
UNIT 1 MANAGEMENT FUNCTIONS AND PROCESSES: AN OVERVIEW

Structure

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

How does one begin a course on Management of Distance Education? Of course, from the very beginning of it. For that, one needs to know what management is about before one begins to think about management of a distance education system. This Unit therefore 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.

1.1 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.

1.2 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.

We know from the beginning of recorded history that even the early groups had become complex organisations: the religions, the army, the empires, and the merchants. Today, diverse organisations are interwoven in a complex tapestry. 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, 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 way 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 interrelationship among the sub-systems can be identified in the following terms:

- the *flows* which 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 which include:

- prescribing the courses, determining the curricula and setting the standards of achievement for students;
- admitting students, collecting fees, maintaining records;
- recruiting teachers, training them and administering their conditions of service;
- holding examinations and certifying the performance of students;
- construction and maintenance of buildings, classrooms, laboratories, student hostels, staff houses, etc.;
- buying equipment, furniture, books, stationery etc. and seeing to their maintenance;
- administering the organisation and its finances.

You will notice from the above that within the context of a university, each of the above set of functions, or sub-systems, has no independent existence or goals. Courses have to be prescribed to enrol students, teachers have to be appointed to teach the students, examinations have to be held to test their performance and award degrees, 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 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 with regard to 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 determination of course content (communication technologies, computer applications); and funding regimes would affect the scales of fees charged for different programmes.

Check Your Progress 1

Identify the following statements as 'true' or 'false'

Note: Compare your answer with the one given at the end of the Unit.

- i) System is defined as the aggregate of several inter-related components, put together to achieve stated objectives. ()
- ii) Environment does not influence the components/sub-systems of an organisation. ()

1.3 MANAGEMENT FUNCTIONS

Management is about directing the energies and resources of organisations to purposeful, coordinated and goal-oriented activities. The functions of managers include creating, planning, organising, motivating, communicating 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.

1.3.1 Creativity

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 what is already existing. The creative process is the manifestation of a fundamental ability – that of relating previously unrelated things, the ability to look at things with a fresh eye, and the like. 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.

1.3.2 Planning and controlling

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 achieved only if there are good controls which help you measure the achievements in what you had planned to do. In other words, good control systems are essential elements of an effective planning process, and therefore in the context of the 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 into the organisation's working.

In the absence of planning, managers are often left to react to situations and problems as they arise. Planning permits 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, engaged always 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 life styles and consumption patterns, often forcing traditional products and services out of the market. Those involved in their production will have to quickly rethink their products and strategies which would mean redefinition of goals and reorientation of strategies. For instance, with the advent of colour television, the manufacturers of traditional black and white TV sets had to either switch over to the manufacture of colour TVs or move to the rural markets to sell their traditional products where colour TVs were not so much in demand because of their higher prices. What happens in such situations is that a revised plan is put into effect before the old one has been completely carried out. In other words, if and when an existing plan becomes 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 therefore is a significant feature of any plan.

Check Your Progress 2

What are the key features of planning in any organisation? Answer in about 50 words.

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

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

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(b) Controlling

We have already 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's 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 prerequisite for effective controlling; without planning, there is no predetermined, explicit understanding of desired performance, and without such 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 disaffection 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.

1.3.3 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. 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 structure 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 a 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 would 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;
- consistency about reporting relationships and nature of assigned responsibilities.

(b) Principles in Organising

We have just talked about several new concepts like authority, power, responsibility, delegation, relationships, 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 do it.

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 an organisation, responsibility is the duty that one has to perform the function, task or assignment given to him/her. In that sense, every body in an organisation has a responsibility, as without that responsibility there is no reason for him/her to be in the organisation.

Delegation of authority (and power) is the process by which, in an organisation, the senior management gives the subordinates 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 subordinate.

That brings us to another concept, namely, accountability. It is a natural tendency in most people to minimise the responsibility they accept. 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 should all be balanced evenly.

1.3.4 Leading and motivating

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 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 people to 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 a group 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 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's theory of human motivation (1960) makes two important propositions about human behaviour : (i) Man is a wanting being – he always wants, and he 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, project work, autonomous units are all examples of evolving management styles.

Check Your Progress 3

Identify the following statements as 'true' or 'false'.

Note : Check your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

- i) Leadership is about setting the desirable goals. ()
- ii) A good manager is not a problem solver. ()
- iii) Personal objective of each member of the organisation may not coincide with the organisational ones. ()
- iv) Participatory management team-building, project groups, etc. are new styles of management. ()

1.4 MANAGEMENT PROCESSES

Having acquainted ourselves with the major functions involved in the management of organisations, it is now time 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 generally to acquaint you 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.

1.4.1 Policy formulation

We have noted earlier that all organisations have well-defined goals and objectives. You might well ask what is the need for a policy when 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 which 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 towards attaining 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 the 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 it 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 distribution of its products; centralization or decentralization of production processes; in-house production of all associated products and services or sub-contracting them; 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, rewards, punishments), 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 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.

1.4.2 Decision-making

The stereotyped 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 there should be careful fact-finding, analysis, consultation and reflection on all aspects before taking a good decision.

Taking decisions is a process, a process in which one chooses a course which one thinks is the best. In the football field, kicking the ball with the left foot or right foot is a reflex action, it is not a decision in which any process is involved. However, 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 part of a making-up-your mind

situation, but should be the culmination of a process which blends thinking, deciding and acting. 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 it is to assemble facts, analyse them and to recommend possible sets of alternatives.
- Decision-making should be participative. This process not only brings collective wisdom to 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.
- Participative process could have a negative dimension too. Not every one 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 would 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 4

What is the main difference between policies and objectives? Explain with an example. Answer in about 50 words.

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

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

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1.4.3 Planning process

Planning deals with the future, and is therefore 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 objective. That is to say that a plan must of necessity start with an objective. And, that objective is the business of your organisation. 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 nothing 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 distribution of income, 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 predict reliably the number of the school-going children five years from now depending upon the increase in the rate of enrolment in the last five years. If the number can be forecast, you can proceed to forecast the number of new schools to be opened, 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, based on current trends in income distribution, of several goods ranging from toothpaste to television sets and cosmetics to computers.

While this sounds very easy and practicable, what about economies which are already developed? Well, there are established trends there also. 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. 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 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 is clear, the management proceeds to develop the operational planning. 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 existing 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, but consistent with the overall strategies proposed in the strategic plans.

In short, the planning process comprises the following steps:

- 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 programmes and budgets are formulated. These will indicate the allocation of responsibility for action among various units, the time-

frame for completion of different stages of accomplishment of the goals, the interdependence among various units in completion of tasks as well as the allocation of resources (money and personnel).

There is yet another process which 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, whether it was successful or not. This evaluation of the performance is a major function of management, and we shall discuss the processes associated with it in some detail separately in this unit.

1.4.4 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 the design does not make the 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 a major company, it will have also settled its nucleus. We shall 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 promotion. Managers are not born, they are made. All organisations, whether they are in the business of making cars or cheese, or of exports and imports or 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 a major responsibility. We are confining our discussion here only to the development of managerial personnel and are not considering the recruitment and training of general 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 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. Post-employment training however will mostly be on-the-job. It is through this training that future managers will get varied experience, in different jobs and at different levels. Whenever new openings come up, younger people should be encouraged to take up those assignments, even if temporarily, only for the experience it will give them. Today, it is very common for executives at different levels to be sent to participate in formal training programmes including summer programmes 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 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 and with different objectives. Regular performance appraisals can be a helpful tool in this context. They 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 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 organisations' structures and processes.

(d) Decentralization

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 ends and the other begins. 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 to 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 own 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 decision by incompetent subordinates, inconsistency and drift in meeting organisational goals and, not the least, loss of time and resources.

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.

(a) Fill up the blanks in the following sentences.

Forecasting is the first step in -----, and reliable plans are based on ----- . Accurate forecasting is nothing more than ----- today's trends into the immediate -----that can be -----.

(b) What are the major steps in the planning process ?

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(c) What are the factors that determine the design and structure of an organisation?

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1.4.5 Controlling processes

You must have heard about Murphy's Law: "if anything can go wrong, it will". Control helps you to prove Murphy wrong. But what does one actually do to control? First of all, you plan; then you control. What you do to 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 as things 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 which require execution either in a sequence or in parallel to one another. If these activities are not completed as per the schedule of 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 outputs are 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 a time-frame, it is possible to assess the performance level at the end of the period by establishing 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, this 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 blames.

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:

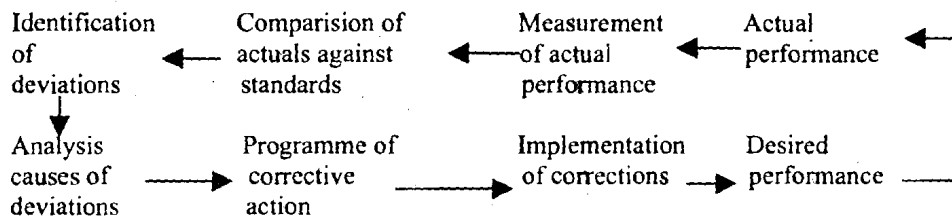


Figure 1: Feedback System in Control Process

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 takesplace 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.

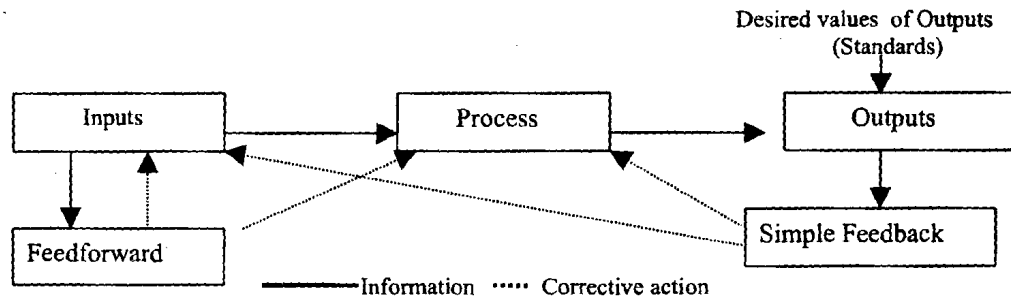


Figure 2: Comparison of Simple Feedback and Feedforward Systems
Source : Koontz Harold (1981), "Management", Auckland, McGraw-Hill., p. 730

(d) 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 the 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 and conceal.
- The purpose of the reports is to establish the accounting of responsibility. This means that the reports 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 performance. Regular cost reports on activities of each division can help identify areas where economy in expenditure can be effected by reducing overheads and optimally utilising the resources.
- Budgets are instruments that support the controlling system and its processes. They set out the 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 as 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 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 for them is 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 the 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 for 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 stages of each process at a given time, compare the progress of input-output flows within the system with the schedules of operations, locate bottlenecks, if any, and take corrective action

in time. Information management has now developed into an essential tool for all organisations.

1.5 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.

1.6 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : POSSIBLE ANSWERS
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- | |
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| <ol style="list-style-type: none">1.

i) true, ii) false2. The key features of planning are: i) setting goals and the strategies to achieve those goals; ii) flexibility – good plans should have flexibility that permits review and modification in course of plan implementation, to accommodate the unforeseen environmental factors which influence the goal/strategy; (iii) an effective plan always goes with controls.3.

i) true, ii) false, iii) true, iv) true4. The objective of an organisation indicates what it wants to accomplish, while policy outlines the method or practice to accomplish the objective set. While objective is the end-of-the-road target, policy 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. |
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5.

- (a) Planning; accurate forecasts; projecting; future; foreseen
- (b) The major steps in the planning process are: perception of opportunities, establishment of goals, appraisal of planning premises, and determining action paths.
- (c) 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

- 2.0 Introduction
- 2.1 Objectives
- 2.2 Understanding the Education System and its Organisation
 - 2.2.1 Education as a social system
 - 2.2.2 Education and the government
 - 2.2.3 The government and its agencies
 - 2.2.4 Education and the market
 - 2.2.5 Educational institutions
- 2.3 The Education System and Its Structure
 - 2.3.1 Basic education
 - 2.3.2 Secondary education
 - 2.3.3 Higher education
 - 2.3.4 Professional education
- 2.4 Management of Education and the Question of Quality
 - 2.4.1 Planning and coordination
 - 2.4.2 Organisation and control
 - 2.4.3 Accountability
 - 2.4.4 The issue of quality
- 2.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 2.6 Check Your Progress : Possible Answers

2.0 INTRODUCTION

In the first unit, we presented an overview of the basic principles and practices associated with management in general. In the early stages, management as a discipline was primarily concerned with business which involved enterprise, risk-taking, selling to maximise profits and the organisational efforts needed to do all these. However, as the sweep and scope of the management discipline grew, specialised areas of management studies began to emerge. Of these, educational management is a relatively new discipline which developed strongly in the United States in the 1950s and 1960s. The initial offerings of educational management (or 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 specialist course in educational management in the 1960s. During the 1970s and 1980s, interest in this discipline grew in the Commonwealth and Europe. The Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration and Management (CCEAM) was founded in 1970 and has presently a membership of 40

countries. The European Forum on Educational Administration (EFEA) was established in 1976 which has 20 members.

Attention to issues in educational management is rapidly increasing. In the first place, resources for education are progressively shrinking while the numbers of those who are seeking education are for ever increasing. Obviously, the search for alternatives to the traditional forms of education is a necessity. And with it comes a host of issues: strategic choices, action plans, performance appraisals, leadership and human resource management, budgeting and financial control, and so on. You will see that all these are issues which concern management in general and with the acquaintance with the functions and processes in management gained from Unit 1, we shall now proceed to explore how these are relevant to the management of the education system in this unit. But first let us take a look at the organisation and structure of education.

2.1 OBJECTIVES

On completion of this unit, you should be able to

- identify the significant features of the educational system and its organisation,
- analyse the various components that constitute the system of education in a country,
- 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.

2.2 UNDERSTANDING THE EDUCATION SYSTEM AND ITS ORGANISATION

In the previous unit, we discussed in some details 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 of education, each of which will have several constituents. Besides universities and colleges, there is the government which regulates the education system possibly through one or several agencies which it creates for this purpose. Above all, education is concerned with all people and therefore it is an important social system as well. The organisation of the education system is thus highly complex and multi-dimensional. We shall take a close look at some of these features in this unit.

2.2.1 Education as a social system

Education is a people-oriented activity. It is not just about bringing individuals together by getting them to accept common values shaped in the past. It should also answer the question of the reason and purpose of living together and equip everyone with the ability to participate effectively in shaping the future of the society of which he/she is 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 governments; it extends to shaping of social institutions and organisations. The major role of education then is to prepare people for active participation in the life of the community.

It is now widely recognised that the goal of development should be human welfare and not merely economic growth measured in terms of 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 and 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 which are constantly growing. They are called upon to provide the same educational opportunities to all, and to respond to all demands. 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 economic, social and cultural development.

In the developing countries, while shortage of resources is a major constraint in making the 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 labour market supply and demand. 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 aptitudes; 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

expectation that it is one of education's basic functions. Choices in education therefore concern the whole of society and require democratic debates.

2.2.2 Education and the government

The basic feature of education as a social system which deeply affects the lives of all the people inevitably brings into focus the role of the 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? None 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 of educational reforms in most countries is the thrust given in their national policies.

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 will provide for the regulatory framework within which the public and the private sector will function in the field of education. Generally, the overall framework that most governments provide will cover :

- teaching and curriculum (subjects to be taught, compulsory and optional subjects, contents of courses, national core curriculum which in some cases could be a model only, examinations at the national or institutional level, etc);
- staff (qualifications prescribed centrally by law or determined by the 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.);
- resources (finance, budgeting, grants, sources of finance, management patterns, fees and other resources, etc.) ; and
- performance assessment and review (performance audit of institutions, organisational systems, review of policies, changes in directions and so on).

The roles played by 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 which have a federal structure have a largely decentralised system in which states

perform most of the management 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, after looking at his 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 also play a major responsibility especially in the areas of finance and management within the parameters of the policy laid down at the national level.

Check Your Progress 1

Identify the following statements as 'True' or 'False'

Note: Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this unit.

- (i) Preparing humanity to take control of its own development is the principal function of education. ()
- (ii) Developed countries would not face the dilemma of balancing different options in resource allocation for education. ()
- (iii) Choices in education concern the whole of society and require democratic debates. ()
- (iv) Implementation of policy is not the task of the government. ()
- (v) In decentralised systems, local self-governments play a major responsibility especially in the areas of finance and management ()

2.2.3 The government and its agencies

As we mentioned in the previous section, several agencies created by the government are involved in the system of education. For example, with the increase in the number of universities, special agencies were set up to provide university funding. The erstwhile University Grants Committee (UGC) in the UK is a major example. This agency has gone through a great deal of metamorphosis and is currently operating in the form of Higher Education Funding Councils on a regional basis. In India, besides the University Grants Commission (UGC), there is an All India Council for Technical Education (AICTE) which is the planning and coordinating mechanism for the development of technical education. The Teacher Training Agency (TTA) in the UK and the National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE) in India are responsible for ensuring the quality and standards of training for school teachers in respective countries.

There is a plethora of bodies, some statutory and some purely professional, which in one form or another regulate or influence the functioning of the education system. For instance, the Medical Councils (by whatever name called) prescribe the norms and standards for the professional preparation of medical practitioners. Universities offering medical education programmes have to conform to these norms and standards while prescribing the courses and curricula, failing which their degrees might run the risk of derecognition. Similar situations apply to other professions as well: Architecture, Engineering, Law, Pharmacy, and so on.

There are also accreditation agencies which validate the qualifications and diplomas awarded by several institutions. These bodies could be set up by the governments under law or by professional bodies outside the government to safeguard the interests of the relevant profession and to maintain the public esteem of its practitioners.

At the school level, there are Boards of Education at the central, state or university levels which generally prescribe the courses and their content, hold the examinations and certify the outcome. The role of the schools is confined to teaching the prescribed courses and organising other co-curricular activities.

2.2.4 Education and the market

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 said to be beyond the realm of the market. Historically, education is conceived as an endeavour designed to promote the well being of any society, which is not influenced by considerations like creation of wealth or maximisation of profit, and therefore the market dimension of education has remained outside the scope of the 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 the 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 every day spending of the individuals.

Market emerged as a significant determinant in the formulation of policies and programmes of education in the UK in the 1980s. Since the late 1980s a series of legislations in the UK for 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 emphasizing the principle that 'value for money' is the basis of educational spending. In many ways, these initiatives also sanctified the introduction of the market lingua into discussions on educational management and practices.

2.2.5 Educational institutions

So far, we have talked about the organisation of education as a meta system where the management is far removed from where action lies. You will recall that we mentioned in the previous unit that organisations are its people but, in this case, at the meta system level, teachers and students (the focal points in education) have little or no role to play in the management of education. The core of the education system however is the large number of schools, colleges and 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, Heads of Department, Head Teachers, Principals, and so on).

Normally, when one speaks about educational management, it is the management of these institutions that one is likely to have in focus. To the extent that education is a service which is delivered to the people, it is the providers (institutions) that are likely to be in the 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 conform to them.

Having identified the broad constituents that comprise the larger education system, we shall, in the later part of this course, examine in greater details 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 2

Note: i) Space is given below for your answers.
ii) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this unit.

- (a) Which view of Hayek and Friedman was articulated by Harris and Scruton and what is the crux of their own argument?

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- (b) Who are the educational providers and what is the main problem they face while performing this function?

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2.3 THE EDUCATION SYSTEM AND ITS STRUCTURE

You will recall that while discussing the system concept in Unit 1, we have noticed that a system is the aggregate of several inter-related components or sub-systems. In our example of a university, we had identified several sub-

systems that comprise the university as a system. When we looked at the organisation of education, we have seen that it consists 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 systemic structure as shown below:

- A meta system operating mainly at the national level, managed by the central 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 education, teacher education, and so on) committed to their charge.
- The institutional system which is concerned with prescribing courses, appointing teachers, admitting students, imparting instruction, evaluating students, and managing finances and administration.

This overview of the design of education system is necessary to understand and appreciate its structure. Generally, the educational system in a country is organised on the basis of the levels (or stages) of education, each of which is identified with a specific level of attainment. These stages are elementary education (encompassing primary education/basic education), secondary education (general education, vocational education) and post-secondary education (higher education and all forms of professional and technical education). We shall now look at this structure of the education system.

2.3.1 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 upto 3 more years of general education. It is at this stage that sparks of creativity springs into life and access to knowledge becomes a reality. This stage also provides the opportunities to acquire the instruments for future development of our faculties of reason and imagination, our judgement and sense of responsibility, and for learning to be inquisitive. It is at this stage that the cognitive and affective skills need to be developed and the body of essential knowledge is transmitted 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-1, Jomtien Conference, 1990).

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

- making basic education compulsory for all ;
- removing all obstacles to school attendance ;
- special provision for the 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 timings to take care of family duties;
- provision of school meals; and
- improving the school infrastructure.

2.3.2 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 of criticisms, against its inegalitarian 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 human 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 an element in the organisation and management of secondary education.

2.3.3 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 for 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 life-long 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.

2.3.4 Professional education

This area is, for all practical purposes, a component of the larger system of higher education. There are however 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 the employment sectors. We have briefly touched upon this aspect earlier in this unit while discussing the organisation of education.

Check Your Progress 3

- Note:** i) Space is given below for your answers.
ii) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this unit.

- (a) What should be the emphasis at secondary stage of education to make the students cope with future challenges?

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- (b) What are the major factors that bring pressure on higher education?

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2.4 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 at 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 institution level. Nevertheless, at all levels, 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 which 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.

2.4.1 Planning and coordination

The objective of education is human development. It is the state which 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, transport, communications, 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 critical areas for 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 acts 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 the 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 the 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 rational 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.

2.4.2 Organisation and control

Though organisation and control is a significant element in the process of management, education has a special feature. Perhaps, in no other organised endeavour, there is so much of autonomy at every level. The individual teacher is independent, he/she does not function on the basis of a reporting system. He/she enjoys considerable freedom in deciding what he/she teaches and how. This 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 in the affairs of the institutions, and the consequent tensions continue to strain the relationships between them.

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 rigorous control over the functioning of educational systems by the government.

2.4.3 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 envisages. 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 never really gets rewarded, for that is what is expected of all functionaries who hold public offices and are paid for. Since success is not rewarded, failure seldom gets punished. There could always be exceptions to this rule; people are sometimes forced out of their offices or otherwise proceeded against according to law.

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, retention, rates of dropouts, standing of graduates in the labour market, migration among institutions, and not the least by the ratio of recruitment by transnational enterprises.

2.4.4 The issue of quality

The quality issue in education is both a technical issue and an ethical issue. 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 in 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.

Quality of education tends to become a value judgement, not always lending itself to any quantitative assessment.

Check Your Progress 4

What are the main factors that influence allocation of resources for higher education?

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

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

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2.5 LET US SUM UP

We have tried to present to you in this unit a synoptic overview of the organisation and structure of the education system. We have looked at the major constituents of the system, what roles they play, and how their interrelationships are established. We have also taken a close look at the structure of the system as a hierarchy of levels and the main objectives of each of these levels. 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 which are common to all organised systems and those which 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.

2.6 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS: POSSIBLE ANSWERS

1. (i) True, (ii) False, (iii) True, (iv) False, (v) (True)
2. (a) Hayek and Friedman advocated a socio-political philosophy that market forces were the appropriate instruments for the allocation of resources and structuring of choices in all aspects of human endeavour including social and educational policy. Later this view was articulated by Harris and Scruton as a set of policy for public spending which emphasised the individuals' right to choose the ways in which they spent their resources.

(b) Education is a service delivered to the people by a large number of educational institutions who are known as providers; but when anything goes wrong with education, the blame comes to educational institutions, especially the teachers and administrators.
3. (a) In addition to the core elements like language, science and general education, emphasis should be on the cultivation of a scientific temper and preparation of students to use science and technology. Secondary education should develop in the students aptitudes for managing conflicts and violence, and foster creativity and empathy for participation in social development.

(b) Lack of relevance, mismatch between education and employment, rising demand, rigidities in structures and processes and inefficiency of institutions are the major factors which bring pressure on higher education system.
4. Resource allocation for higher education is a function of several variables. The important determinants are: priorities within the education sector (basic, secondary, higher), critical areas that require human capital for development (teaching, professions, technologies), increasing social demand, etc.

UNIT 3 MANAGING EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

Structure

- 3.0 Introduction
- 3.1 Objectives
- 3.2 Institutional Management
 - 3.2.1 Social systems theory
 - 3.2.2 Mission and goals
 - 3.2.3 Governance
 - 3.2.4 The educational community
- 3.3 Academic Management
 - 3.3.1 Programmes and curricula
 - 3.3.2 Student services
 - 3.3.3 Linkages and interface
- 3.4 The Administration
 - 3.4.1 Personnel management
 - 3.4.2 Infrastructure management
 - 3.4.3 Financial management
 - 3.4.4 Methods and procedures
- 3.5 Institution Building
 - 3.5.1 Organisational diagnosis and evaluation
 - 3.5.2 Organisational renewal
 - 3.5.3 Institutional leadership
- 3.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 3.7 Check Your Progress: Possible Answers

3.0 INTRODUCTION

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

We shall now move to the core of the educational 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 and make a profit. The centrality of this social purpose 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.

3.1 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 in an institution,
- identify the challenges in the management of institutions, and
- explore the ways of meeting those challenges.

3.2 INSTITUTIONAL MANAGEMENT

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

- Teaching and learning are the primary tasks of 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 teachers 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 which 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 societal changes, increased accountability and not the least, the growing erosion of the

professional authority of the academic, have all significant consequences for the management of the educational institution.

3.2.1 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.

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.

Systems theory also enables us to understand the flow of authority through the institution. Authority, as we have noted in Unit 1, is the right to take decisions which 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.

3.2.2 Mission and goals

The mission statement helps people understand who they are as an institution and where they want to go. It is futuristic, it is directional, 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 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. While the mission of an educational institution might be articulated in terms of advancement and dissemination of knowledge, meeting the personnel needs of the production sectors of the economy, ensuring equitable access for all members of the community to educational provision, attainment of peaks of excellence in educational standards, and so on, goals, would be set in terms of 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.

3.2.3 Governance

Education, as we have seen in the previous unit, is a multi-layered activity. There is the national government which 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 and universities) which 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 discussions to their management.

Traditionally, educational institutions are perceived to be self-governing institutions. There are several reasons for establishment 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 vest 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 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 for 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 this process can be time-consuming. Further, the structure, though collegial in theory, does function on the principle of hierarchies to the extent that it has individual members reporting to departmental heads, who in turn report to Deans or Rectors and they to Principals or Presidents.

3.2.4 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 teachers and administrators, but also the 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 in community with others outside the institution as well.

Check Your Progress 1

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

- Note:** i) Space is given below for your answer.
ii) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this unit.

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3.3 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 which 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.

3.3.1 Programmes and curricula

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

- At the school level, generally there would be a common national curriculum which most schools will have to adopt. The school management can only supplement this core curriculum with components which have local or regional relevance.
- At the higher education level, there is much greater flexibility and substantial autonomy. 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 achieved so that equivalence of qualifications awarded by different institutions 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 Faculty and the Academic Council provide the mechanisms for this function. These bodies comprise mainly 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.

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 class-room lectures, laboratory work, group work and projects, self-study, etc. With the increasing applications of technology, there are now multiple channels of learning and 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 can be 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 programmes. 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 important from the management's perspective are the following:

- the content, structure, flexibilities in combinations of content, etc for every programme should be clearly spelt out;
- the instructional processes should be laid down in as much detail as possible; and
- the assessment system should be explained clearly and in detail.

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

3.3.2 Student services

We just concluded the previous section with the mention of the learning contract between students and their institutions. Before concluding the contract, the 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 assessments, 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, travels and competition.

- Residential facilities and participation in their management, student associations and their management.
- Financial support in the form of scholarships, loans or part-time employment.
- Career counselling and guidance including placement.

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. Unscrupulous management can also make exaggerated claims on the generous provision of these services as publicity gimmicks which can land them in great trouble.

3.3.3 Linkage 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.

In the first place, an educational institution has to function within the parameters of the 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 government 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 have noticed earlier, several agencies set up by the government 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.

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 the matter of 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 monitor these developments 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. This demands that the institution provides all relevant information to the funding agencies on time, and meet 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 of offices by industry or holding marriage ceremonies. This 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 children of their employees on the campus. Several 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 2

Identify the critical factors that influence programmes and their curricula as well as their relationship with the external environment. Answer in about 50 words.

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.
ii) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this unit.

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3.4 THE ADMINISTRATION

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

We call this component administration which provides the functions and systems supporting the organisation and all communications among its parts. 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 this component which interprets and administers all laws (which include rules, regulations, procedures) and exercises control over the administration of personnel and finance. It is not surprising therefore to find that this component in education is found in perennial conflict with academics every where who in fact perform the core functions, but feel powerless vis-a-vis their counterparts in administration.

3.4.1 Personnel management

Personnel management deals with managing people who run the organisation. It is the levels of the efficiency and commitment of these people which make for the progress of an institution. In an educational institution, people fall into two distinct categories: 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

development, 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 which are common to both. For instance, while the methods of recruitment and promotion applicable to teachers could be significantly 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 which is responsible for assessment of vacancies, the periodicity for such assessments, the methods of recruitments for specified types of vacancies, etc.
- The methods of 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, open invitation for recruitment from the market, constitution of Selection Committees for different categories of personnel, and so on.
- 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, the development of such performance indicators has not met with any significant success. We shall explore this issue in the next unit.

We mentioned a little while earlier that the organisational rivalry between academics and administrators has been a perennial problem that has bedeviled 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 administration 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. These services and facilities which we discussed earlier in this unit required more administrative staff for their maintenance. The result was an exponential growth in administration 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. With this development, 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.

3.4.2 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, hostels and guest houses, staff residences, campus utilities (water, electricity, transport) and so on. With the increasing applications of technology in office automation, and audio-visual support to instructional process, the installation and maintenance of the technological infrastructure have assumed considerable significance.

The creation of this infrastructure requires heavy investments and takes considerably long periods for putting 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 the campuses of many good institutions in a state of disrepair - poorly maintained buildings, unhygienic sanitary conditions, costly equipment rusting for want of repairs and replacements, broken furniture and dingy corridors stacked with rows upon rows of moth eaten records. Though these physical infrastructure facilities may not have any direct contribution to make to the processes of teaching and learning, they do contribute to the creation of 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.

3.4.3 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 the sources of their 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, 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 (research, consultancy, product 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; and
- 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 investment and so on.

3.4.4 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 which all organisations have to perform. They are budgeting and accounting, administration of the property, administering the staff and reporting on the organisational performance to the funding authorities, legislatures, governments, 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 which the 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 (3.4.1). 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, typists, record-keepers) and similar staff in other systems, the terms and conditions of teachers will generally be different since their functions, and the ways in which they function, are considerably different. Appropriate performance appraisal systems should be put in place, meetings of the committees of experts should be convened in time to advise on the suitability for promotion and the procedures followed in these matters should be 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 the morale in the employees.

Financing and accounting are functions common to all organisations. Usually, organisations frame a financial code which would set out all their anticipated incomes and expenditure as also the procedure for registering all the income received and all the expenditure incurred. The code will also specify the competent authorities who can approve expenditure, authorise payment and where necessary and unavoidable, waive payment or write off losses. No organisation can survive without acquiring property (building, equipment, stationery) and managing it. Depending upon the nature and the 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 a certain degree of transparency and order is unavoidable when dealing with public money.

Check Your Progress 3

Analyse the reasons for the never ending conflicts between academics and administrators. Answer in about 50 words.

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

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

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3.5 INSTITUTION BUILDING

Institution building as a process essentially implies management of the development of an institution. The initial steps in this process are organisational diagnosis and evaluation. This stage is followed by the formulation of an institutional plan which seeks to consolidate the strengths, correct the weaknesses and redesign the strategies in the context of new opportunities and challenges. The implementation of this plan might involve redesigning the organisation, and reworking its current strategies. Effective leadership is the key to institution building.

3.5.1 Organisational diagnosis and evaluation

The common method used for evaluating 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 to take up such evaluation, the 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, administrative staff, employing organisations and other members of the academic community. Their views could be elicited as response to structured questionnaires which could then be analysed to obtain the general perceptions on a number of parameters ranging from the fulfillment 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

- strengths;
- weaknesses;
- opportunities; and
- 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.

3.5.2 Organisational renewal

The 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 opportunities that have arisen from the changes in the environment as well as the threats posed by competition from other institutions. For example, if the enrolment in the traditional programmes, of degree education in the humanities and social sciences is continuously declining even though the quality of programmes and their delivery are of a high order, it would be worthwhile to shift the focus to more non-traditional student groups for 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.

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 sources 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. 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.

3.5.3 Institutional leadership

Leadership is a much discussed theme these days. There is a whole body of literature on leadership; there are centres and institutes which 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 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. A 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 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 the 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 a vice-chancellor of a university, a principal of college, or a 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 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 through 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 and 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 goal set for them. Participation, mutual respect and recognition, ability and willingness to develop a shared vision and goal, encouragement to innovations and experiments and continuously strengthening the evolving relationship among the members are all significant attributes of leadership in educational institutions. 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 performs 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 can be said that the institution is well with the community.

Check Your Progress 4

What is the role of leadership in educational institutions ? Answer in about 50 words.

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.
ii) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of this unit.

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3.6 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have dealt with the following issues:

- the differences between educational institutions and other organizations;
- the mission, the goals and the governance of educational institutions;
- various components of academic management such as – programmes and curricula, student services and linkage and interface;
- different dimensions of institutional administration; and
- institutional building and the role of leadership in it.

3.7 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS : POSSIBLE ANSWERS

1. The mission of the institution reflects its purpose and the philosophical assertion of the values and principles it stands for. The mission determines its programmes and activities while the goals define its distinctive characteristics by articulating the specific needs of the society it seeks to serve in terms of levels of education, areas of study and methods of teaching and learning.
2. Several factors influence programmes and curricula. These are:
 - level of education (basic, secondary, higher)
 - the core curriculum, if naturally prescribed
 - at the higher levels, the comparability of content the depth of its treatment and the entry and exit standards that establish equivalence of the awards among different institutions
 - synergy between educational provision and employment needs.
3. The primary reason for such conflicts that pervade academia is the uniqueness of the work culture of the faculty. Teaching is a solitary endeavour, and freedom is its guiding value. Teachers do not belong to the established hierarchy of relationships; collegiality and shared beliefs are the core of their organisational relationship. The power structure in most institutions is heavily in favour of academics, but the responsibility for execution lies with the administrators. It is therefore natural that each group tends to blame the other for non-performance and failure.
4. In a self-governing, collegial organisational structure, leadership plays a critical role at multiple levels. An organisation performs best when its members work in teams and develop synergy. Leadership in this environment is not of the inspirational or authoritarian type; it is more of a type sustained by shared beliefs in and commitments to freedom, access and equity, community life and excellence.

UNIT 4 MANAGEMENT PROCESSES IN EDUCATION

Structure

- 4.0 Introduction
- 4.1 Objectives
- 4.2 The Philosophical Foundations of Education
 - 4.2.1 Learning to know
 - 4.2.2 Learning to do
 - 4.2.3 Learning to live together
 - 4.2.4 Learning to be
 - 4.2.5 Teaching and the teacher's role
- 4.3 Management of Teaching and Learning
 - 4.3.1 Student learning
 - 4.3.2 Faculty productivity
 - 4.3.3 Institutional performance
 - 4.3.4 Planning
- 4.4 Let Us Sum Up
- 4.5 Check Your Progress: Possible Answers

4.0 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 focussed 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.

4.1 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.

4.2 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; the knowledge acquisition through this process was passive. The learner has little or no active role in the process of learning. 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 enter the 21st century, we are also entering a 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.

4.2.1 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 sense, 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 understanding, knowing 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.

4.2.2 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 production 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 work such as controlling, maintaining and monitoring machines, and also by organising and supervisory 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.

4.2.3 Learning to live together

Speaking at the convocation of the Allahabad University over fifty years 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 to 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 their 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 tensions between

the rich and the poor continue 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 differences between its members. In several areas, in sports, for example, tensions between social classes and nationalities have, in the end, been transformed into unity by the common effort involved. Education, from the very beginning, should endeavour to introduce the young to the ways of co-operative undertakings through participation in sports, cultural activities and social welfare initiatives.

Check Your Progress 1

Answer the following questions in about 50 words each.

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?

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- ii) If you are a teacher, how do you inculcate the concept of 'togetherness' among your students?

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4.2.4 Learning to be

Education should contribute to the all-round development of each individual-mind and 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 fulfillment 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 two 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 continuously 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 end of a successful working life is thus a very individualised process and at the same time a process of constructing social interaction.

4.2.5 Teaching and the teachers' role

Teaching, as we have 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 around 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 free recognition of the legitimacy of knowledge 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 critical. It is becoming increasingly necessary in modern societies for teaching to help from individual judgement and a sense of individual responsibility that enable students, to fore-see 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 the fields of information technology and communications, 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 student's critical faculty.

Check Your Progress 2

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

- Note:** i) Space is given below for your answer.
ii) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

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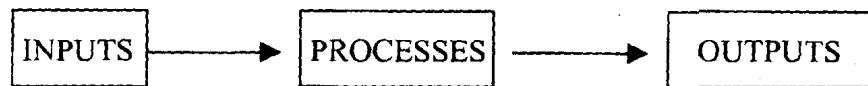
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4.3 MANAGEMENT OF TEACHING AND LEARNING

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 transformation of inputs into outputs. The following diagram explains the statement.



Generally, a process can be defined as an identifiable flow of interrelated events moving toward 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 process. 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 a process may or may not have consequences intended by people (French, 1982).

All these attributes are discernible in the teaching learning process 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 points 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.

4.3.1 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 naturally vary 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 teacher and the students get fully engaged in discussions about how ideas are defined, worked on and assessed that 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 the process along with their teachers in discussions, debates and dialogue.

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 assure their market share.

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 of knowledge acquisition 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 learners' point of view. Modular courses, 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 processes that will capture the imagination of the learners.

4.3.2 Faculty productivity

Productivity, as we have noted earlier, is in the economic sense, 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 publishes a lot
- a good teacher is one who helps students to learn and inspires confidence in them
- 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, specially 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, whose places will go, surely not those of 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 source 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 conflicts 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) 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.

Check Your Progress 3

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

- Note:** i) Space is given below for your answer.
ii) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

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4.3.3 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 of a person reporting to his/her seniors or supervisors. It is not so in teaching. A teacher in the classroom is almost a sovereign. His/her work is not supervised, monitored or assessed. Nor does he/she report to any one. 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 discipline.

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 people who create them, and who invest their moneys in their activities. Those who create such 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 would 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 that 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 aggregate 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, nor 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 are delayed. But that is the price the system pays for self-governance.

Check Your Progress 4

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

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.
ii) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

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Planning

We have briefly 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 as per 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 objective 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 still be 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 work places.

This 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 in this direction 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 our 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, this 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 sources 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 and persuaded to extend support.

Organisational leadership is a major element in the management 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 therefore be determined by its efficiency in planning the strategies, 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 just mentioned as 'creating the conditions' mainly refers to the organisational culture which 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-à-vis the plans. Some of the parameters we have identified for ensuring the accountability of the system would provide useful indication of the performance of the institutions as well.

4.4 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 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 output is not always measurable. At best, this contribution is a value addition; a person who enrolls 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.

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.

4.5 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS: POSSIBLE ANSWERS

1.
 - i) The process of education should take note of the emerging trends of business processes and methods. The nature of work is changing, and so is the work place. The work of tomorrow might need more personal competence in controlling, monitoring and maintaining machines and related supervisory tasks.
 - ii) I would create an atmosphere in the class in which each student participates in special projects and group work to provide them opportunities to work together. I would encourage them to understand each other, share their strengths, understand their weaknesses and help them develop common interests and concerns.
2. One of the most significant developments in modern times is the multiplication of the sources of knowledge. Teacher is no more the single source of knowledge transmission. The role of a teacher is 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 questions raised by students about the world and its ways.
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 that environment and develop creativity. Flexible curricular structures and course patterns are also important in sustaining learners' interest.
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 earn a profit, an educational institution has a larger social objective to fulfil.

REFERENCES AND SUGGESTED 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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UNIT 4 MANAGEMENT PROCESSES IN EDUCATION

Structure

- 4.0 Introduction
- 4.1 Objectives
- 4.2 The Philosophical Foundations of Education
 - 4.2.1 Learning to know
 - 4.2.2 Learning to do
 - 4.2.3 Learning to live together
 - 4.2.4 Learning to be
 - 4.2.5 Teaching and the teacher's role
- 4.3 Management of Teaching and Learning
 - 4.3.1 Student learning
 - 4.3.2 Faculty productivity
 - 4.3.3 Institutional performance
 - 4.3.4 Planning
- 4.4 Let Us Sum Up
- 4.5 Check Your Progress: Possible Answers

4.0 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 focussed 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.

4.1 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.

4.2 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; the knowledge acquisition through this process was passive. The learner has little or no active role in the process of learning. 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 enter the 21st century, we are also entering a 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.

4.2.1 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 sense, 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 understanding, knowing 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.

4.2.2 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 production 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 work such as controlling, maintaining and monitoring machines, and also by organising and supervisory 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.

4.2.3 Learning to live together

Speaking at the convocation of the Allahabad University over fifty years 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 to 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 their 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 tensions between

the rich and the poor continue 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 differences between its members. In several areas, in sports, for example, tensions between social classes and nationalities have, in the end, been transformed into unity by the common effort involved. Education, from the very beginning, should endeavour to introduce the young to the ways of co-operative undertakings through participation in sports, cultural activities and social welfare initiatives.

Check Your Progress 1

Answer the following questions in about 50 words each.

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?

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- ii) If you are a teacher, how do you inculcate the concept of 'togetherness' among your students?

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4.2.4 Learning to be

Education should contribute to the all-round development of each individual-mind and 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 fulfillment 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 two 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 continuously 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 end of a successful working life is thus a very individualised process and at the same time a process of constructing social interaction.

4.2.5 Teaching and the teachers' role

Teaching, as we have 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 around 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 free recognition of the legitimacy of knowledge 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 critical. It is becoming increasingly necessary in modern societies for teaching to help from individual judgement and a sense of individual responsibility that enable students, to fore-see 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 the fields of information technology and communications, 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 student's critical faculty.

Check Your Progress 2

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

- Note:** i) Space is given below for your answer.
ii) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

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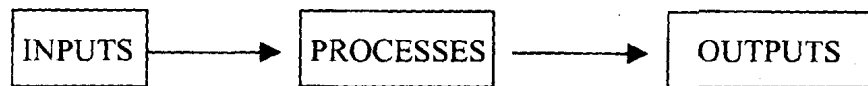
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4.3 MANAGEMENT OF TEACHING AND LEARNING

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 transformation of inputs into outputs. The following diagram explains the statement.



Generally, a process can be defined as an identifiable flow of interrelated events moving toward 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 process. 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 a process may or may not have consequences intended by people (French, 1982).

All these attributes are discernible in the teaching learning process 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 points 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.

4.3.1 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 naturally vary 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 teacher and the students get fully engaged in discussions about how ideas are defined, worked on and assessed that 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 the process along with their teachers in discussions, debates and dialogue.

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 assure their market share.

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 of knowledge acquisition 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 learners' point of view. Modular courses, 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 processes that will capture the imagination of the learners.

4.3.2 Faculty productivity

Productivity, as we have noted earlier, is in the economic sense, 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 publishes a lot
- a good teacher is one who helps students to learn and inspires confidence in them
- 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, specially 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, whose places will go, surely not those of 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 source 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 conflicts 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) 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.

Check Your Progress 3

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

- Note:** i) Space is given below for your answer.
ii) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

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4.3.3 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 of a person reporting to his/her seniors or supervisors. It is not so in teaching. A teacher in the classroom is almost a sovereign. His/her work is not supervised, monitored or assessed. Nor does he/she report to any one. 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 discipline.

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 people who create them, and who invest their moneys in their activities. Those who create such 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 would 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 that 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 aggregate 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, nor 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 are delayed. But that is the price the system pays for self-governance.

Check Your Progress 4

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

Note: i) Space is given below for your answer.
ii) Compare your answer with the one given at the end of the unit.

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Planning

We have briefly 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 as per 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 objective 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 still be 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 work places.

This 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 in this direction 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 our 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, this 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 sources 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 and persuaded to extend support.

Organisational leadership is a major element in the management 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 therefore be determined by its efficiency in planning the strategies, 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 just mentioned as 'creating the conditions' mainly refers to the organisational culture which 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-à-vis the plans. Some of the parameters we have identified for ensuring the accountability of the system would provide useful indication of the performance of the institutions as well.

4.4 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 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 output is not always measurable. At best, this contribution is a value addition; a person who enrolls 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.

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.

4.5 CHECK YOUR PROGRESS: POSSIBLE ANSWERS

1.
 - i) The process of education should take note of the emerging trends of business processes and methods. The nature of work is changing, and so is the work place. The work of tomorrow might need more personal competence in controlling, monitoring and maintaining machines and related supervisory tasks.
 - ii) I would create an atmosphere in the class in which each student participates in special projects and group work to provide them opportunities to work together. I would encourage them to understand each other, share their strengths, understand their weaknesses and help them develop common interests and concerns.
2. One of the most significant developments in modern times is the multiplication of the sources of knowledge. Teacher is no more the single source of knowledge transmission. The role of a teacher is 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 questions raised by students about the world and its ways.
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 that environment and develop creativity. Flexible curricular structures and course patterns are also important in sustaining learners' interest.
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 earn a profit, an educational institution has a larger social objective to fulfil.

REFERENCES AND SUGGESTED 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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