 2015; that is the objective of the UNESCO's initiative of Education For All (EFA) that has also been incorporated into the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) adopted by the international community represented by the United Nations. Education does not, and will not, end with primary or basic education; it will proceed to secondary and tertiary stages. Most of the developed countries have already reached enrolment ratios of 50% or more of their eligible population in tertiary education; the developing countries are engaged in serious efforts to register double-digit figures in their tertiary education enrolment ratios. Such is the expansion that has to be organised, managed and successfully sustained. And the efforts worldwide demand new initiatives at resource generation, establishment and maintenance of schools, colleges and universities, and recruitment and training of teachers.

And with this massive expansion, a host of other issues need to be considered as well; strategic choices, action plans, collaboration and networking, performance appraisals, leadership and human resource management, budgeting and financial control, and so on. You will see that all these are just the issues that concern management in general. Your acquaintance with the functions and processes of management gained from the study of unit 1 will help you explore the ways in which management of educational systems assumes significance and the importance of studying them in depth. We shall now proceed to do just that.

2.2 OBJECTIVES

On completion of this Unit, you should be able to:

- *identify* the significant features of the education system and its organisation;
- *analyse* the various components that constitute the system of education in a country;
- *discuss* the relationships among Governments, their agencies and the institutions;
- *explain* the structure of education and the relationship among the various elements in that structure; and
- *analyse* and identify the specific issues that are relevant to the management of education.

2.3 UNDERSTANDING THE EDUCATION SYSTEM AND ITS ORGANISATION

In the previous unit, we discussed in some detail the system concept. While doing so, we mentioned university as an example of a system and

considered the several sub-systems that constitute the university, which itself is a complex organisation. However, university is just one element in a much larger system that is education with multiple layers of authority, organisational structures and complex relationships. For example, the education system comprises typically the governments at the apex, the regulatory agencies set up by them, the educational institutions (schools, colleges, universities) and not the least, parents' associations, professional organisations and many other interest groups that have a stake in education. It is this highly complex and multi-dimensional universe that we call the education system. We shall try to take a close look at this unique system in this unit.

2.3.1 Education as a Social System

Education is a people-oriented activity. It is not just about getting children and young adolescents together and getting them to accept common values shaped in the past. It is also about trying to find answers to questions like the reason and purpose of living together, and equipping everyone with the ability to participate effectively in shaping the future of the society of which they are a part. It is the responsibility of the education system to prepare everyone to perform this social role. As societies become more and more complex, people's participation in common enterprises goes far beyond the conventional political decision in electing their governments; it extends to shaping and developing social institutions and organisations as well. The major role of education then is to prepare people for active participation in the life of their communities.

It is now widely recognised that the goal of development should be human welfare and not merely economic growth measured in terms of GDP and per capita income. The indicators of development are to be reckoned also in terms of health, nutrition, access to drinking water, education and the environment. Equity, equality between social groups and between the sexes and the degree of participation in the processes of development itself are just as significant. In this broader perspective, one of the principal functions of education is to prepare humanity to take control of its own development. It must enable all people without exception to take their destiny into their own hands and contribute to the progress of the society.

Education systems cannot, however, continue indefinitely to meet all the demands made on them, and these demands are only growing constantly. They are called upon to provide the same educational opportunities to all, and to respond to all demands made on them. Inevitably, resource allocation becomes a crucial factor in determining the paradigm of development, and the distribution of resources should clearly reflect each society's choices of models of economic, social and cultural development.

In the developing countries, while shortage of resources is a major constraint in making choices, developed countries also face the dilemma of balancing different options in resource allocation for education, as for instance, provision of equal opportunities or removal of the mismatch between supply and demand in the labour market. In both cases, the pressure of these demands falls largely upon public authorities and the policy-makers who are often faced with conflicting interests; industry demands more and more skills and competence; science wants funds for research and higher education that produces young researchers; the humanities and the social sciences want support for better general education; parents look for more high-quality education; the disadvantaged social groups want more

opportunities to pursue education; and all these, in turn, require a better supply of good teachers. The issue is not one of just making a choice; each of these demands is based on the legitimate expectations that it is one of education's basic functions. Choices in education, therefore, concern the whole of society and require democratic debates and decisions.

2.3.2 Education and the Government

The basic feature of education as a social system that deeply affects the lives of all people inevitably brings into focus the role of governments in the management of education. It is not just the allocation of resources alone; as we have seen in the previous section, there is a whole range of issues on which choices in education depend. Who else can consider all these issues in the broader perspective of a nation's interests? No one else, but the government.

Most governments frame a national policy on education. Often, these policies are framed after extensive debates in which all major sections of the society are involved. Such policies also provide for periodic review and renewal, and the basis for education reforms in most countries is the thrust given in their national policies. Generally, the overall framework that most national policies provide will cover:

- Teaching and curriculum (subjects to be taught, compulsory and optional subjects, contents of courses, national core curriculum which might be a model only in some cases, examinations at the institutional and national levels, etc.);
- Staff (qualification prescribed centrally by law or determined by institutions on the basis of models or guidelines, recruitment and training of teachers, their conditions of service, and so on);
- Educational structure (levels and stages of education, standards of attainment at each stage, mobility from one stage to another, organisation of institutions at each level, etc.);
- Concerns of access, costs and quality (widening access requires expansion involving high costs, improvements in quality pushes costs, and lowering costs compromises quality; an equilibrium between these conflicting concerns is what a policy should seek to establish);
- Performance assessment and review (performance audit of institutions, organisational systems, content and processes of education, review of policies and changes in direction, etc.);
- Resources (finance, budgeting, grants, sources of finance, management patterns, fees and other resources, international collaboration, etc.).

The government's job is not over with the enunciation of a policy. It has to see that the policy is implemented. In several cases, it might require the enactment of laws and also the establishment of necessary instruments. Since governments cannot be expected to run all educational institutions directly, legislations would provide for the necessary regulatory framework within which both the public and private sector will function in the field of education.

The role played by the governments will vary depending upon how national governance is structured. The organisation of the educational system could be completely centralised, or decentralised, or a mixture of both. Countries with a federal structure have a largely decentralised system in which states

perform most of the policy, planning and regulatory functions. In a fully centralised system, as in the erstwhile Eastern Europe, the system is run by a central authority. France too has a centralised system of education, and it is said that a School Inspector, looking at his/her watch, could say: "at the present moment, in every school from Cannes to Lille, they are teaching quadratic equations". In decentralised systems, local self-governments play a major responsibility, especially in the establishment, management and maintenance of schools. At the levels of higher education, the picture is quite different; governments, both federal and state, come in a big way. The stakes are high, the costs are heavy and the responsibilities are huge. We shall now turn to the roles and responsibilities of governments in education and how they go about playing their roles.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.

ii) Check your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

How the national educational policies are usually formulated? Answer in about 30 words.

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2.3.3 The Government and its Agencies

We have seen how significant is the government's role in education, and how this role is more visible in higher education. But, before we move to the role of governments in higher education, let us take a brief look at the ways in which the school system in many countries are influenced, shaped and 'managed' by government policies and actions.

Traditionally, governments have played a major role in establishing and maintaining schools in their countries. Their major role was provision of the resources, and with it, over periods of time, came the responsibilities for defining a minimum standard of learning outcomes, a standard national curriculum, minimum qualifications and competence required of teachers and such other common concerns. Most countries followed a fairly strong control over their education systems; establishing schools, appointing teachers, managing the school system, making arrangements for holding examinations and awarding qualifications, and so on. While these practices are still in vogue in most developing countries, there have been major efforts at reforms and changes in the ways in which school systems are organised and managed in Europe and America. The thrust of these reforms is decentralisation and deregulation leading to greater school autonomy.

Peter Karstanje (1999) distinguishes three different models of decentralisation and deregulation:

- A centralised and regulated regime – in this case, the government, usually the central government, or, in countries that have a federal structure such as Germany, the regional authorities, regulate almost every aspect of educational institutions , and in so doing, has a central

influence on what happens in schools. This is the case in France, Germany, Italy and many East European countries.

- A moderate level of centralisation and regulation is found in countries where the national government partially regulates the educational institutions. In such cases, the national governments may, for example, strongly emphasise certain fields of interest and be inclined to designate any other areas as falling under the responsibility of the school. In these cases, while financial and staffing policies might be within the domain of national governments, matters relating to curriculum, teaching, school organisation, etc. might be left to the schools to determine. In such cases, local councils or regional authorities have a higher level of authority in regulating the affairs of educational institutions.
- A higher degree of decentralisation and deregulation where the national governments provide the resources with little or no conditions relating to their use is very uncommon. The reason is that governments have to account for the use of public funds and this role implies a certain degree of regulatory interventions. In countries like England and Netherlands, responsibilities have undergone a partial shift from the government to the educational institutions. The national government fulfils its responsibility by carrying out quality inspections by requiring schools to combine a solid system of internal quality checks with a national quality monitoring system run by government inspectors (in Netherlands) or by private inspectors (in England).

You will notice that governments play a crucial role in the school systems across most countries. Ministries of Education, Education Directorates, Regional and District Education Officers, local authorities (local self-governments like municipalities), and school inspectors are all part of the vast regulatory networks that governments have put in place to fulfil their responsibility for oversight of the school systems.

A very common instrument that you will find in most countries is the Board of Education that prescribes the courses and their content, holds the examinations and certifies the outcome. The schools are mostly engaged in teaching what the Boards prescribe though they have the freedom to engage students in multiple ways to make sure that their physical and intellectual development is ensured and that they grow up adequately prepared to shoulder major responsibilities in life. Further, all educational provision needs certain infrastructure. While buildings, equipment, books and teachers can be assembled by the managements, there are more to the school system than the physical infrastructure. For instance, schools need teachers; you cannot expect every management to recruit and train them. It is not just one-time training. Supply of qualified teachers has to be ensured on a continuing basis for the growth of the system and its sustainability. Then, there is the question of a common curriculum, core content, setting the minimum standards for the learning outcome, and so on. All these go beyond the domain of individual schools, and a national authority like the government steps in.

When it comes to higher education, there are fewer examples of Governments running universities directly though they provide nearly all the resources that the universities require. This is primarily because universities have traditionally been known to be self-governing institutions, and any involvement of governments in their functioning was perceived to be compromising their autonomy. In fact, the notion of autonomy is often invoked to keep governments at a distance from universities. And

governments too accepted the strength of the argument that they should not be seen to be running universities. In U.K. for instance, the concept of a buffer between the government and the universities led to the establishment of the University Grants Committee as an intermediate instrument between government and universities for all purposes that included funding, planning (including control) and indeed all communication. Over the years, this agency has gone through a great deal of metamorphosis and is currently operating in the form of funding councils on a regional basis. There is also a Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) in U.K. that reviews the quality of teaching in British universities. The QAA system, in some ways, has imposed on the Universities some external pressures and controls leading to tensions arising from the risks of a compliance culture that undermines autonomy.

In India, besides the University Grants Commission (UGC) that is responsible for the coordinated development of the university system there is an All India Council for Technical Education (AICTE) that is charged with similar responsibilities in the field of technical education and a National Council of Teacher Education (NCTE) that is responsible for ensuring the quality and standards of training for school teachers..

These are not the only agencies. As education systems get more and more complex, and with the need for greater specialisation in a range of areas, levels and constituencies across the whole spectrum of education, the governments set up many more agencies, many of them as statutory bodies, to deal with the areas of concern assigned to them. We have seen the establishment of agencies like the Councils for Vocational Education and Agencies or Associations for the development and standard setting in several fields of professional education like architecture, management, medicine, law, and so on. It has to be admitted that not all these professional bodies across all countries are the creation of governments; many among them have come up as non-government agencies at the initiative of the professions themselves. Irrespective of who set them up, these agencies perform a critical function; they validate the programmes offered by the universities by accepting them as adequate preparation for entry in to the profession concerned.

In more recent times, with the rapid growth of institutions of higher education, and the equally rapid rise in enrolments across the world, the stakeholder interests have also gone up. With participation rates in higher education growing fast in most countries, crossing the 50% mark in the developed countries, and the developing nations making all efforts to catch up, questions are also being raised about the quality and value of what many universities and colleges offer. Governments provide the resources to the universities; in other words, the tax payers finance the universities. As parents, all people are interested in satisfying themselves that what they spend their money on is spent wisely. Governments, on their part, are keen that the investments they make from public funds are for good causes, and that those investments are best utilised. In other words, universities are called upon to remain accountable for the use of the resources placed at their disposal, and provide adequate and credible information about their performance on all fronts.

These questions and concerns gave rise in recent decades to the emergence across the world of new instruments and mechanisms to establish and maintain the quality of teaching and research as well as programmes and courses. In fact, quality of education has now emerged as a special area for

studies and research and have contributed a vast body of literature on what constitutes quality, how it is assured across a spectrum of institutions, programmes and research efforts. There are in many countries what are known as Quality Assurance Councils, or by other names, whose functions are to examine the quality of teaching and research in their universities and make their findings known to the public (we mentioned the QAA in U.K. a little earlier). These Councils have developed elaborate criteria to assess the performance of each institution or its programmes as well as its teaching and research. These initiatives have gradually led to the emergence of mechanisms for accreditation of institutions and, in some cases, to the rating of the institutions as well. For example, for some years now the British universities are rated based on their performance in teaching and research, giving out the message that universities cannot take their place for granted on the basis of past performance, and that they have to earn their place through continuing efforts. These ratings help students and their parents in the choice of institutions, programmes and courses. It is important to note that one of these criteria is the standing of the qualifications in the job market and its acceptability for future employment. Surely, it is something that most people would be interested in knowing.

Two other issues that bring governments directly on the education scene need to be mentioned here. First is the recognition of qualifications for employment. In the past, students from several countries moved to the well known universities in Europe and America for higher education. This situation has dramatically changed during the last half century or so. Most of the former colonies are now independent nations. All of them have their own schools, colleges and universities. Yet, there is considerable student movement from the developing countries to the west and among developing countries themselves. Naturally, questions arise whether the qualifications obtained from country A are accepted for jobs in country B. This question attracted serious debates across the globe. Discussions were held bilaterally between countries and multilaterally among nations under the auspices of international organisations like the UNESCO. Today, there are protocols signed between countries according mutual recognitions to qualifications obtained from institutions within their countries. The international initiatives taken by UNESCO have led to the formulations of international conventions on recognition of qualifications on regional basis that member countries can ratify. Either way, these treaties and conventions are in the domain of governments.

The second is a more recent trend of increasing commercialisation of education. Not just within countries, but internationally too, the high cost of education, especially higher education, has offered opportunities for a high-profit business in education. Not all the enterprises entering the education business are driven by the desire to promote education; they are driven by profit motive. They attract students with lucrative offers, collect huge amounts of fees, and later, turn out to be no more than fly-by-night operators. Governments have a duty and the responsibility to protect the interests of their students and ensure that they do not fall victim to unscrupulous education entrepreneurs. Governments are engaged in enacting laws to prevent such malpractices by insisting that the credentials of the institutions be made known and/or they obtain permission from the national regulators to operate in their jurisdiction. We shall return to this issue shortly.

It is also true that in the last three decades or so, the cost of education has gone up enormously. Parents and students want to know whether it is

worthwhile to spend so much money and time on what the institutions offer. In other words, the emergence of the element of market in education has forced this issue on institutions. They are now called upon to "sell" their products (academic programmes) and satisfy the potential consumers that their investments are safe and worthwhile. This is a new dimension in education and we shall turn to this issue later.

Check Your Progress 2

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.

ii) Check your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

i) What is the basic difference in the role of governments in school education and in higher education? Answer in about 50 words.

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ii) What are the functions of quality assurance councils in various countries? Answer in about 40 words.

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2.3.4 Governments and University Autonomy

Universities are the institutions that create, preserve and disseminate knowledge. They are the intellectual guardians of the society. They produce men and women who can reflect on contemporary issues of concern to society and humanity in general, scientists, engineers and technologists who come out with great discoveries and inventions as also the ways in which people make sense of new knowledge and its applications, and doctors and lawyers who help healthy and orderly growth and progress of societies. They are also the institutions that provide the knowledge, skills and competence that people need to engage themselves in different occupations, produce goods and services and create wealth. Unlike schools that provide the foundation for good education, higher education institutions affect people and shape their lives more directly and immediately.

Though this discussion encompasses all higher education institutions, we shall use the term 'university' more for its symbolic value than its substance. The modern university, for more than its 800-year history, has owed allegiance to someone. Universities always needed patrons, be they the king or the church, merchants or philanthropists for their funding. The patrons always expected something in return, political policies or religious doctrines, trading policies and patterns or philosophical values that underpin charity. For universities, however, this was a small price to pay as they cherished the freedom that enabled them to challenge state power and even support and encourage opposing ideologies and doctrines.

The world after World War II was quite different. The challenges of reconstruction and development demanded that Governments assume the role of the chief patron of universities. In return they expected universities to become useful instruments of national purposes. That was the dawn of a new era of government-university relationship.

The freedom of the university to run its own affairs without direction or influence from any level of government is the core of what came to be known as autonomy. It works at two levels: first, academic autonomy that assures the right of universities to decide what to teach and how, and to determine the areas for research investigations and studies as well as their right to publish their findings from research; and second, the influences exercised by governments by asserting its legislative authority and executive power in deciding major issues like membership of Councils, appointment of Vice-Chancellor, and so on. The exercise of such influences is now a matter of routine in many countries; the only difference is the degree of state control and influence. With the massive expansion of higher education in the recent decades, and the very high costs involved in the maintenance of universities, governments that fund universities started asking questions. Do the universities deliver what they promise; when performance should count in every other sphere, why should higher education be an exception; and how quality of learning could be assessed to establish benchmarks for comparing and motivating better performance? And with this came other questions: are the governments aiming at controlling universities, and influencing them?

There have been studies conducted into the extent and quality of government influences on universities in several countries. A 1997 study conducted by Carnegie Foundation for Advancement of Teaching (CFAT) on assessment of scholarship and evaluation of faculty found that of the 12 countries surveyed, Korea had the most influence of governments followed in that order by Australia, Mexico, Japan, Netherlands, Hong Kong, Brazil, USA, Russia, Israel, Sweden and Chile. On the question whether governments should define the purposes and policies for higher education, the response varied in degrees; the most positive among them was Russia followed by Korea, Hong Kong, Sweden, Brazil, Chile, the Netherlands, Mexico, Israel, Australia, Japan and the USA. On the question whether governments should have, and do play, this role, Korea was placed high in terms of positive response, followed by Russia and Sweden (high on should and low on do), Mexico (should not have, but actually do), Israel, Japan and USA (low on both) and the rest more or less equal on both (Glassick, and others;1997).

Another study conducted about the same time by the Commonwealth Higher Education Management Services (CHEMS) looked at the degree of state influence on Commonwealth universities in terms of the more innocuous 'state supervision' to the more intrusive 'state control'. The study found that the governments in the Caribbean were the least intrusive, those in Canada, Britain, Australia and New Zealand were moderate and those in Africa and Asia were the most intrusive (Richardson and Fielden, 1997).

A third study sponsored by the Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs of the government of Australia and conducted by the Australian National University in 1998 explored the issue further (Don Anderson and Richard Johnson, 1998). They examined the issue of autonomy in relation to the roles of Government on a number of issues

ranging from staff (appointment, promotion and terms and conditions of service) to academic standards (degree standards, quality audits, accreditation), curriculum and teaching, governance (councils, academic boards, student associations) and organisation and finance (funding, operating and capital grants, non-government funding, and accountability arrangements). The findings were interesting: almost 80% of the respondents felt that government interventions were not unreasonable. Countries that felt the interventions slightly excessive included France, Sweden, UK, New Zealand, Japan and Sri Lanka. Most of the respondents agreed that governments had the legal authority to intervene and the degree of intervention varied from high to low on different issues. For example, government influence was high on administration and finance as well as academic standards (quality audits and accreditation), it was very low on governance (councils and their memberships) and curriculum and teaching (www.magna.charta.org).

The developing countries generally view and use universities as instruments contributing to national cohesion and plans for economic and social development. For most of them, the modern university, far from being 'outside' government, is a product of government and has to serve its purpose as many other constituencies of governments do. Conventional academic freedom has to be confined within boundaries set by government and the university management.

So, where does it leave universities and their autonomy? The Australian National University study provides a clue. According to that study, in the 20 countries across the world that were surveyed, government influence was perceived to be high in Malaysia, Sri Lanka, Indochina, China, Singapore, South Africa and France, while it was low in the U.K., Canada, Ireland, USA, Germany and Japan. In the remaining 7 countries, namely, Netherlands, Sweden, Russia, Italy, Australia, New Zealand and Thailand, the degree of influence varied; it was neither too high, nor too low. But influence was there. The message is loud and clear. Irrespective of the stages of development, the long history, traditions and the ideals of freedom and autonomy enjoyed by universities through centuries, in today's context, governments are major players in higher education, and they do influence the functioning of universities in varying degrees.

What does it mean to education policy-makers, planners and managers? Governments are major partners, and they can no longer be wished away. They are part of the environment within which universities have to operate; it will be idle to assume that academic freedom and autonomy are absolute.

Check Your Progress 3

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.

ii) Check your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

What do you understand from the studies conducted on the influence of governments on the university autonomy and academic freedom? Answer in about 50 words.

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2.3.5 Education and the Market

We shall now turn to another interesting development: entry of the market in education. Market is a major factor in the environment that influences all economic decisions. To the extent that educational provision is also a function of the interplay of demand and supply, education cannot be seen to be beyond the realm of market. Historically, education has been conceived as an endeavour designed to promote the well-being of any society, not driven by considerations of profit, creation of wealth for the providers and not the least, exploitation of the people by any means. Therefore, the market dimension of education has remained outside the scope of discussions on educational policies and programmes. It was taken for granted that the responsibility for making provision for the education of the people rested squarely on the shoulders of the government. Since the state provided nearly all the funding for education, and since what the state did was not influenced by commercial considerations, there was no question of the market entering the scheme of educational provision.

However, during the 1970s and 1980s, certain political economists, like Hayek (1973) and Friedman (1980), began the advocacy of a socio-political philosophy which argued that market forces were the most appropriate instruments for the allocation of resources and structuring of choices in all aspects of human endeavour, including social and educational policy. This view was later articulated as a set of organisational principles for public sector institutions by Harris (1980) and Scruton (1984). The basic tenets of their argument were:

- Individuals have the absolute liberty to make choices on the basis of their own self-interest;
- Such freedom to choose cannot be subjected to any constraint by others; and
- It is this unfettered freedom that is manifested in the everyday spending of the individuals.

In the USA, where most of the well known universities are established and managed by private Trusts and Foundations, university management on corporate governance patterns has been the norm. Most of them have huge endowments; they invest in, and run businesses; own real estate that they build and rent; and engage in large business operations to raise their resources. In most of Europe and in other parts of the world, education primarily remained the responsibility of governments. In the 1980s, however, winds of change began to appear in the U.K. In the context of escalating costs, and the increasing demand for educational facilities not just from domestic students, but from other countries as well, questions began to be raised on several economic issues in education. These included:

- Should government continue to subsidise education for all students?
- Should the universities not recover the cost of education from the students?
- Why should the British Government subsidise the education of overseas students?
- So much tax payers' money goes into universities. Are they accountable? Is there any transparency about what they do?
- How about issues like productivity and performance audit?

- How can the university managements be restructured to make principles of accountability, mobilisation of extra-budgetary resources, etc. part of the management processes?

Discussions on these issues eventually led to restructuring the systems of management and funding of the British universities. The traditions of the "Liberal" university soon gave way to corporate governance models and funding on the basis of costing and bidding. These changes more akin to market operations became the guiding principles for the determinant in the formulation of policies and programmes of education in the U.K. Since the late 1980s, a series of legislation in the U.K. for the implementation of the education policy have sought to create and sustain an education market. Most of these laws focus on making educational institutions accountable, providing the public with information about their performance on which they could make judgements and generally emphasising the principle that "value for money" is the basis of educational spending.

This was followed by another development. The World Trade Organisation, in their endless rounds of discussions, came out with the idea that education is a service industry. The protagonists of this theory argued that as in other industries, there was movement of capital, people, and services across borders in education and, therefore, it qualified to be classified as a trading industry. This proposal is still on the table and members of the WTO are still to accept the proposal.

The phenomenal growth of open learning and distance education with the help of information and communication technologies (ICT) across the world in the last 2-3 decades opened up the opportunities for cross-border education. While it has helped nationals of many developing countries to pursue programmes of education offered by some of the best universities in the world without leaving the shores of their own countries, rampant corrupt practices also entered the global education business. What came to be known as franchises and licences for conducting business in the name of foreign universities and collecting huge amounts of money from unsuspecting students in many countries became a common practice. As we noted earlier, in many countries, governments had to intervene with regulatory measures to deal with these commercial practices.

Will education go the ways of the market? There is no evidence yet to suggest it will. It may yet adopt and accept some of the best practices from the world of business and commerce; it may also accept some of the best practices from corporate governance models. It may remain a service, but it is quite unlikely that it will become pure commerce.

2.3.6 Educational Institutions

In this unit, we have been discussing the management of education systems. The canvas is too large; the players are too many. The range and variety of issues are too complex to make any simplistic assumptions about the environment in which education systems across the world operate. Our effort so far has been to bring on the table some of the important features of the environment in which education systems operate for a better understanding of the issues and concerns confronting those responsible for making policies and preparing plans for any component of this vast system. For a better appreciation of the vastness of this complexity, let us say that what we have discussed so far are the features of education as a Meta system. But it is not here that real action lies.

You will recall that we mentioned in the previous unit that organisations are its people, teachers and students, in education. In what we discussed so far, we did not find any role for them; at the Meta system level, teachers and students have little or no role to play in management. The core of the education system is, however, the very large number of schools, colleges, universities and a large variety of other institutions. Each one of them is a complex organisation in itself performing a variety of functions. These institutions, perhaps several thousands of them within each country, have their own organisation and management structures that comprise various bodies (Governing Councils, Academic Councils, Boards of Studies, Committees, etc.) and personnel (Presidents, Vice-Chancellors, Deans, Heads of Departments, Principals, head Teachers, and so on).

Normally, when one speaks about education management, it is the management of these institutions that one is likely to have in focus. To the extent that education is a service rendered to the people, it is the providers (institutions) that are likely to be in public limelight. One should not therefore be surprised that the blame for all that goes wrong with education is placed squarely at the door of the people in these institutions, especially the teachers and the administrators. The fact however is that they have to perform under enormous constraints mostly of the environment comprising the legal, systemic and financial frameworks within which they operate. They have little or no say in influencing or modifying these environmental constraints; they are expected only to work within them. We shall come to institutional management in greater detail in the next unit.

Having identified the broad constituents that comprise the larger education system, we shall, in the later part of this course, examine in greater detail the roles and responsibilities as well as the functions and processes associated with each one of them in the management of education. These discussions would be, where appropriate, in the context of detailed case studies of specific institutions, or examination of the general principles and practices relevant to the management of education.

Check Your Progress 4

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.

ii) Check your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

What do you understand by meta system in education? Answer in about 40 words.

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2.4 THE EDUCATION SYSTEM AND ITS STRUCTURE

You will recall that while discussing the system concept in Unit 1, we noticed that a system is the aggregate of several inter-related components called sub-systems. In our example of a university, we identified several sub-systems that comprise the university as a system. When we looked at

the organisation of education, we saw that it consisted of several large systems, each of which has a number of components and also complex organisational structures. From this point of view, it will be appropriate to look at the organisation of education as a three-tiered structure as explained below:

- A Meta system operating mainly at the national level, managed by the central/federal government and concerned with such issues as the national policy, legislation, resource provision, etc.;
- A Mega system functioning primarily in the sphere of execution of the national policy and including various agencies established for managing (planning, coordinating, regulating and evaluating) specific areas of education (university education, technical and professional education, teacher education, and so on) committed to their charge;
- The institutional system concerned with prescribing courses, appointing teachers, admitting students, imparting instruction, evaluating students, and managing finances and administration (schools, colleges, universities and such other institutions).

This broad overview of the design of the education system will provide you with some understanding to appreciate its structure. Generally, the education system in a country is organised on the basis of levels (or stages) of education, each of which is identified with a specified level of attainment. These stages are basic education (encompassing primary education/ elementary education), secondary education (general education, vocational education) and post-secondary education (higher education and all forms of professional and technical education). It needs to be emphasised here that the pattern of organisation as mentioned above is not absolutely uniform across the world, and there could be any number of variations depending upon where the margins of one stage ends and another begins. By and large, however, this broad classification seems to be the global pattern. We shall now look at this structure of the education system.

2.4.1 Basic Education

Basic education is defined as the initial education covering children from the age of 3 to 12 or 14. This stage would cover pre-school education, primary education of 5 years and up to 3 more years of general education (in some countries, the post-primary stage of 3 years is also called the middle school). It is at this stage that sparks of creativity spring to life and access to knowledge becomes a reality. This stage also provides the opportunities to acquire the instruments for future development of the faculties of reason and imagination, of judgement and sense of responsibility, and of inquisitiveness and desire for learning. It is at this stage that the cognitive and affective skills are developed through the transmission of the essential body of knowledge to children. "The basic learning needs comprise both essential learning tools (such as literacy, oral expression, numeracy, and problem solving) and the basic learning content (such as knowledge, skills, values and attitudes) required by human beings to be able to survive, to develop their full capacities, to live and work in dignity, to participate fully in development to improve the quality of their lives, to make informed decisions, and to continue learning" (World Declaration on Education for All, Art.I, Para-I, Jomtien Conference, UNESCO 1990).

Universalisation of basic education involves tremendous responsibilities for the management (usually the public authorities and governments in particular). These would include:

- Making basic education compulsory for every child;
- Providing infrastructure like school buildings and other facilities;
- Recruitment of teachers and their training;
- Removing all obstacles to children's attendance in schools;
- Special provision for enrolment and retention of girls specially in societies which prevent girls' participation in out-of-home activities;
- Appointment of more women teachers;
- Provision of schooling within reasonable distances;
- Adapting school timing to take care of family duties;
- Provision of school meals.

2.4.2 Secondary Education

Secondary education is that stage of initial education at which young people should be able to decide their future in the light of their own tastes and aptitudes, and acquire the abilities that would make for a successful adult life. It is regarded as the threshold to social and economic advancement. And yet, it is this stage of education that attracts the strongest criticisms, against its iniquitous characters, absence of openness and generally against its inability to prepare young students for the world of work or for higher education. There are also concerns expressed over the relevance of its content, and its indifference to developing attitudes and values.

While basic education is concerned with the common needs of all the people, secondary education will have to address the issue of differentiation in talents. Besides dealing with certain core elements like language, science and general education, the stage of secondary education has to cultivate a scientific temper in the people, and prepare them for use of science and technology in enriching life and ensuring sustainable development. Secondary school curricula have to help students acquire the tools for dealing with new technologies in the technology-dominated world of tomorrow and foster among them the aptitudes for managing conflict and violence as well as the creativity and empathy necessary for participation in social development.

The academic content of secondary education courses should prepare them to pursue higher education, and also equip those who fail to make it to colleges and universities, for life and work. This will call for diversification of course structure and incorporation of work experience in the curricula. Preparation of teachers is an important element in the organisation and management of secondary education.

2.4.3 Higher Education

The functions of higher education are generally the advancement and dissemination of knowledge through research, teaching and extension/ continuing education. These functions have a direct bearing on development. The higher education institutions provide tomorrow's leaders in business, industry, politics, science and technology as well as teaching.

Higher education in recent years has been under severe pressure. The relevance of what is taught, the growing mismatch between education and employment, the constraints in providing wider access, existing rigidities in the structures and processes, the preoccupation with the concern of passing

the examination rather than learning, and not the least, the efficiency of many institutions of higher education have all come under close public scrutiny.

The most significant among these concerns in recent times has been the shrinking resource base for higher education across the world. While public funding of education up to the secondary level is more or less universally accepted, the principle that higher education should pay for itself is strongly being canvassed in many countries. Raising resources for higher education through non-governmental sources has become an issue of lively debate in many countries.

These concerns have also brought to limelight the inevitability of significant reforms in higher education which is increasingly being sought by a bewildering variety of learner groups. In fact, the emergence of lifelong education, and the inescapable need for updating the knowledge of adults at work have all significantly added to the complexity of the problems confronting higher education. The development of distance education is substantially a response to these challenges.

2.4.4 Technical and Professional Education

Unlike primary (basic), secondary and tertiary (higher) education, technical and professional education is not a separate stage in a time sequence in the progression of education. For all practical purposes, technical/professional education is a component of the larger system of post-secondary (tertiary) education. Professional education, nevertheless, is regarded as a distinct category in the structure of education because of the significant differences in their objectives and emphasis which require, from the organisational perspective, a great deal more of coordination and networking with various professional bodies as well as employing sectors. The major difference in professional education, in other words, is its focus on theory-practice integration that goes beyond traditional teaching and involves hands-on experience in the application of knowledge in various fields.

Check Your Progress 5

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.

ii) Check your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

i) What should be the emphasis at secondary stage of education to make the students cope with future challenges? Answer in about 40 words.

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ii) What are the major factors that bring pressure on higher education? Answer in about 40 words.

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2.5 MANAGEMENT OF EDUCATION AND THE QUESTION OF QUALITY

The foregoing discussion would have given you an idea about the organisation and structure of the educational system in a country. Depending upon the size and complexity, three levels of organisational structure in education can clearly be discerned. First, at the micro-level, there is the educational institution. Second, at the sectoral level, (primary, secondary, or higher education), there are agencies charged with the responsibility of managing and regulating the growth and development of each sector. And finally, there is the apex level, the government that lays down the policy and allocates the resources.

We have seen from Unit 1, that all organisational systems function in a planned and coordinated manner to achieve their objectives. This is true of education too. The objectives may vary depending upon the level at which the management is operating. For example, at the apex level, the objectives are significantly different from those at the institutional level. Nevertheless, the functions would more or less be identical though the processes might vary.

In this section, we propose to take up only those management issues that concern the system at the apex level. We will have occasion to discuss these issues in the context of the organisation of the higher education system in general, and universities in particular, in Block 2 of this course.

2.5.1 Planning and Coordination

The objective of education is human development. It is the state that has to make provision for it. Since resources are limited, it becomes necessary to balance the demands from each sector of development (education is only one such sector, there are other equally important sectors, namely, health, agriculture, communications, transport and so on) and also within the sector of education itself. For instance, governments cannot afford to earmark all the resources for higher education and nothing for primary education. This balancing of resource allocation presupposes a reasonably strong and rational planning process at the government level.

A major element of this process is the drawing up of priorities. For instance, while universalisation of elementary education is necessarily a high priority item on the agenda, provision of secondary education might concentrate more on strengthening the existing facilities and improving their quality. Higher education might focus only on those areas that are critical for national development, and training of teachers for the school system. This ordering of priorities will be based on the perceptions of the government.

Having determined the priorities, the next step would be to allocate the resources. Since resources for public spending are never adequate, there would still be more balancing act to do. If the experience of the developing countries is any indication, provision for the infrastructure in education (school buildings, laboratories, libraries, science equipment) gets a lower priority than payment of salary of teachers and administrative staff. On an average, while the developed countries spend 6% or more of their gross domestic product (GDP) on education, in most developing countries, it is about 3% or less. Soon enough, huge backlogs in the provision of infrastructure for education would pose serious problems for its quality and

standards requiring special efforts, including international assistance, to reorganise and consolidate the system.

From the national perspective, it is also necessary to ensure educational development in terms of fulfilling certain social objectives. For instance, provision of equal opportunities, special attention to the education of socially disadvantaged sections, women, those living in remote and backward regions are all matters of concern in educational planning. We had made a mention of some of these concerns while talking about elementary education.

A great deal of coordination of efforts is essential at the national level if a national planning process has to be established. In a large and decentralised system, for example, there are several agencies involved in the development of education (we mentioned most of them in the previous section). It is necessary to ensure that efforts at all these levels synchronise to ensure that objectives do not lose focus, resources are optimally utilised, and efficiency is ensured.

2.5.2 Organisation and Control

Though organisation and control are significant elements in the processes of management, education has a special feature. Perhaps, in no other organised endeavour, is there so much of autonomy at every level as in education. The individual teacher is independent; he/she does not function on the basis of a hierarchy of functions or authority. He/she enjoys considerable freedom in deciding what he/she teaches and how (subject, of course, to the limitations imposed by curricular frameworks). The concept of academic freedom pervades the governance of institutions as well. Most of them are self-governed. Their governance structures generally ensure that they are able to function in an atmosphere free from the pulls and pressures of their environment.

It is in recognition of this principle of autonomy, and the need to protect educational institutions (universities in particular) from day-to-day dealings with the government that several agencies came to be established. For instance, the erstwhile University Grants Committee in the UK when set up was conceived as a "buffer" between the government and the universities. Over a period of time, however, most of these agencies began to exercise greater control over the affairs of the universities, and the consequent tensions continue to strain the relationships between them (we have discussed this issue in detail earlier).

You will recall that we discussed the influence of the market on education. In that context, we also mentioned the principle of 'value for money' in respect of public funding. The enforcement of this principle has assumed several forms. Performance audit and assessment, accreditation and rating, expert reviews and evaluation, etc., have all been evolved to exercise and retain some control over the functioning of the education system by the governments.

2.5.3 Accountability

In its simplest form, accountability is the principle that persons or groups entrusted with the performance of any function or task should also remain responsible for what they do or do not do. In other words, owning up of the success or failure of a specific function or task by the concerned person or group is what accountability implies. It follows that while success would

get rewarded, failure should get punished. In public systems, however, this principle does not operate in that manner. Success seldom gets rewarded; after all, that is what is expected of them, and that is what they are paid for. Since success is not rewarded, failures do not get punished either. There could always be exceptions to this rule; people are sometimes forced out of their offices or otherwise proceeded against according to law.

In recent times, public systems across the world have come under close scrutiny. Questions are being raised about their efficiency, about their responsiveness, and about their ways of functioning. It is not unusual to hear accusations of waste, inefficiency, over-staffing, low productivity, unreasonable compensation, freeloading and so on against the management of public systems. As a result, some fundamental changes not just in policies and practices, but also in the overall culture underlying public administration models in most countries are becoming evident. In several cases, there is noticeable movement towards rational corporate management techniques that emphasise accounting, auditing, accountability, performance assessment systems, etc. It is not surprising, therefore, that concerns about efficiency, cost-cutting, performance audit and accountability that reflect the dominant social and political values also find their echoes in the environment in which modern universities function.

As we noted elsewhere, universities have long cherished the freedom that they have always enjoyed. Freedom to think, to reflect, to create and to innovate is the bedrock of academic excellence. The purists argue that imposition of constraints like efficiency, productivity and performance criteria is alien to this culture of academic freedom. The counterargument is that universities as social systems have to establish that they provide access to the students, help them study and graduate in reasonable time, and what they study is worth the investments in time and money, and so on. Universities have come to understand these concerns; they are willing to go some way, they are not against remaining answerable, but are still not wholly convinced that they need to be controlled.

The accountability of the educational system and the people managing it at various levels is the function of the performance of the system itself. It is not merely the efficiency of the system in terms of its input-output relationship, but its effectiveness in fulfilling its objectives. The parameters of this effectiveness could vary from the literacy levels of the population to the highest levels of achievements in science and technology, and overall human development. The effectiveness of the education system is generally measured in terms of enrolments, inclusiveness in admission policies, retention, drop-out rates, standing of graduates in the labour market, migration among institutions and, not the least, by the ratio of recruitment by transnational enterprises.

2.5.4 The Issue of Quality

The quality issue in education is both technical and ethical. The technical issue of quality in education is concerned with its products (levels of learning attainments, ratio of educated people at various levels to the total population, proportion of educated women, pass ratios, employment status of graduates, and so on) and its processes (teaching methods and practices, provision of learning resources, training of teachers, objectivity and reliability of the examination system and so on). The ethical issue of quality of education is concerned with the values and attitudes that the system seeks to promote and develop as well as the ethos and culture in which it operates.

There are many definitions of quality; "fitness for the purpose" is, perhaps, the simplest among them. What complicates the question of quality is: how do you determine the quality of any object? Well, we said determine; and that involves assessment. How does one assess the quality of education? Through evaluation? By establishing performance indicators? As we noted in the previous section, requirements of public accountability involves assessment of performance in terms of several pre-determined criteria leading to the judgement – good, bad or indifferent – in terms of the values (ideologies that underpin public sector reforms) represented by the indicators mandated and monitored by governments. A serious criticism against such externally imposed quality assessment mechanisms is that educational institutions are burdened with the responsibility for producing the indicators without any concern for the specific nature of the ways in which educational systems function. In the event, accountability is just a show of holding universities answerable to just a few questions that in no way leads to improvements in their performance.

As we discussed earlier in this unit, the import of market operations in to the education system in the recent past introduced an element of competition among universities. The systems of ranking, relating funding policies and volumes to the ranking of institutions and perceptions of high quality associated with high ranking, and so on, have contributed to consequences in which education management systems conform more to corporate management styles and practices. Planning, forecasting, costing, unit cost per student, per course, per subject, per graduate, and so on, have all become part of the modern university management practice that was once known for its collegiality, discussion and debates and participatory decision-making systems even if they involved delayed decisions, and sometimes, no decisions at all.

Check Your Progress 6

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.

ii) Check your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

i) Balancing of resource allocation among various levels of education needs prioritisation in the planning process. Explain with example? Answer in about 50 words.

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ii) What do you understand by technical and ethical issue of quality in education? Answer in about 40 words.

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2.6 LET US SUM UP

What we have tried to present to you in this unit is a synoptic view of the organisation and structure of the education system. We have looked at the major constituents of the system, the roles they play, and the interrelationships among them. While discussing these relationships, we have taken note of the significance of the role and influence of governments, not just in making national policies, but in the management of the national system of education, directly and indirectly, and in varying degrees. As for the structure of the system itself, we have seen the hierarchy of structures, and the main objectives of each of them. From this analytical perspective of the system and its structure, we proceeded to look at the management issues at the apex level of the system. In this process, we have also tried to identify the issues of management that are common to all organised systems and those that are unique to education. We have concluded this discussion with a mention of the intangibles that might defy the established notions of management and control.

2.7 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS: POSSIBLE ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

National policies on education are usually formulated by governments after extensive consultations with all major sections of society – industry, trade, commerce, the professions and civil society. Generally, these policies cover a range of issues from structures, content and processes, access, costs and quality, etc.

Check Your Progress 2

i) The school systems constitute a significant component of the social infrastructure of any society. The governments, therefore, assume the responsibility for the creation and development of this infrastructure as well as its maintenance. At the level of higher education, governments provide the resources and leave it to the universities to manage the functions of developing programs of teaching and research, maintaining their quality and institutional governance, with the governments engaged only in broad supervisory responsibilities.

ii) With higher education becoming mass education and its costs constantly escalating, governments were called upon to ensure that universities served the purpose for which they were set up. These efforts led to the establishment of quality assurance mechanisms and performance rating, etc. that provided the public with some confidence that the money they invested in higher education was worthwhile.

Check Your Progress 3

Governments do play a significant role in the supervision and control of universities. This role ranges from a more intrusive involvement in matters like appointments of key personnel and staff policies to more calibrated non-intrusive influences like quality assessment, performance rating, etc.

Check Your Progress 4

The expression “meta system” was used to describe the macro-management dimensions of education as a system. At the Meta system level, governments and their agencies influence education through

legislation, policy directions, funding patterns, etc., without getting into the details of institutional governance and conduct of academic programmes. The larger environment that determines the relationship between the government and the university, between education and the market, etc., are at the core of the Meta system of education. Teachers and students have no role to play in the management of education at the Meta system level.

Check Your Progress 5

i) The emphasis at the secondary stage of education is on the learning of certain core elements like languages, science and social studies as well as on the cultivation of a scientific temper and preparation of students for the use of science and technology. It is also the stage that initiates students in the development of aptitudes for managing conflicts and violence, and foster creativity and empathy for participation in social development.

ii) Higher education is under tremendous pressure for several reasons. For most people, higher education is the means to improve their earning capacity and lead a better life. However, there is considerable mismatch between education and employment because the academic offerings do not always equip students with the knowledge and skills that the job markets are looking for. The increasing demand for higher education, together with the constant pressure to ensure relevance for their programmes brings higher education institutions under tremendous strain. The existing rigidities in the structures and processes as well as the resource constraints contribute further to inefficiencies and pressure for reforms.

Check Your Progress 6

i) When resources are limited, and the demand from different sectors is high, those responsible for planning (resource allocation) have to determine the relative priorities among various sectors. In education, planners have to settle the relative priorities among basic education, secondary education and higher education for allocating the available resources. For example, in societies that have low literacy rates, basic education would be a priority while those with good school systems would consider higher education a priority sector as it would ensure adequate supply of teachers and human capital for sustained developmental initiatives.

ii) The two dimensions of the quality issue in education are the technical aspects concerned with the teaching-learning processes and the ethical aspects concerned with the outcomes of those processes. The technical issues cover the teaching methods and practices, provision of learning resources, training of teachers, reliability of the examination system, etc. The ethical concerns have to do with the values and attitudes that the system seeks to promote.

UNIT 3 MANAGING EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

Structure

3.1 Introduction

3.2 Objectives

3.3 Institutional Management

- 3.3.1 Social Systems Theory
- 3.3.2 Mission and Goals
- 3.3.3 Governance
- 3.3.4 The Educational Community

3.4 Academic Management

- 3.4.1 Programmes and Curricula
- 3.4.2 Student Services
- 3.4.3 Linkages and Interface

3.5 The Administrative Support Systems

- 3.5.1 Personnel Management
- 3.5.2 Infrastructure Management
- 3.5.3 Financial Management
- 3.5.4 Methods and Procedures

3.6 Institution Building

- 3.6.1 Education and Its Environment
- 3.6.2 Organisational Diagnosis, Evaluation and Renewal
- 3.6.3 Institutional Leadership

3.7 Let Us Sum Up

3.8 Check Your Progress: Possible Answers

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, we looked at the education system from the perspective of its organisation and structure as well as the larger issues of management at the systems level. In that context, we also considered several leading constituents of the system – the policy-makers and the regulators and also their roles and responsibilities.

We shall now move to the core of the education system, which is the large number of institutions – schools, colleges, universities, and so on. We call them institutions, and not organisations apparently because they are founded for a social purpose. Their purpose, unlike that of most business organisations, is not to develop a good product, sell it well and make a big profit. The centrality of social purpose in education has a great deal to do with the ways in which an educational institution is managed and its functions are organised and performed.

In this unit, we shall explore how this core character of an educational institution influences its styles of management as well as its organisation and structure. In this discussion, we shall be focussing on higher education institutions, especially universities, for two reasons: first, this course is designed for those who are likely to pursue a career in distance education management that is more evolved at the higher education level, and secondly because unlike the school system, universities represent a wide

variety of institutional types depending upon their size, programme mix, instructional quality, source of funding, governance patterns and organisational models. While we will continue to use the term educational institution more frequently in this unit, it is the university that is in focus.

3.2 OBJECTIVES

On completion of this unit, you should be able to:

- *analyse* and identify the critical areas of management of an educational institution;
- *explain* the inter-relationship between and among various areas of management of an institution;
- *identify* the challenges in the management of institutions; and
- *explore* the ways of meeting those challenges.

3.3 INSTITUTIONAL MANAGEMENT

Educational institutions have a number of features that distinguish them from the more common models of organisations in business, industry and trade. Some of these features are:

- Teaching and learning are the primary functions and activities in educational institutions.
- Teaching is not just transmission of information or even knowledge; it is a multi-dimensional function. It involves the development of a powerful relationship between the teacher and the learner which aims at the full development of the learner's personality with emphasis on self-reliance and the ability to form individual judgement and a sense of individual responsibility. It is not surprising that teachers are often held responsible by the rest of the society for most of the feelings associated with any failure, deficiency or decline in any aspect of national life.
- Learning is an activity associated with several uncertainties. The desire to learn, the learning process and the outcomes of learning involve a degree of unpredictability about them. For instance, learning might change an individual's outlook and attitude in ways that cannot always be predicted. The outcome of learning is often judged through examinations, and failure could lead to unwanted consequences.
- Curriculum changes involve constant modifications in what is taught and how it is taught. Most of these changes involve assumption of additional responsibilities by teachers even in areas in which they may not have adequate expertise.
- Environmental changes, especially technological and social changes, increased accountability and not the least, the growing erosion of the professional authority of the teacher, have all significant consequences for the management of the educational institution.

Historically, the primary functions of universities were to educate the elite and transmit the cultural heritage; in the industrial age, universities were engaged much more in the training of professionals, providing service through research and consultancy, and maintaining their elitist character. The post-industrial university has evolved more as a social system concerned with concerns of equity, access and inclusion, training for job specialisation,

provision for continuing education, and an instrument for change. The university in the 21st century is no more the "ivory tower" that it was perceived to be not so long ago; it is a living, dynamic instrument grappling with the problems of contemporary life in all its dimensions. In short, the modern university is an open system.

3.3.1 Social Systems Theory

Systems theory, especially open systems theory, has made significant contributions to understanding institutional life. The elements of this theory which are particularly relevant in this context are open systems theory, leadership, authority and power.

The protagonists of the social system theory argue that organisations that are subject to environmental pressures, and are constantly engaged in responding to these pressures (changes in the environment) are all open systems. As we have seen earlier, universities have come under enormous social pressure in the last half a century or so. They had to open up, expand their enrolment, teach what is relevant to today's context, make provision for continuing professional development of people at work, focus on intellectual life, and establish linkages with all creative social and cultural endeavours. In practical terms, it meant that

- the universities redefined their goals;
- established new systems of governance;
- created new methods for improved communication with their constituents, and
- increased the sense of involvement of all components in achieving the new goals.

In short, universities became open systems. An open system is one that engages in mutual information exchange with other systems in its environment and depends upon the outcomes of its negotiations with those systems to find its equilibrium. An organisation will have established this equilibrium when it has found a balance among all external and internal forces operating to influence the system. An open system can survive only if it can achieve, restore and maintain this equilibrium, and in order to do so, it must learn from its environment through constant interaction and feedback.

Systems theory places a boundary between a system and its environment or between one sub-system and another across which transactions or exchanges flow. Management of this interface involves observing, interpreting and intervening at the boundary between groups, departments and between the organisation and external entities and forces. In an organisation, power and control is available to those who control boundary transactions, monitor external changes that may impact the organisation, are positioned to take timely action, and have knowledge of key interdependencies.

From the institutional perspective, managing the system boundary is crucial. Effective management of the system boundary involves:

- determining and defining the primary task;
- managing the information flow across the boundary;
- ensuring the availability of resources to plan the primary task; and
- monitoring the performance of the primary task to ensure that it relates to the wider system and to the environment.

Managers who relinquish their own boundary position cannot manage themselves; and managers who give up their position on the institution's boundary cannot manage the institution. Focussing on the primary task helps develop on-task leadership and avoids abuse of power. In a university, for instance, the primary function of its chief executive is to maximise "the energy available within the institution to accomplish institutional goals" (Hodgkinson, 1970).

Systems theory also enables us to understand the flow of authority through the institution. Authority, as we noted in unit 1, is the right to take decisions that are binding on others. It legitimises the exercise of power in an institution. It can flow from the top through a process of delegation and by the acceptance of those who join the institution at the lower levels.

Responsibility involves answerability or accountability for the outcomes either to a person in the institution, or more importantly to one's own consciousness. Responsibility has to go with the requisite authority to achieve the outcomes consistent with the primary task. Clarity in the understanding of an institution's organisation and structure through systemic analysis is important in establishing the explicitness of authority at various levels.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.

ii) Check your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

What do you understand by open systems? How universities became open systems? Answer in about 50 words.

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3.3.2 Mission and Goals

The systems approach proceeds from the establishment of goals, attainment of maximum consensus regarding the goals and their objectives and management on the basis of those objectives. No organisation can function effectively without a clear purpose. In organisational parlance, this purpose is called a mission statement. It helps people to understand who they are as an institution and where they want to go. It is futuristic, and it is a philosophic statement of the purpose of an institution. The last two decades or so have witnessed the emergence of several theories about organisational leadership. These theories suggest the imperative of leaders in all sectors articulating their vision, setting clear goals for their organisations, and creating a sense of shared mission.

You will notice that we have used three concepts here: vision, mission and goals. In the discussions on leadership, these terms are often used synonymously. However, these concepts have different theoretical foundations and it is necessary to have some clarity about their import for the purpose of operationalising them. The notion of vision is normally

associated with an individual. In the organisational context, it is generally the personal vision of the leader, drawing its influence from its impact on the leader's own behaviour and also from its potential to energise others and invest work with meaning that gets articulated as a vision statement.

This vision gets transformed into an organisational mission when a critical mass of people who have come together for a common purpose agree or accept the meaning of the work they have to do together. In other words, mission is a shared purpose that motivates people and engages them in action for something beyond their own immediate self-interest. A vision or mission signifies a quest for something and its success does not necessarily depend upon its achievement. Its real purpose is to establish a motivational urge for a common endeavour to achieve an agreed objective.

A goal, on the other hand, is a functional target. The mission of an educational institution might be articulated in terms of larger purposes like the advancement and dissemination of knowledge, meeting the personnel needs of the productive sectors of the economy, ensuring equitable access for all members of the community to good education, attainment of peaks of excellence in educational standards, and so on. Goals, on the other hand, would be set in terms of the realisation of certain immediate objectives like the nature and levels of programmes to be offered, number of learners to be enrolled, establishing acceptable levels of retention of enrolment, ensuring satisfactory completion ratios, and so on. These goals are ordinarily time-bound and are expected to be attained within the specified time limits. Unlike the vision or mission, goals do not have motivational or inspirational force; they focus attention of the people involved on a limited frame of activity.

Depending upon the levels (primary, secondary or higher education), and also the chosen sphere of activity, particularly by institutions of higher education (liberal, professional, technological as well as campus-based or distance teaching), the mission and goals of educational institutions can vary from institution to institution. What is important, however, is to recognise that:

- the mission should be capable of being translated into programmes and activities;
- the goals and objectives should define the distinctive character of the institution and address the needs of the society and the students it seeks to serve; and
- the mission and the goals should together reflect the traditions of the institution and its vision of the future.

3.3.3 Governance

Education, as we have seen in the previous unit, is a multi-layered activity. There is the national government that lays down policies and generally also provides funding (most of these functions might be devolving on the state governments in a federal structure); there are the regulators who elaborate the policies and oversee their execution; and there are the institutions (schools, colleges, universities) that actually enrol students, teach them and also test their attainments. As we are concerned only with the institutions in this unit, we shall confine our discussion to their management.

Traditionally, educational institutions (universities as we are focusing on them in this unit) are perceived to be self-governing institutions. There are

several reasons for the evolution of this tradition. Firstly, an educational institution is not an organisation that develops a product, markets it and turns a profit. Secondly, it serves a social purpose, affecting the lives of all people in several ways. Thirdly, teaching is essentially a solitary activity and the teacher enjoys substantial autonomy in the conduct of his/her work. All these features are reflected in the structure of management of the educational institutions. Generally, they are:

- Self-governing institutions; the power and authority to take all decisions in carrying out the mission and goals of the institution vested in the members who constitute the institution;
- The decision-making bodies are so constituted that they represent the members of the institution since all of them cannot be involved in all the decisions;
- These bodies have the freedom to decide what to teach and how, in determining the programmes, prescribing the curricula, setting out the entry and exit standards for the students, and the methods of assessing those standards; and
- These bodies are also vested with the responsibility for all decisions relating to engagement of personnel (teachers and other staff), mobilisation and deployment of resources, and creation and maintenance of infrastructure.

A significant nature of the self-governing structure is that all decisions are taken on democratic principles after considerable discussions and debates even though the process can be time-consuming. Further, the structure, though collegial in theory, is hierarchical in practice; it has individual members reporting to department heads who, in turn, report to Deans or Rectors, and they to the Principal, President or the Vice-chancellor.

3.3.4 The Educational Community

Education takes place within a community committed to the ideal of empowering individuals. An educational institution is a community comprised not only of teachers and administrators, but also students, their parents, and the members of the larger community outside. They come together to help educate students and one another in gaining some insights into how they understand the world for themselves. The academic community comes together to provide the intellectual space for individuals to consider issues greater than themselves. But the question of ideas relating to what constitutes right and wrong, what it means to be a responsible citizen, and what role one should play in the community are all matters that legitimately belong to a larger area for discussion within the community as well as with others outside the institution itself.

It has to be remembered that each constituent of this larger community has its own interests and concerns, some of which may often conflict with those of other constituents. For instance, while the university staff may seek better emoluments and working conditions, the university management may find the resources at its disposal too inadequate even to meet the legitimate demands of the employees; students and parents might consider the programmes and courses might need revision and modification to meet their needs and expectations; employers might consider that the end products from the institutions do not match their needs; teachers might feel that frequent changes in curricula and syllabi might place too big a burden on their capacity to respond; and governments might be tempted to ask too

many uncomfortable questions about the goings-on at the universities. It is not unlikely that considerable time and effort is taken to resolve these conflicts, and even then, the unresolved issues would continue to cause frequent tensions and strains within the community.

Good leadership is about anticipating these situations and initiating appropriate steps to prepare every constituent of the community to understand the limitations within which it is operating and to accept the environmental constraints while pressing on with its commitment to meet the institutional goals. That involves, as we said earlier, good communication among all constituents and securing their participation in the common efforts.

Check Your Progress 2

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.

ii) Check your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

What is the relationship between mission and goals of an institution? Answer in about 50 words.

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3.4 ACADEMIC MANAGEMENT

The core functions of an educational institution are teaching and learning. For performing these functions, it is necessary to prescribe the programmes and courses for study, design and develop the curricula for them, establish the instructional system as well as its methods and practices and set out the learning outcomes that can be assessed and certified. All these functions are performed by the teachers of the institution though it should be noted that teachers generally are reluctant to admit that these functions fall within the province of management.

3.4.1 Programmes and Curricula

The academic programmes offered by any educational institution will be consistent with its mission and goals which were discussed earlier. In determining the programmes, the following considerations will have to be kept in view:

- At the school level, there would generally be a common national curriculum that most schools would adopt. The purpose of this core curriculum is to ensure some measure of uniformity in standards of learning outcomes across schools within a country and also to ensure that national standards are more or less comparable with international standards (this is assuming great importance as education is progressively getting more global). The school management can supplement this core curriculum with components that they consider necessary for the holistic development of children, and in addition, have local or regional relevance. In other words, the school curricula are

more or less given, at the university level, the position is significantly different.

- At the university level, there is much greater flexibility and substantial autonomy in the design and development of the curricula. Each university determines its programmes and their contents. The constraint in most cases will be the question of comparability of contents, the depth of their study, and the standards to be attained so that equivalence of qualifications awarded by different universities can be established.
- There should be a well-established process in place for designing and developing the curricula and for their review and revision. The Boards of Studies, the Faculties and the Academic Councils provide the mechanisms for performing this function. These bodies comprise mainly of teachers from within the institution, though external experts are also associated with this process. The important point is that decisions on these matters are taken collectively and are never left to individuals in the institution.
- Peer review and feedback from employers should preferably be a part of this process so that the curriculum of any programme is informed by the social demands and employment needs.
- The recent developments in knowledge and the diverse ways of its application are providing major challenges to curriculum developers across the academia. It is not unusual to hear criticisms of major gaps and mismatch between the needs of employment (skill sets required) and the education and training preparation of the young people. In order to bridge this gap, curriculum design and development is progressively becoming an area for collaboration and joint efforts by education providers and the user agencies of human capital.

Along with the design and development of curricula, two other important issues require to be settled. These are the instructional system and the student assessment procedures. The instructional processes include classroom lectures, laboratory work, group work and projects, self-study, etc. With the increasing applications of technology, there are now multiple channels of learning; classroom engagement is no more the only source of learning. An effective instructional system would have all these channels of learning carefully integrated so that the learning outcomes are optimised.

Assessment of the learning outcomes is an integral component of the instructional system. Institutions follow a variety of methods for this purpose. Most educational programmes take considerably long periods of teaching and learning for their completion. There are also considerable variations in the combination of contents within programme. Educationists therefore argue that a satisfactory system of assessment should involve continuous evaluation of the learning outcomes rather than an examination conducted at the end of the programme.

What is in all these that requires competence in management, you might ask. After all, teachers have been teaching for ages, and students have been learning. So, what is new? Not much really, except that new ways of teaching and learning are emerging leading to some kind of professionalization in the performance of the academic work. You will have noticed that in the recent decades, many universities have launched what are known as professional development programmes for teachers. In fact, in many countries, these initiatives have led to the creation of institutional facilities for organising

programmes for the professional development of the teachers. What started as refresher programmes and summer institutes for teachers to upgrade their knowledge and to enhance their awareness about the most recent developments in their fields of study, have now turned into more organised and professionally executed activities. These initiatives now include besides upgrading the subject competence, creating awareness about the ways in which technologies can be harnessed to enhance the processes of teaching and learning.

Much has been talked about the changing nature of the academic work. A central theme of this change, as we said earlier, is the increasing professionalization that often requires teachers to obtain new credentials in teaching. Several universities have launched short programmes to help teachers to acquire new knowledge and to improve their professional standing in a new environment in which teaching is emerging as a professional practice. The elements of this professional practice include planning, teaching, counselling students, assessing, evaluating student performance, and so on. Teaching will no longer be just delivering a lecture.

We have noted earlier that technologies are entering the world of teaching and learning in a big way. As sources of knowledge get diversified, students are helped to search for information, document and store information, collate and analyse those bits and pieces, retrieve them at will and use them in any way they like. Teachers can support the new pedagogic tools to enhance the learning experiences of students, and surely, this is a new dimension to traditional forms of teaching.

For the management of any institution, it is obligatory that students are fully informed about the programmes, courses and the processes associated with teaching and learning as well as assessment before they are enrolled. They should know in particular:

- The content, structure, flexibilities and combinations of content, etc., for every programme;
- The instructional processes in as much detail as possible; and
- The assessment system.

It should be remembered that any student who enrols in any programme in any institution relies on these details before he/she commits himself/herself to pay the fees and spend his/her time in study. These are therefore the material premises on which the learning contract between the student and the institution is concluded.

Check Your Progress 3

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.

ii) Check your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

What are the distinguishing features of curriculum development at school level and higher education level? Answer in about 50 words.

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3.4.2 Student Services

We just concluded the previous section with the mention of the learning contract between students and their institutions. Before concluding the contract, students will have to be informed not just about the programmes on offer, but also about the extent and variety of services available to them. The choice of a particular institution by students depends largely on the variety of these services and their quality.

The range of services that institutions normally provide can be briefly summarised as follows:

- provision of reliable, accurate and comprehensive information about the institution itself. This will include information about programmes and courses, teachers and their qualifications, enrolment procedures, methods and practices of teaching and learning, student assessment system including the criteria for grades and other awards, procedures for settlement of disputes about assessment, etc.

- information about facilities provided by the institution to its students in their learning pursuit such as schedules of classroom lectures, library and laboratory work, tutorials, examination schedules, etc.

- facilities provided for co-curricular activities such as sports and games, cultural and social activities, community services, group work and projects, and so on;

- residential facilities and participation in their management, student associations and their management;

- financial support in the form of scholarships, loans or part-time jobs;

- career counselling and guidance including job placements on completion of studies.

All these facilities and services are generally common to all institutions. But with certain types of institutions, say, those engaged in distance education, informing students about what it does and how, is far more critical. We will deal with this issue in greater detail later in this course. But at this point, we wish only to draw your attention to the importance of student services as a critical component of a distance education system. As students are distributed across physical spaces away from the institution, and there is little or no personal contacts between the two constituents of the system, the services provided to the students and the ways in which they are provided, are of considerable significance for the credibility, efficiency and effectiveness of the institution itself. From the management's point of view, setting up of these service centres, equipping and staffing them, training of the staff, overseeing their performance, and maintaining a networked system of service centres are major responsibilities.

The provision of these services and their management can both be an opportunity and a challenge to the institution. A great deal of student satisfaction will depend upon the adequacy of some of these services and their quality. An unscrupulous management can make exaggerated claims on the generous provision of these services as publicity gimmicks to lure students; a sure way to find itself in great trouble.

Check Your Progress 4

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.

ii) Check your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

How are student services more crucial in distance education? Answer in about 40 words.

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3.4.3 Linkages and Interface

You will recall that we discussed in some detail the organisation of education as a social system. Education is a public cause, and the system exists to serve all people. It becomes essential, therefore, that those managing educational institutions remain constantly in touch with other systems in society as well as those directly involved in the management of the education system at the apex and sectoral levels. We discussed the roles of governments and the regulatory agencies created by them in the functioning of educational institutions in the previous unit. The focus of that discussion was the role that external agencies play. We shall now turn our attention to the manner in which institutions interact with these and other external agencies and interests.

In the first place, an educational institution has to function within the parameters of national policies laid down by the government. Its management and financing pattern would generally be determined by the laws and policies in force. Above all, most educational institutions depend heavily on their governments for nearly all its expenditure.

This interface with the government, at the micro level of each institution, may not be direct and immediate. There are, as we noted earlier, several agencies set up by governments for planning and coordination of the development of education at particular levels, or in specified fields. Most of them have also the responsibility to oversee the functioning of the institutions in their areas of concern from the point of view of ensuring quality, maintaining standards and generally implementing the guidelines laid down by the governments.

It will be a very delicate balancing act for most institutions to function within the parameters laid down by the governments and the regulatory bodies on the one hand and still maintain their academic freedom and autonomy, on the other. We have dealt with the issue of governments and university autonomy in some detail. Whether by design or by default, universities almost everywhere have to conform to certain externally imposed codes of conduct even if it might look like they infringe their autonomy. If the universities accept the discipline of these codes and function within the limitations imposed by them, there is less likelihood of any confrontation with the governments. As we have seen, the problem areas are generally administration and finance. If an institution can avoid conflicts in these areas, there will be less tension in the performance of its principal functions of teaching, learning and research.

The most significant linkage that education has to maintain is with the community and other organised systems in society. At the primary education level, the school management has to involve the local communities in such matters as the maintenance of school facilities, school improvement, enrolment and retention of children and even the management of the school itself. At the higher levels, these linkages become more extensive and complex.

The question of what should be taught, or the academic programmes to be offered, is now getting increasingly determined by the developments in other sectors. The academic management of the institution has to be sensitive to these developments and should have systems in place to monitor them constantly. Constitution of Boards of Studies and Advisory Committees with representatives drawn from major development sectors and employer organisations is one way to maintain this linkage. The synergy between employment needs and educational provision is essential for ensuring the relevance of programmes. Establishment of consultative groups for specific areas, organisation of conferences and seminars, etc., are also important in developing and maintaining these linkages.

There are several other concerns that the management of an educational institution has to worry about. A major source of concern is the regular and timely flow of funding. Often, the flow of funds depends on the institution providing the relevant information to the funding agencies on time, and meeting all the conditions laid down by them for providing the finances.

In recent times, universities and other institutions of higher education are increasingly being called upon to mobilise resources from non-traditional areas. These sources generally include research projects, consultancy and even hiring out the university estate for specific purposes like setting up offices by industry, and holding events like marriage ceremonies. The revenue generation is an important function of the management which calls for close interfaces with research councils and industry on the one hand, and the neighbourhood communities, on the other.

Traditionally, university campuses are also large townships. Several thousand students and teachers with their families stay on the campus. Maintenance of these campuses involves the performance of nearly all municipal functions, establishment and maintenance of systems for the provision of water and electricity, sanitation and health care, security of residents and their property, transport, and so on. Several large universities also establish and maintain schools for the education of the children of their employees on the campus. Many institutions also create and maintain facilities for a corporate life on their campuses which include cultural activities, sports and games and other social events.

Check Your Progress 5

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.

ii) Check your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

Why do educational institutions have to maintain linkages with other sectors and how are they maintained? Answer in about 50 words.

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3.5 THE ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT SYSTEMS

In the previous section, we looked at the core functions of an educational institution. Prior to that, we considered the structure of the management of the institution and its functions that include providing direction to the core functions (setting the goals, preparing the plans and executing them and monitoring performance). We shall now look at the third major component of the organisational structure of the institution.

You will recall that in Unit 1, while discussing the evolution of modern management practices, we had occasion to look at the distinction between administration and management. We noted that traditionally, administration is perceived to be a leadership function demanding thoughts and ideas, and management is generally about execution of thoughts, ideas and plans; we also noted that the two concepts often overlap, and that the two could possibly belong to two different domains, namely, administration to public systems and management to business, industry and other profit-driven enterprises. While this debate remains inconclusive, the continuing impact of this unsettled argument on university governance is discernible. Within a university, as we noted, the academic functions of teaching and research constitute its core activity while all other systems are designed to support this core. As part of the public systems, universities, nevertheless, have to conduct their affairs within well settled rules and procedures, especially in the processes of decision-making, spending, accounting and managing costs. As we noted, the academics are not very happy with this situation, and this resentment against what they call 'control by rules' often gives rise to tension between the academics and the administrators. Whether one likes it or not, this academics vs bureaucrats controversy has become part of university governance almost universally.

Without going into the merits of the arguments on either side, it is clear that no organisation can function effectively without some order and discipline. Chaos and anarchy do not lead to achievement of any goal; planned, well defined and focused efforts do. This latter approach enables all organisations in attaining their goals, and universities cannot claim to be any exception to this rule.

We call this component the administrative support system, partly because administration is not the core function of a university, and partly because without this support, university as an organisation will find it difficult to fulfil its mandate. Historically, the concept of administration is associated with the exercise of power and authority by governments under laws, rules and regulations. In an educational institution, it is the administrative system that interprets and administers all laws (Acts, statutes, rules, regulations, procedures) and exercises control over the administration of personnel and finances. These last two constitute much of the visible power and authority within an organisational context, and those who exercise these powers and authority find themselves in perennial conflict with the rest of the organisational systems leading to considerable tension within organisations.

Without going any further into the nature and extent of this controversy, let us look at the components of this support system within the context of university governance.

3.5.1 Personnel Management

Personnel management deals with managing people who constitute the organisation. In modern organisations, this function has become a highly

specialised area called "human resource management'. As human capital has become the most productive wealth of all enterprises, a great deal of attention and care is now devoted by organisations to nurturing talent, recruitment and training, placement and career development, compensation packages and incentives, performance appraisal and retention, and so on. There is no doubt that it is the level of efficiency and commitment of the people in any organisation that makes for its progress.

In all organisations, people get classified either because of the nature of their functions or because of their value as a class to the organisation. Those who are engaged in the core functions would naturally assume that they sustain the organisation and those who support the core functions would be tempted to feel that without them the core will collapse. We often witness this class war in most organisations; the professionals against the administrators, the technical personnel against the administrative staff, and the finance personnel against the rest. In an educational institution, the two distinct categories are: teachers who perform the academic functions, and the administrative staff who performs the supporting functions. This latter category of functions includes recruitment and promotion, training and placement, maintenance of service records, and organisation and implementation of staff benefits.

The management of most institutions will have formulated a personnel policy. Since the nature of the functions and responsibilities of the academic and administrative staff is very different, there could be significant variations in the elements of the policy for the two categories, though there could be several components that are common to both. For instance, while the methods of recruitment and promotion applicable to teachers could be very different from those of the administrative staff, the staff benefit schemes might be uniformly applicable to all. From the management perspective, the issues which are significant include the following:

- there should be a well articulated personnel policy for all categories of staff;
- the policy should clearly indicate how the personnel needs are assessed and how the additional needs are going to be met;
- the mechanism for recruitment to all positions should be clearly spelt out. This would include identification of the unit in the institution that is responsible for assessment of vacancies, the periodicity of such assessment, the methods of recruitment for specified types of vacancies, etc. (It is now common practice for all major organisations to establish dedicated Human Resource Directorates or Divisions for talent hunting, recruitment, training, placement, career development, and so on);
- the methods or recruitment should specify the processes associated with selection both for promotion as well as recruitment from the open market. These processes may include assessment of the records of performance of those eligible for promotion at specified intervals, constitution of Selection Committees for different categories of personnel, and so on;
- the terms of engagement for different categories of staff that specify appointments on contract for specific periods, grant of tenure (permanent appointments), probation and confirmation, retirement benefits, medical benefits, etc.

- the policy would also specify the institution's strategies and programmes for the professional development of its staff, their career advancement, and the remuneration packages available to them.

It is not enough to have a policy in place. The implementation of the policy in letter and spirit is of crucial importance. It is in the implementation of the policy that transparency in administration becomes critical. In order to ensure transparency, every individual in the institution should be fully aware of all the details of the policy and the manner in which it has been applied to his/her career in the institution. More often than not, such transparency is not evident in most organisations. On the contrary, personnel administration is nearly always conducted in an atmosphere shrouded in mystery, leading to mistrust and more people nursing perennial grievances during most of their career rather than feeling satisfied with, and committed to, the institution which they are associated with.

The extent to which an institution is able to attain its goals and fulfil its mission will undoubtedly depend on the efficiency of its people and their productivity. Most organisations engaged in the production of goods and services have also evolved norms of efficiency and productivity for their staff. In education, however, efforts at the development of such performance indicators have not met with much success. We shall explore this issue in the next unit.

We mentioned a little while earlier that the tension between academics and administrators has been a perennial problem that has bedevilled the management of educational institutions. We should look at this issue in some detail. We noted earlier that educational institutions are self-governing organisations. In this pattern of governance, it is generally the academics who participate in the decision-making processes through their membership of various bodies. While the academics nearly always blame the administrators for one blunder after another, the administrators feel that the academics' role in governance is the key factor that inhibits change as they feel that academics are too comfortable with status quo to be open to experimentation and innovation.

In the last fifty years or so, the administrative support system of every institution has expanded very considerably. This was mainly due to the fact that every institution was called upon to provide a variety of services and facilities for an ever increasing enrolment. The provision of the services and facilities that we discussed earlier in this unit required more administrative staff for their maintenance. The result was an exponential growth in administrative support leading also to more "administration" of administration.

Fortunately, effective technological means are now becoming available for the performance of most of the routine administrative functions. Increasing technology applications have reduced human interventions in record keeping, accounting, student records maintenance, grade cards preparation, storage and retrieval of information and a host of such other functions. Applications of technology are also contributing significantly to increasing professionalization of the performance of routine maintenance functions. With this development, the quality of the administrative support system and the personnel engaged in the provision of these services are bound to change and one can hopefully look forward to an era of declining administration in educational institutions and correspondingly enhanced focusing on the performance of their core functions.

Check Your Progress 6

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.

ii) Check your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

What will happen in the absence of transparency in the implementation of personnel policy in an institution? Answer in about 40 words.

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3.5.2 Infrastructure Management

The physical infrastructure of an institution is a major component that contributes to its performance. The important elements that constitute this infrastructure are land and buildings, laboratories and library, equipment and furniture, health centres, sports and recreation facilities, campus utilities (water, electricity, transport), and so on. Besides this traditional infrastructure, the growing applications of technology require new infrastructure; computers, audio visual instruments, video equipment, DVD writers, production studios, editing suites, duplication facilities, and so on. These also require appropriate software to make them functional. No less important are networking and its administration, connectivity and related issues. It is unthinkable in today's context to expect an educational institution without these infrastructural facilities.

The creation of this infrastructure requires heavy investments and takes considerably long periods to put them together. Since educational institutions never really have the luxury of enough financial resources at their disposal, the planning and actual commissioning of the facilities require to be done with great care and imagination. It is important that realistic plans are prepared and implemented so that available resources are optimally utilised.

It is not enough to create excellent infrastructure. Its maintenance is just as important. It is not uncommon to see campuses of many good institutions in a state of disrepair – poorly maintained buildings, unhygienic sanitary conditions, costly equipment rusted and cluttered on the corridors for want of adequate space for their installation, inadequate repair, replacements and maintenance to enhance the use of modern equipment, and not the least, rows upon rows of moth eaten records stacked all along corridors. Though all these infrastructural facilities may not have a direct contribution to make to the processes of teaching and learning, they do contribute to the creation of a desirable learning environment in the institution. If the environment is not conducive to learning, no effective teacher-student engagement will take place leading to considerable frustration and loss of confidence in the institution's capacity to provide good quality education.

3.5.3 Financial Management

Traditionally, education has been in the domain of the governments. This was so primarily because education has had no profit motive, and the absence of profits inhibited private initiatives. Education, therefore,

depended on public spending, supplemented to a limited extent by religious institutions and public charities. This approach to education changed in the post-industrial society. With the rapid expansion in knowledge and the emergence of science and technology as engines of growth, the need for people with specialised education and training became essential for development. The nature and type of institutions offering education got diversified, and so did their sources of funding as well. Even so, the major provider of funds for education in most societies continues to be their governments.

Government funding meant public spending. And public spending always had strings attached to it. The managers who spent public money were always preoccupied with the concerns of judicious spending, proper accounting and rigorous financial control. In this culture, there was very little scope for modern concepts of financial management like resource mobilisation and management, activity costing and cost control, building up resource bases and taking any risks with finances. In recent times, public spending on education, especially at the higher levels, has been progressively declining and therefore it has become necessary to explore alternate sources of funding. In so doing, educational financing is also being progressively influenced by the methods and practices of modern financial management.

The major component in the expenditure of any educational institution is the teaching cost. Teaching is labour intensive as there is a fixed teacher-student ratio to ensure effective teaching. The second major element is the administrative cost. This again is people-oriented. Thus a significant component of the expenditure on education is accounted by salaries paid to the people working for the institution. The other elements are cost of teaching materials, books and journals, maintenance of infrastructure and cost of student services.

Since the items of expenditure are generally fixed, and the pattern of their growth is predictable, the annual budgeting exercise is generally confined to preparing the estimates on the basis of past spending with provision for the usual incremental growth. These estimates form the basis for determining the government grants which generally follows the pattern of covering the deficit. Under this regime, the government grants represent the difference between the total income and expenditure, the income being the tuition fees levied from students. Generally, the fee income is a minor fraction of the total annual expenditure and therefore dependence on government grants for most institutions is very acute.

As the level of public funding declines, the search for alternate sources of funding has become intense. Some of the efforts in this direction are:

- progressively increasing the recovery of the cost of education through periodic increases in tuition fees;
- extending the facilities of the institutions, especially their expertise and physical facilities for external projects (applied research, consultancy, product design and development, testing, etc.) for a negotiated cost;
- collaboration and networking among institutions for sharing intellectual and physical resources;
- organisation of professional development programmes for company-specific personnel;

- establishment of chairs by industrial houses or other sponsors;
- creation of endowments with donations and benefactions from wealthy alumni groups and their organisations.

These new initiatives would necessarily involve a major shift in approach to financial management, from the existing pre-occupation with accounting and auditing to cost reduction, increase in productivity, higher returns on investments, and so on.

3.5.4 Methods and Procedures

The basic functions of educational institutions are to prescribe programmes of studies, enrol students, teach them, and then examine and certify their attainments. There are also several other functions which are incidental to this core that all organisations have to perform. They are budgeting and accounting, administration of property, administering the staff and reporting on the organisational performance to the funding authorities, legislatures, government, etc.

The performance of each of these functions always requires observance of certain methods and procedures. We have noted earlier that organisations need to function in an orderly manner, and that in large systems, explicit procedures and regulations are essential to govern the conduct of their business, flow of responsibilities and the interrelationships among organisational units. Educational institutions are public institutions dealing with the general public and it is all the more important that they should have appropriate methods and procedures to govern their functions, and more importantly, the public should be aware of them. It is this transparency in the administration of the institution that inspires confidence about it among the public.

The instrument under which an institution is established would have broadly specified the methods and practices it would follow in the pursuit of its objectives. For example, university legislations would designate the authorities who can prescribe courses, determine the syllabi, and lay down the requirements to be fulfilled by students to complete the programmes and qualify for the relevant awards. These broad provisions in the legislation will then be made into detailed ordinances and regulations that teachers and other staff in the institution will have to follow in performing their tasks. These details would include the qualifications for admission to every programme, the methods of selection, the time-tables for class work, practicals, examinations and so on, the requirements for examinations and their schedule, the levels of performance for securing different grades, the time for declaration of results, etc. All these elements constitute what is generally known as academic calendar of an institution which is prepared with great care and attention.

Adherence to this calendar and its observance in letter and spirit ensure the reputation and credibility of an institution.

Among the other major organisational tasks are personnel administration, budgeting and accounting. We have considered the various tasks that go into the performance of the personnel management function earlier in this unit. We shall now take a brief look at the procedural aspects associated with this function. When a person is recruited, he/she has to be informed about the terms and conditions of his/her service. These would be standardised for all members of the organisation. A great deal of employee satisfaction would

depend upon how these terms and conditions are implemented. Promotions, performance appraisals and grievance redressal are the most sensitive among them. While there could be a great deal of similarity in these matters between the non-teaching employees (office assistants, accountants, supervisors, computer operators, typists, record-keepers) and similar staff in other systems, the terms and conditions of service of teachers will generally be different since their functions, and the ways in which they function, are considerably different. Appropriate performance appraisal systems that reflect the functional nature of the responsibilities of every category of employees should be put in place and meetings of the committees of experts should be convened in time to advise on the suitability for promotion. It is important that the procedures followed in these matters are clearly spelt out and made known to all employees. So is the case with grievance redressal. Methods and procedures need to be established for looking into the grievances of the employees and redressing them for keeping up their morale.

Financing and accounting are functions common to all organisations. Usually, organisations frame a financial code that would set out all their anticipated income and expenditure as also the procedure for registering all the incomes received and all the expenditure incurred. The code will also specify the authorities competent to approve expenditure, authorise payments and, where necessary and unavoidable, waive payments or write off losses. No organisation can survive without acquiring property (buildings, equipment, furniture, stationery) and managing it. Depending upon the nature and scale of transactions involved, the procedures would suggest whether tenders should be called or not, and, if yes, how. Apparently, the observance of all these procedures might appear to be a bureaucratic hurdle, but certain degree of transparency and order is unavoidable when dealing with public property. Due diligence, in other words, is the name of the game.

Check Your Progress 7

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.

ii) Check your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

What is the main reason for the conflict between academics and administrators? Answer in about 50 words.

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3.6 INSTITUTION BUILDING

Institution building as a process essentially implies management of the development of an institution. Warren Bennis (1969) defines organisation development as "a complex educational strategy intended to change the beliefs, attitudes, values and structure of organisations, so that they can better adapt to new technologies, markets and challenges." It is a long-term effort to enhance an organisation's problem-solving and renewal capabilities

through an improvement in its culture. An organisation's culture is the aggregate of its ways of doing things, the habits and behaviour of its employees, their attitudes to one another and to those outside as well as the principles and values it stands for. A great deal of an organisation's culture gets shaped and developed in the initial stages of its establishment, by those who are involved in leading its early stages of development. However, it does not follow that all organisations get stuck with its initial outlooks and attitudes; organisational renewals are now part of the development strategies. These include formulation of institutional plans to consolidate the strengths, correct the weaknesses, and redesign the strategies in the context of new opportunities and challenges. The implementation of these plans might involve redesigning the organisation and reworking its current strategies. Effective leadership is the key to institution building.

3.6.1 Education and its Environment

How do educational institutions change? While the primary purpose remains the same, there are several changes taking place in the environment in which an educational institution functions. For example, social and economic development, demographic changes, changes in technologies and their applications would all have a direct impact on the education system. As the economy grows, productive sectors expand; demand for new and different sets of skills increases. New technologies will need better trained personnel to use them. Development leads to more people seeking educational opportunities. People at work, unemployed youth, those who wish to switch jobs, and people who are traditionally not part of the workforce in any significant numbers like women, for example, will all be keen to take advantage of the new opportunities by improving their knowledge and skills. Educational institutions have to respond to these changes, and more often than not, they do. The growth of education, both quantitatively and qualitatively, in the last half a century or so provides a fine example of the organisational changes that have metamorphosed some of the classical universities into the most modern organisations of the 21st century.

First, education has turned into a mass enterprise. School education is now compulsory almost all over the world. Those who lag behind are now in a big race to catch up. Participation in higher education is now well over 50% in most developed countries. The developing countries are making every effort to follow suit. Adult education, community education, workplace training, in-company professional development programmes have all become instruments to extend the benefits of education and training to non-traditional student groups. As the coverage grows, so do methods. Part-time education, distance education, e-learning, self-study, have all added to the innovative ways in which people teach and learn. And these innovations have also pioneered newer and more effective institutional paradigms as well. Open universities, dual mode distance teaching institutions, internet-based e-learning systems, virtual universities, the range and varieties of institutional forms and types have indeed multiplied. More importantly, many institutions are now into marketing their products and services not just within their own countries, but beyond their borders as well. The organisational changes in education have been as extensive as they have been varied.

What we have just described are the changes that have overwhelmed education as a system in the last five decades. How did the institutions respond to these systemic changes? Education, traditionally, is very slow to

react to changes. Conservatism is deeply embedded in the education system. However, the recent history of educational development testifies to the fact that as a system education has not been unwilling to learn and reinvent itself.

What are some of the more noticeable changes in the management of the education system of the 21st century? We have discussed them briefly at several places. Nevertheless, it would be appropriate to list some of the more visible changes for a better appreciation of the readiness of the education system to adapt to environmental changes.

- The traditional patterns of self-governance have given way to corporate governance structures and styles. More compact and cohesive Executive Councils (or Boards) have replaced the large and often unwieldy governing structures of most universities;
- Planning, coordination and monitoring of performance have emerged as critical components of the management practices of universities. Though there is still resistance to the notions of productivity and performance appraisals, academics are no longer unresponsive to the idea of improvements in efficiency, accountability, and quality improvement;
- Teacher is no longer the only source of knowledge; information and communication technologies have diversified sources of knowledge and made access to it easy and convenient. Learning styles and practices changed and with it, the role of teachers is changing too, from imparting instruction to facilitating acquisition of knowledge;
- The impact of changes in the teaching and learning styles and practices is becoming evident. Cooperation, collaboration and networking among institutions are now the norm;
- Institutions are now looking for opportunities and new markets. Cross-border education has opened up possibilities of globalisation. Though this trend has its own share of problems and challenges, innovative ways of reaching out, ensuring quality and credibility, and managing educational provision in different environments and regulatory frameworks are all becoming part of the system's governing agenda;
- The more recent initiatives of open source movement that makes the courseware of some of the best universities in the world (MIT, for example), freely available to any institution that wishes to use them has not just opened up new possibilities, but also posed fresh challenges. How do institutions manage these changes and make the best out of them? Only time will tell.

3.6.2 Organisational Diagnosis, Evaluation and Renewal

What we looked at in the preceding section was the larger context of environmental changes impacting educational systems. This impact on the system is the aggregate of the changes at the micro level of institutional changes and the ways in which an institution or a group of institutions assesses its response and prepares itself for changes.

The common method used for assessing an organisation's performance is to undertake a SWOT analysis. This analysis identifies the Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats (SWOT). While business organisations engage professional consultants for such evaluation, educational institutions prefer to do it through self-study. The method

employed is to elicit the views of all the major constituents of the institution and its stake holders. They would include teachers, students, parents, staff, employing organisations as well as senior educators and academics from outside the institution.. Their views could be elicited as response to structured questionnaires that could then be analysed to obtain the general perceptions on a number of parameters ranging from the fulfilment of the mission and goals of the institution to its performance in terms of student achievements, excellence in academic standards, employee satisfaction, organisational culture, instructional system, innovative initiatives, and so on. This analysis of the responses is then classified into areas of (a) strengths; (b) weaknesses; (c) opportunities; and (d) threats.

Though this exercise could be done within the institution itself, generally a peer review is an integral part of this process. Such a review brings to bear on the diagnostic exercise a fair and objective analysis and assessment by a set of knowledgeable people whose views are not coloured or biased.

This diagnostic exercise would lead to the next stage of looking critically at the areas of strengths and weaknesses. This review will also take into account the new requirements that have arisen from the changes in the environment as well as the threats posed by competition from other institutions. For example, if the enrolments in the traditional programmes of degree education in the humanities and social sciences are continuously declining, even if the quality of the programmes and their delivery are of a high order, it would be worthwhile to consider addressing the needs of non-traditional student groups who might benefit from these programmes. Simultaneously, it might also become necessary to make such changes in strategy as to attract enrolment of new student groups by introducing flexibilities in the methods of programme delivery. In another case, it might be necessary to shed some of the current low-enrolment programmes in favour of more popular and high-demand academic offerings.

As we noted in the preceding section, the increasing involvement of information and communication technologies in education poses serious challenges to most of the existing institutions, while it also offers them enormous opportunities. The collapse of the barriers of time and space is one of the severest challenges in the post-modern era in education. These new developments have completely overturned the traditional ways of teaching and learning; separation in time and space is no longer an impediment to education. At the same time, new ways of dissemination of information and knowledge are emerging at a rapid pace, ushering in not just globalisation, but more importantly, an era of fierce competition also in education.

You might recall that we had mentioned the new development of well known institutions making their courseware freely available to anyone who wants to access them. It all started with the MIT putting out all its courses on the Web. Anyone can use these materials freely. Using these materials does not assure MIT education or qualifications, nor does the user has access to MIT faculty. What it does is to make available the contents for study programmes. The significance of this development, now known as the Open Education Resource (OER) movement, is that many new institutions that were struggling for getting contents developed have now access to some of the finest study materials free of cost. Following MIT, several other institutions have also made their courses freely available online. This initiative has proved to be at once an opportunity and a challenge. Opportunity because excellent courseware in a ready-to-use form is now available for free. It is a challenge because the use of these materials requires

competent faculty and technology infrastructure to take full advantage of them; it is an opportunity because some of the best known institutions are making their courseware freely available.

It is important that in today's world, all educational institutions take note of these threats and opportunities and redesign their strategies and structures to meet them. A meaningful plan for organisational renewal will have to take the following elements into account:

- A review of the current mission and goals and reformulation of the directions in which the institution wishes to move. This might even involve framing of a new vision of the future, preparing a new mission statement and resetting the long and short-term goals;
- Prioritisation of the areas of development in the context of the current strengths and weaknesses. This might necessitate greater focussing of the current effort and resources on areas of strengths to consolidate them even as the weakest areas might be put on hold or completely disengaged;
- Securing the commitment of the members of the institution to the new goals and the strategies to attain them;
- Mobilising the resources necessary for implementing the new plan of action.

3.6.3 Institutional Leadership

What we have discussed so far in the previous sections are about the ways in which institutions introspect, assess their strengths and weaknesses and try to reposition themselves as leaders in their areas of activity. This does involve a significant management challenge, a challenge that most private corporations try to meet by hiring highly specialised professionals. In a society in which knowledge is increasingly turning out to be the currency of power, private sector corporations are organising themselves like universities in preference to their existing hierarchically structured forms of management.

We noted in the previous paragraphs that organisational renewals are often predicated by changes in environments and that the most significant driver of change today is technologies. Drucker (1997) argues that the stiff resistance to technologies of the 1980s has largely been dissipated as everyone now understands the need for continuous change. He however believes that it is important to involve staff and clients/customers in the processes of change as only those changes in which the people most affected are a part of the fundamental processes, will endure. In other words, organisations have to find a fine balance between change and continuity, and it is in finding this balance that leadership has to play a crucial role. In recent years we have observed some leaders of educational institutions prefer change without the participation of staff in the process and total disregard to the continuity aspect. Such trends would not benefit institutions.

The acceptance of the reality that times are changing is not the only prerequisite for change. In a university environment, the institutional leader should be well prepared to usher in changes. His/her approach should be strategic, systematic, open, informed and long-term to be effective. What are the qualities of a leader? Leadership is a much discussed theme these days. There is a whole body of literature on leadership; there are centres and institutes that specialise in studies and research on leadership, and there are

any number of conferences, seminars and training programmes organised across the world on executive leadership training.

You will recall that in Unit 1 of this Block we had occasion to make a reference to the distinction between managers and leaders. While a good manager is a professionally accomplished person, who has attained excellence through learning, training and, of course, hard work, the qualities of leadership are perceived to be natural gifts and talents. Mahatma Gandhi or Martin Luther King always comes to mind when one talks about a naturally gifted leader. But in the context of an organisation, or an institution, leadership is an entirely different matter. At a time when educational institutions particularly at higher education level, are faced with a situation of declining resources, when the general community (parents and students in particular) is very sceptical about what the institutions are offering and the ways in which they are functioning, and when stagnation and drift pervade the socio-cultural environment, it is very difficult to argue what kind of leadership can bring institutions back on rails.

What is important in the context of educational institutions is not that people at the helm are born leaders. It is difficult to conceive that a vice-chancellor of a university, a principal of a college, or head teacher of a school, all by himself/herself, leading their institutions to glory and peaks of excellence. These people are not the rallying points around whom the rest of the community (of their institutions) gathers to seek guidance and inspiration. We have noted earlier that educational institutions are self-governing entities and that the core of the relationship that binds its members is collegiality. It is in this kind of an environment that often qualities of leadership manifest. It should be remembered that it is not the person at the top alone who is the leader; there is leadership at several levels. The pro-vice-chancellor and the vice-chancellor, the dean or the departmental head, in fact at all levels, there is leadership and it is the emergence of such leadership at multiple levels that makes educational institutions dynamically evolving organisations.

The performance of an institution is the aggregate of the contributions of its members. When they work in teams, they develop synergy. As a result, the productivity of the members of the group becomes greater than the sum total of individual contributions. It would therefore be useful to organise work in the institutions around departments, interest groups or projects. In this work culture, the role of the leader is to sustain the common interest by motivating and inspiring the team members to strive towards attainment of the common goal. In an educational community, there is less room for inspiring members through exhortations or stirring emotional appeals; there is more to giving its members a voice, a role and recognition in whatever they do in moving towards the common goals set for them.

What then are the attributes of leadership in an educational institution? Some of them surely have to do with encouraging participation, mutual respect and recognition, nurturing ability and willingness to develop a shared vision and goal, supporting innovations and experiments and continuously strengthening the evolving relationship among the members. It is the aggregate of these attributes at various levels in an institution that defines its values and principles and also makes for its organisational culture. As long as an institution functions in an environment in which these values and principles shape and guide its operations, and the community that constitutes the institution shares these values, it is well with the community that it leads.

Check Your Progress 8

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.

ii) Check your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

What is the role of leadership in educational institutions in a fast changing society? Answer in about 50 words.

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3.7 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we have dealt with the following issues:

- What makes educational institutions different from other forms of organisations;
- The mission, the goals and the structure of governance of educational institutions;
- The components of academic management such as programmes and curricula, student services as well as linkages and interface;
- The elements that constitute the administration of educational institutions; and
- Institution building and the role of leadership in it.

3.8 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS: POSSIBLE ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

Social systems and their organisations that are constantly engaged in responding to pressures from their environment are known as open systems. From this continuous engagement and the outcomes of the negotiations with different constituents in the environment, these organisations seek to find their own equilibrium. Universities become open systems when they redefine their goals, create new systems of governance and establish new methods of communication with other systems and follow a participatory approach in achieving their goals.

Check Your Progress 2

Mission is a shared purpose that motivates and engages people who have come to work together for the attainment of a common objective that they have all agreed upon. Goals, on the other hand, are set in terms of broad functional targets, ordinarily expected to be attained within a specific time-frame. A mission may consist of a number of goals, each with a specified target and time-frame.

Check Your Progress 3

The school curricula in most countries have a common core that ensures a measure of uniformity in standards of learning outcomes across schools within a country and also ensures comparability between national and international standards. This core is usually set by the national agencies

responsible for school education. University curricula have greater flexibility, and are set by each university taking into account the comparability of content, depth of study and the standards to be attained so that equivalence of qualifications can be easily established.

Check Your Progress 4

Distance learners are distributed across geographical locations away from their institutions. There is little or no personal contact between the institution and its learners. It is therefore necessary that they have access to a variety of services that include timely availability of study materials, academic counselling at regular intervals, facilities for submission of assignments and obtaining feedback, doing experiments and projects, and meeting such other learning needs. Provision of these services ensures that distance learners are not totally isolated and that they belong to an institution and can avail of its services.

Check Your Progress 5

Knowledge and its applications are growing at a rapid pace. Very often, this growth and development take place outside educational institutions. It is necessary for universities to bridge this gap as its graduates have to be prepared to enter the job market. Universities often do this through constant interaction with various development sectors through joint projects, collaboration and getting the representatives of productive sectors on their advisory or governing mechanisms.

Check Your Progress 6

Transparency in administration guarantees that all employees are treated equally and that the consideration of their interests, concerns and prospects receive just and fair treatment. Justice and fairness demand that the games are played by rules and that the rules are well known to the players and the umpires. If the personnel policy and its implementation are transparent, there would be no room for mistrust, perennial grievances and dissatisfaction among employees.

Check Your Progress 7

The conflicts arise primarily because of the differences in the nature of the work culture of academics and administrators. Teaching is a solitary endeavour, and freedom is its guiding value. Teachers do not belong to any established hierarchy of organisational relationship; collegiality and shared beliefs are at the core of their work ethics. However, the power structure in most universities favours the administrators as they are the ultimate arbiters of resource allocation, personnel deployment and other organisational management issues. This dispensation seemingly confers greater and more visible power and authority on the administration that is always a flash point between academics and administrators.

Check Your Progress 8

In a self-governing, collegial organisational structure of universities, leadership is about team-building. A university performs best when its members work in teams and develop synergy. Leadership in this environment is not of the inspirational or authoritarian type that one sees in many business organisations and political institutions: it is a type sustained by shared beliefs in, and commitment to, the values of freedom, equity, access and the pursuit of excellence.

UNIT 4 MANAGEMENT PROCESSES IN EDUCATION

Structure

4.1 Introduction

4.2 Objectives

4.3 The Philosophical Foundations of Education

- 4.3.1 Learning to Know
- 4.3.2 Learning to Do
- 4.3.3 Learning to Live Together
- 4.3.4 Learning to Be
- 4.3.5 Teaching and the Teachers' Role

4.4 Management of Teaching and Learning

- 4.4.1 Student Learning
- 4.4.2 Faculty Productivity
- 4.4.3 Institutional Performance
- 4.4.4 Planning

4.5 Let Us Sum Up

4.6 Check Your Progress: Possible Answers

4.7 References and Further Readings

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The first three units of this block discussed the principles and practices of management for organised systems in general and the education system in particular. The second and third units looked at the issues of management in education at the system level (organisation and structure) and then at the micro level of an institution. The discussion on institutional management inevitably focused on both educational functions as well as general organisational functions. The next logical sequence should be to look at the management of educational processes and we shall do it in this unit. Remember, we are not going into the processes common to all organisations which we discussed extensively in the first unit.

4.2 OBJECTIVES

On completion of this unit, you should be able to

- *identify* and explain the philosophical foundations on which educational processes are based;
- *compare* the educational processes with the processes of other organisations and identify the distinguishing features; and
- *analyse* from your own experience and background the strengths and weaknesses of the processes you have gone through and identify the changes, if any, required to be made.

4.3 THE PHILOSOPHICAL FOUNDATIONS OF EDUCATION

Traditionally, education was perceived as a process through which knowledge was transmitted from one generation to another. This process of

knowledge transfer came to be identified with the function of teaching. Teachers imparted knowledge. Those who acquired knowledge were generally passive listeners; they were not active participants in this process. However, knowledge is not static; it is continuously evolving, and at a rapid pace. With this also came new methods of storage and dissemination of information and knowledge, and as we entered the 21st century, we also entered the new knowledge-driven civilisation.

In 1993, the UNESCO appointed an International Commission on Education for the Twenty-first Century to reflect on education and learning. The Commission's report deals exhaustively with, among others, the basic pillars on which education has to be founded. There can be no better way of understanding the processes of education than briefly looking at the views expressed by the Commission on the four pillars of education.

4.3.1 Learning to Know

Learning to know is not just acquiring itemised, codified information. It is more of mastering the instruments of knowledge themselves. In this case, learning is both a means and an end in life. As a means, it enables each individual to understand enough about his/her environment to be able to live in dignity, to develop occupational skills and to communicate. As an end, its basis is the pleasure of knowing, understanding and discovering. As the field of knowledge widens, people begin to understand various aspects of their environment better, and with that their intellectual curiosity is aroused and their critical faculties stimulated. They acquire independence in judgement.

Learning to know pre-supposes learning to learn, calling upon the power of concentration, memory and thought. Learning to concentrate can be in many forms, and use different situations including training, travel, play and project work. Memory and recall are essential attributes of the human faculty. Mere storing of information and remembering them mechanically will not do. We have to be selective about what we learn and should cultivate consciously our faculty of memory by association. Similarly, the faculty of thought must be cultivated by the interplay of the concrete and the abstract; in teaching and research, the seemingly conflicting methods of induction and deduction have to be combined to cultivate coherent thinking. The process of acquiring knowledge never ends. All experience through life only enriches this process.

4.3.2 Learning to Do

Knowledge by itself is of no great significance unless we also know what to make of that knowledge and what to do with it. Learning to do is in some ways implicit in learning to know, but in teaching children how to put what they have learnt into practice, we are instilling in them the habit of doing, by developing the skills in the application of knowledge.

In the industrial economies, labour was an important factor of production and occupational skills were a pre-requisite for most jobs. The growing substitution of machines for human labour is making the traditional occupations less relevant in tomorrow's world. In their place, what is now growing in emphasis is the nature of knowledge-related work especially in the context of the dominance of the service sector in the economy as against the manufacturing sector. This trend is evident from the fact that innovative businesses and jobs are emerging with unfailing regularity.

As operational skills associated with machine operators and technicians are getting obsolete, what now emerges is more of personal competence, replacing physical tasks with more mental works such as controlling,

maintaining, and monitoring machines, and also by organising, coordinating and supervising tasks. The processes of education have to take note of these emerging trends in the nature of work and prepare our children for tomorrow's work.

4.3.3 Learning to Live Together

Speaking at the convocation of the Allahabad University (India) over six decades ago, Jawaharlal Nehru, India's first Prime Minister said that the university stands for humanism, reason and tolerance. He had obviously the social objectives of education in mind. You will recall that we had mentioned earlier that education should prepare people to take charge of their destiny and shape the future of the society of which they are a part.

When we look around, we see a world which is increasingly devoid of the values that Nehru spoke about. There are conflicts of all kinds among nations, and among various communities within nations. With the extraordinary capacity for self-destruction that humanity has created for itself in the last fifty years or so, nations tend to seek dominance of one kind or another over others, while ethnic conflicts and terror are destroying whole communities in different parts of the world. Education has not been able to do much to create that atmosphere of reason and tolerance and to find peaceful resolution of conflicts and tensions.

All indications, on the other hand, are towards a heightening of tensions. For example, the general climate of competition that pervades economic activities within and between nations underscores the ruthlessness of the human spirit in economic warfare with the result that the tension between the rich and the poor continues to grow. Education should be able to contribute towards the resolution of these conflicts by fostering the quest for discovering the diversity among peoples, on the one hand, and the experience of shared purposes throughout life, on the other. The task of education is to teach the diversity of the human race, and an awareness of the similarities between, and the interdependence of, all humans. Education, whether in the family, in the community, or at school should help children and young people discover themselves, so that they can discover others and understand their problems by relating them to their own situations. Teaching should be devoid of all dogmatic approaches and should encourage curiosity and critical spirit among the young students.

Working together on special projects and group activities of all kinds expose individuals to the ways of working together, and in the process, discovering group identity that highlights what the group has in common rather than the difference between its members. In several areas, in sports, for example, tension between social classes and nationalities, in the end, has been transformed into unity by the common effort involved. Education, from the very beginning, should endeavour to introduce the young to the ways of cooperative undertakings through participation in sports, cultural activities and social welfare initiatives.

Check Your Progress 1

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.

ii) Check your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

i) What are the trends that should be taken note of by the processes of education, to prepare children for tomorrow's work? Answer in about 50 words.

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ii) If you are a teacher, how do you inculcate the concept of 'togetherness' among your students? Answer in about 50 words.

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4.3.4 Learning to be

Education should contribute to the all-round development of each individual- mind, body, intelligence, sensitivity, aesthetic sense, personal responsibility and spiritual values. An earlier Commission appointed by the UNESCO in the early 1970s mentioned in its report entitled "Learning To Be" that 'the aim of development is the complete fulfilment of man, in all the richness of his personality, the complexity of his forms of expression and his various commitments – as individual, member of a family and of a community, citizen and producer, inventor of techniques and creative dreamer'.

This role of education has assumed still greater significance in the context of the widely feared dehumanising effect of technological advancement. The changes in society in the last three decades or so, specially the development of the power of the media, have underscored these apprehensions. The challenge for education is no longer the preparation of children to live in a given society, but to continually provide everyone with the power and intellectual framework he/she needs to understand the world around him/her and behave responsibly and fairly. More than ever, education's essential role is to give people the freedom of thought, judgement, feeling and imagination they need in order to develop their talents and remain as much as possible in control of their lives.

Individual development continues throughout life. It is a dialectical process which starts with knowing oneself, and then opens out to relationships with others. In that sense, education is also an inner journey, the stages of which correspond to those of the continuous maturing of one's personality. Education as a means to the attainment of a successful working life is thus a highly individualised process and, is also at the same time, a process of constructive social interaction.

4.3.5 Teaching and the Teachers' Role

Teaching, as we noted earlier, was identified as the process of education for long. The shift in emphasis to learning the objectives and process of which

we considered in the previous sections of this unit, calls for new approaches to teaching and a new orientation to the role of teachers.

Traditionally, the teacher's work was confined simply to transmitting information and knowledge. In order to transform this process into a learning experience for the student, teachers have to present knowledge in the form of a statement of problems within a specified context, and put the problem in perspective so that the learners can link their solutions to broader issues. The teacher-student relationship should be centred on the objective of fully developing the student's personality, focussing on self-reliance as far as the student is concerned. The assertion of power and authority has always dominated the teacher's relationships with students, and this assertion tended to make the relationship one-sided. This position of teachers has to be transformed into one in which it is the free recognition of the legitimacy of knowledge that determines the relationship. This role of the teacher as a source of answers to questions raised by students about the world is the key to the teaching-learning process.

The importance of the role of the teacher as an agent of change, promoting understanding and tolerance, is becoming more crucial. It is becoming increasingly necessary in modern societies for teaching to help individual judgement, and a sense of individual responsibility that enable students, to foresee changes and to adjust to them. This is the meaning of learning throughout life. Though knowledge can be acquired in a variety of ways, especially in the light of the spectacular developments in information and communication technologies, for a vast majority of learners, especially those who have not fully acquired the skills of thinking and learning, the teacher remains an essential catalyst. The capacity for independent learning and research is the key to continued individual growth, but some period of interaction with a teacher or intellectual mentor would be necessary to develop this capacity. And it is this dialogue with the teacher that helps develop the students' critical faculty.

Teaching and learning are essentially human interactions that involve dialogue, respect and wisdom. A lot has been said in recent times about self-instructional design and the prospect of technologies replacing the teacher. Learner-centric education, it is argued, should replace the traditional teacher-centric instructional system. After several experiments, and some bold initiatives especially in distance education practices, we now see a movement back to an appreciation of what teachers, tutors, facilitators or mentors do in helping people learn by connecting one another. In spite of all the marvels that technology can boast about, it now turns out that interaction and dialogue are at the core of the learning processes. So, we now have technologies that make interaction with other people possible even if the participants in the process are separated in time and space. Given the fact that technologies have empowered learners to search, document, store and retrieve knowledge and information on their own, and also help them analyse, synthesize and construct their own views and findings, there still remains a role for someone to trigger the quest for understanding raw data, identify what is relevant and establish relationships between pieces of information, and connect them constructively to arrive at a meaningful conclusion. And this requires some guidance from teachers and peers to challenge and critique problems, solutions and the experiential knowledge of all those who interact with one another in the process.. What is important is that you do it, and not how you do it, whether in a face-to-face situation or through videoconferencing

or Internet chat rooms. The reality is that some kind of "teaching" is a necessary part of all education.

Check Your Progress 2

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.

ii) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

How do you describe the changing role of teachers in the context of new methods of teaching and learning? Answer in about 50 words.

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4.4 MANAGEMENT OF TEACHING AND LEARNING

The preceding discussion on the objectives and processes associated with teaching and learning would have given you a perspective of the complexity of the issues involved in managing these processes. In its simplest form, a process is the course of action taken or procedure followed for achieving a purpose. For example, in manufacturing, it is the transformation of inputs into outputs. The following diagram explains this statement:

Generally, a process can be defined as an identifiable flow of interrelated events moving towards the attainment of some goal, purpose or end (Armstrong, 1990). In this definition, flow implies movement through time and in the direction of a result. Interrelated implies interaction between the events and the processes. Events are activities, happenings, changes of steps which may be major or minor. Goal suggests a human objective and purpose suggests either a human objective or an objective in a philosophical sense. End implies some conclusion or consequence that may not necessarily be sought or planned. Thus processes may or may not have consequences intended by people (French, 1982).

All these attributes are discernible in the teaching learning processes as well. There is movement in time towards some results; there is interaction between teacher and student and between knowledge and experience; there is a goal and purpose in terms of both a human objective and a philosophical goal, and there certainly is a result. In a business environment, each one of these attributes is visible and therefore quantifiable. For instance, in a car manufacturing company, a specified quantity of inputs (raw materials and labour) goes into the production of a specified number of cars (outputs). The ratio between the inputs and the outputs is expressed in terms of the productivity of the company. This is true of most business enterprises. However, in education, it is difficult to

establish such relationships. In other words, while the performance in attaining the goal or objective determines the measure of an organisation's success or failure, in education, the organisational performance depends on far too many variables and therefore is not always easy to evaluate. Still, from the management's perspective, educational processes can also be assessed and judged from the point of view of efficiency, effectiveness and quality. We shall take a look at these processes from three perspectives, namely, student learning, faculty productivity and institutional performance.

4.4.1 Student Learning

We have discussed at great length the learning objectives in the previous section of this unit. We shall therefore confine our effort here to considering only those aspects of learning as an organised activity.

Student learning will vary naturally from institution to institution. There would also be variations in defining the levels of attainments of students among institutions, even when these institutions are offering the same, or at least similar, programmes. For example, one institution may measure student performance in terms of grade point averages while another may use only the scores in the end-course examinations. A third may emphasise project work and dissertations while a fourth might go simply on the basis of the response from the employment market to its graduates. All these criteria may be used for assessing student performance, but from the management's point of view, they do not provide any tools for analysing and assessing the processes involved in learning.

The most important learning process in the academic career of a student is the engaged classroom. It is only when the student and the teacher get fully engaged in discussions about how ideas are defined, worked on and assessed, the elements of good teaching and learning are evolved. In the absence of such interaction, there can only be communication of knowledge and information, which learners may receive passively, or not receive at all. Active learning, on the other hand, involves participation of learners in discussions, debates and dialogue along with their teachers.

A second core component of establishing student learning is the continuous engagement of the students on activities like small projects, dissertations, quizzes and seminars, exhibitions and, of course, routine testing of the progress achieved in curricular learning. These standard methods are also important in assuring the parents that their children do indeed learn at the institutions. The reliability and objectivity of these criteria vary from institution to institution; they may even degenerate into pure gimmicks to advertise particular institution's higher performance levels, only to attract more students and capture a larger market share. We have noted earlier that in many cases state supervision, either directly or through mechanisms set up for the purpose, can significantly reduce commercial exploitation. Alert parents and a stronger academic community can also discourage such malpractices, and institutional arrangements like accreditation of institutions can play a major part in ensuring the quality of performance of the institutions.

The productive learning environment that an institution offers is a significant factor in student learning. Such an environment would maximise learning and reduce the drift in the academic life of most students. For example, today's classroom can be radically different from what it was a generation ago. Till recently, the standard practice was that of the teacher

lecturing to his/her students. Communication technologies have drastically altered this format. The sources from which knowledge can be acquired are varied and student-friendly. They enable students to focus on what they are learning, stimulate curiosity and permit them to pursue their quest for knowledge.

The curricular structure and course patterns are also important from the learner's point of view. Modular programmes, flexibility in the combination of courses, multiple points of entry and exit, and facilities for pacing the studies on the individual preference of learners can all contribute to developing dynamic learning environments that will capture the imagination of the learners.

4.4.2 Faculty Productivity

Productivity, in the economic sense as we noted earlier, is the ratio of outputs to inputs. Productivity is high or low depending upon the efficiency with which a firm transforms inputs (labour and capital) into outputs (goods and services).

Ask any academic about what he/she thinks about productivity in the academia. There could be as many views about it as the number of teachers you consult. Broadly, these views could be something like these:

- a teacher is productive if he/she produces high quality work, sets high standards for his/her students, and is a good citizen;
- a productive academic is one who helps students to learn and inspires confidence in them;
- a productive academic is one who publishes his/her views and research work;
- productivity is an absurd concept in teaching which has more to do with quality;
- an academic works all the time, reading, reflecting and researching. How can these be measured;
- productivity involves contribution to the field of knowledge, and the profession.

These differing perceptions reflect the absence of an agreed definition of faculty productivity; they do not totally reject the idea of productivity. You will recall that the principle of 'value for money' in educational spending became an issue primarily because of the widely held view that little or no teaching did indeed take place in many institutions and that, at any rate, the education that most students received did not add any value to their future life and work.

It will be interesting to explore why these issues about the failure of the purpose of education, and the role of teachers in it, arose in the first place. The first and most important reason was, of course, the dwindling resources for education, especially at higher levels. Governments, almost everywhere began asking their institutions to cut their expenditure, and as everyone knows, the bulk of the expenditure in education is on salaries. If salary has to be cut, who will stay with the teaching profession? Surely, not the good teachers (the productive ones).

Secondly, all organised systems have members who are un-productive. Education cannot be an exception. Business and industry have devised mechanisms to deal with their dead wood. How does one identify the dead wood in the academia?

A third issue that has often been raised in this debate is that most faculty members are more interested in research and devote more time to it. This can be done only at the cost of teaching. If teachers can neglect their classroom engagements, why are they there in the first place?

In more recent times, a new dimension has been added to the discussion on teachers' roles. With the teacher no longer the most important instrument for the dissemination of knowledge, and the communication technologies progressively taking over that function, what do teachers do? Any question of their productivity has to be based on a better definition of their role.

Finally, productivity as an economic concept assumes that teachers work for money. If that were indeed the case, many teachers would have been making much more money in business and industry. Yet, they stick to teaching. How is productivity relevant in their case?

The debate will continue since there are no simple and straight forward answers to these questions. It does not, however, mean that the problems will go away as they have no finite solutions. It is interesting to note that most of the conflict between the faculty and the administrators in educational institutions across the world can be traced to this single source, namely, productivity-related nature of their service contracts. The suggestion that teachers should be appointed on contract for a fixed short-term with provision for periodic renewal based on performance review and assessment, as against the widely prevailing system of tenure (permanent appointment) is frowned upon by teachers as a bureaucratic device designed to harm their interests. However, it is not correct to assume that teachers as a rule are against any kind of performance evaluation and feedback.

Therefore, if concerns about productivity are delinked from the bureaucratic search for 'fixing' teachers, it would be possible to evolve objective and reliable indicators about the performance of teachers and their productivity.

All that we have said so far is how difficult it is to define academic productivity and how complex it is to measure it. The complexities do not end with all that we have said so far. The productivity of a teacher is dependent on multiple criteria that are both external to and, at the same time, defined by the individual. Minimal standards of teaching excellence, for example, could be developed irrespective of who is teaching. But expectations are different for a full professor on the one hand, and for his/her junior counterpart on the other. Again, they could be different for a professor teaching languages and another teaching engineering. The teaching standards might vary vastly in a university that emphasises research from another that is focussed more on undergraduate teaching. The levels of commitment to teaching could also vary depending upon whether a teacher is already tenured or is still seeking it.

So complex is the problem that we should refrain from offering any solutions. Yet, having raised the problem, it would be useful to flag a few points that might help in our effort to move forward in addressing the problem. We list them as follows:

- First, it should be possible for the members of the institution to gauge the productivity of each participant to assure that he/she performs adequately;

- Second, an individual may be highly productive when judged by external criteria, but may not be so productive when judged in terms of the specific context of the institution's needs. In such cases, over time, a balance could be established by matching the individual talent and the institutional needs; if that fails, the institution has to decide whether it needs that individual or not;
- In more recent times, a strong view has emerged that contract appointments for short periods, say, 5 years, would provide the institution the opportunity to assess the performance of the individual, and decide whether or not his/her continuance is in the interest of the institution. This approach would lead to better performance (high productivity) from teachers, and institutions have the opportunity not to renew the contracts of poor performers (critics of the contract appointment argue that this approach is primarily to curb academic freedom that tenured faculty enjoys);
- Finally, academic productivity is all about the culture of the institution, its values and principles. A high performance institution would be the one that aids and supports its high performers, however small their number, enables and encourages the large numbers in the middle to achieve high performance, and provides the environment to the poor performers to change, improve or rethink their roles.

Check Your Progress 3

Note: i) Space is given for your answer.

ii) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

What are the factors that would enhance active learning? Answer in about 50 words.

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4.4.3 Institutional Performance

It is only natural that this discussion on productivity should lead us to the larger issue of organisational performance. In business and industry, at the middle and lower levels of management, the work that every person does consists of a series of activities that can be managed, monitored and evaluated. This pattern works on the principle that every person reports to his/her seniors or supervisors. It is not so in teaching. A teacher in the classroom is almost sovereign. His/her work is not supervised, monitored or assessed. Nor does he/she report to anyone. This freedom of work that a teacher inherently enjoys is often interpreted as 'getting away with the best of both worlds' with no constraints of organisational control.

We have noted earlier that education is a people-oriented activity concerning all people and that it is, therefore, a social system. A business or industrial organisation, on the other hand, is created by one individual or a group of individuals with a precisely designed objective. Such organisations are owned by the people who create them, and who invest their money in the activities of those organisations. Those who create the organisations, or their

owners, normally hire people and assign them specific responsibilities and tasks. Such hiring goes down the order, and the organisations' people are generally hired people. The owners or stakeholders (investors) are not always directly involved in managing the organisations. The principle of hiring also involves firing; if you are not able to deliver, the organisation does not need you. If, on the other hand, you are a high performer, you may get exceptional rewards.

An educational institution does not belong to the category of business or industrial organisations. Remember, we call them institutions, and not just organisations, apparently because education is a major social system. We generally refer to universities as academic communities. If you pause for a moment, and reflect on the expression 'community', the following thoughts are likely to cross your mind:

- a collection of people with a common understanding and common goals;
- the members are bound by reciprocal obligations;
- the relationships that bind the community are not externally imposed commands, but internally evolved principles and values.

It is the aggregates of these attributes which are individually and collectively developed, nourished and shared by all members of the community that constitute its culture. Performance should be the letter and spirit of that commonness, not under compulsion, not under threat of punishment, but with the full realisation that in the absence of it, the community will fall apart, and will have no basis to exist. It is important that the management processes are informed by this unique nature of the culture of an academic institution and, based on such understanding, instruments are developed to assess and evaluate its performance.

It should not be assumed from these discussions that education is an unmanageable enterprise. We said earlier in unit 2 that educational institutions are self-governing entities and that their management style is participatory and collegial. Discussions, debates, dialogue and dissent are all too familiar in decision-making which is the function of one committee or another. It is not unlikely that these committees work at a leisurely pace, and most decisions take time. But that is the price the system pays for self-governance.

Check Your Progress 4

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.

ii) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

What are the two major differences between an educational institution and a business organisation? Answer in about 50 words.

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4.4.4 Planning

We have already touched upon the issues involved in planning and coordination at the system level. We shall now take a look at these issues at the institutional level.

For the management of an educational institution, planning involves the following steps:

- development of the strategy for attaining the goals of the institution;
- preparation of an action plan for executing the programmes according to the strategies evolved;
- mobilising the resources and preparing the expenditure plans;
- leading the institution;
- managing the human resources;
- developing performance indicators and criteria for measurement.

The objectives of education at various levels have already been established by the system leaders. Within these broad objectives, individual institutions at each level will have to specify their goals and focus depending upon what they wish to teach and whom. For instance, one institution may specialise in teaching science and technology, while another may concentrate only on languages and the humanities. A third institution may teach only girl students while a fourth may focus on professional education like legal studies, for example. There could be another set of institutions that may do a bit of all these. There could be still different sets of institutions, some offering only continuing education programmes, some others distance education programmes and still others involved only in teaching and training of working people at their workplaces.

The purpose or goal would influence the strategy. There could be several elements in the strategy. For instance, most institutions would be interested in making a quick assessment of the needs (and the market) in their chosen areas in terms of the gaps existing in the programmes currently on offer, the likely number of people who would enrol in different programmes, the trends in the employment market, what type of courses, how they can be designed and prepared and what resources can be mobilised for them, and so on. Since it will take some lead time in making these assessments, the preparatory work for this will have to get initiated in good time. Such exercises cannot be carried out too often and therefore most institutions would prefer to prepare a medium-term plan covering, say, three to five years in which their strategies would have been defined.

The next important stage in the planning phase is the design and development of the academic programmes and their curricula. Generally, this function devolves on the faculty of the institution. They may, or may not, seek external support and assistance in doing so. In either case, it is a time-consuming process and that explains why most of the academic offerings of many institutions remain outdated, and require revision and renewal.

Substantial resources go into the development of new academic programmes in terms of money and faculty time. In fact, in education, the expenditure is an investment. The normal budgets do not permit such investments; they are not adequate enough even to maintain the current levels of activities. The management of the institutions will have to explore new and additional

resources for providing the funds for such development efforts. Governments might provide a part of it, but funding sources like business and industry as well as other national and international agencies might have to be approached to extend support.

Organisational leadership is a major element of an educational institution. As far as the teaching and learning processes are concerned, as we have seen earlier, there is very little to manage and monitor. The effectiveness of the leadership will be determined by its ability in planning and strategising, preparing the action plans, mobilising the resources, and creating the conditions in which the rest of the community can contribute to the implementation of the institution's programmes.

What we have mentioned as 'creating the conditions' mainly refers to the organisational culture that we discussed earlier in this unit. In an educational institution, managing its people is perhaps one of the most challenging tasks of the management.

No discussion on educational planning and management will be complete unless it touches upon the critical area of performance and its measurement. In the final analysis, educational outcome is the value addition to a person's knowledge, attitudes and outlook. These do not lend themselves to measurement. Nevertheless, to the extent activities are planned, and certain outcomes are assumed, it would be necessary to put in place some mechanisms to assess the performance vis-a-vis the plans. Some of the parameters we have identified for ensuring the accountability of the system would provide useful indications about the performance of the institution as well.

Check Your Progress 5

Note: i) Space is given for your answer.

ii) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

How is the effectiveness of leadership in educational institutions determined? Answer in about 40 words.

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4.5 LET US SUM UP

In this unit, we have tried to look at the processes involved in the performance of the functions of an educational institution. In order to understand the nature of these functions, we have gone in some detail in to the philosophical foundations on which educational processes are built. Though it might have sounded somewhat abstract (as indeed all philosophical expositions are), we thought it would deepen your understanding of the distinction between the processes in education on the one hand, and those in business and industry, on the other.

In a business environment, inputs are transformed into outputs through specified processes. Both inputs and outputs represent measurable quantities and the processes can be subjected to quality checks. In education, inputs and outputs can be identified, but the contribution of the processes to the outputs is not always measurable. At best, this contribution is a value addition; a person who enrols in an institution has improved upon his/her knowledge, and skills in the application of that knowledge; he/she has also acquired a new worldview, perhaps a better understanding of the world and possibly also a new meaning of life. This transformation of the individual's intellectual horizon and mental faculties is what education has accomplished and that is the contribution of the educational processes. Surely, these are not easily quantifiable.

We have identified three critical components that constitute the core of these processes – student learning, faculty productivity and institutional performance. We have then examined the issues involved in the management of these processes, which, we hope will have provided you with some insights into the complexities associated with the organisation and management of educational processes.

4.6 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS: POSSIBLE ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

i) The 21st century is marked by phenomenal changes in the way we live, work and learn. At the core of this change are knowledge and the ways in which it is transmitted and applied. The nature of work is changing and so does the workplace. Today's work needs knowledge and skills in supervision for controlling, monitoring and maintaining machines. With the diversification of sources of knowledge and the ways to acquire it, educational processes should equip children with the skills to search, store, retrieve and synthesise knowledge and applying it for different purposes.

ii) I would convert the classroom into interactive group sessions in which small groups of children sit together and work on different problems and try to find solutions to them. I would encourage them to understand each other, share their thoughts, understand their weaknesses and help them develop common interests and concerns.

Check Your Progress 2

One of the most significant developments in modern times is the multiplication of sources of knowledge. Teacher is no more the only source of transmission of knowledge and information. The role of a teacher should be to help learners access knowledge, understand it and apply it in specified contexts to the solution of problems. Teachers have to transform their role as a source of answers to all questions raised by students; they should instead help students explore answers to questions about life, work and living.

Check Your Progress 3

The engaged classroom in which teachers are involved with their students in discussions, debates and dialogue is a critical factor in creating an active learning environment. Student activities like projects, dissertations, quizzes and seminars help contribute to the environment and develop creativity. Flexible curricular structures and course patterns are also important in sustaining student interest.

Check Your Progress 4

Education is a people-oriented activity and is a social system. An educational institution, unlike a business organisation, is not 'owned' by the individuals who create them. While the objective of most business organisations is to develop a good product, market it and turn a profit, an educational institution has a larger social objective to fulfil.

Check Your Progress 5

There is little to manage and monitor the teaching and learning process by the leadership. However effectiveness of the leadership in educational institution is determined by its ability in planning and strategising, preparing the action plans, mobilising the resources and creating the conditions in which the rest of the community can contribute to the implementation of the institutional programmes.

4.7 REFERENCES AND FURTHER READINGS

(Given below are the titles, which have been used to prepare this Block. It is NOT suggested that you should go looking for these books to study them in original. If you can manage, you may look for a few titles, but they are not obligatory for completing the course successfully.)

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Dear Student,

While studying the units of this block, you may have found certain portions of the text difficult to comprehend. We wish to know your difficulties and suggestions, in order to improve the course. Therefore, we request you to fill up and send us the following questionnaire, which pertains to this block. If you find the space provided insufficient, kindly use a separate sheet.

Please mail to:
Course Coordinator (MDE-414)
STRIDE, IGNOU, Maidan Garhi
New Delhi-110 068, India

Questionnaire

Enrolment No.

1. How many hours did you spend for studying the units?

Unit no.	1	2	3	4
No. of hours				

2. Please give your reactions (by '√ mark) to the following items based on your reading of the block:

Items	Excellent	Very Good	Good	Poor	Give specific examples if poor
Presentation Quality					
Language and Style					
Illustrations Used (Diagram, tables etc.)					
Conceptual Clarity					
Check Your Progress Questions					
Feedback to CYP Questions					

4) Any other comments: