School management
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Second base science

Contents

# Chapter 1 Educational management

Management

Definition: Management can be defined as the **process of administering and controlling the affairs of the organization**, irrespective of its nature, type, structure and size. It is an act of creating and maintaining such a business environment wherein the members of the organization can work together, and achieve business objectives efficiently and effectively.

Management acts as a guide to a group of people working in the organization and coordinating their efforts, towards the attainment of the common objective.

In other words, it is concerned with **optimally using 5M's, i.e. men, machine, material, money and methods** and, this is possible only when there proper direction, coordination and integration of the processes and activities, to achieve the desired results.

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2RMTzYlL_FY

Characteristics of Management
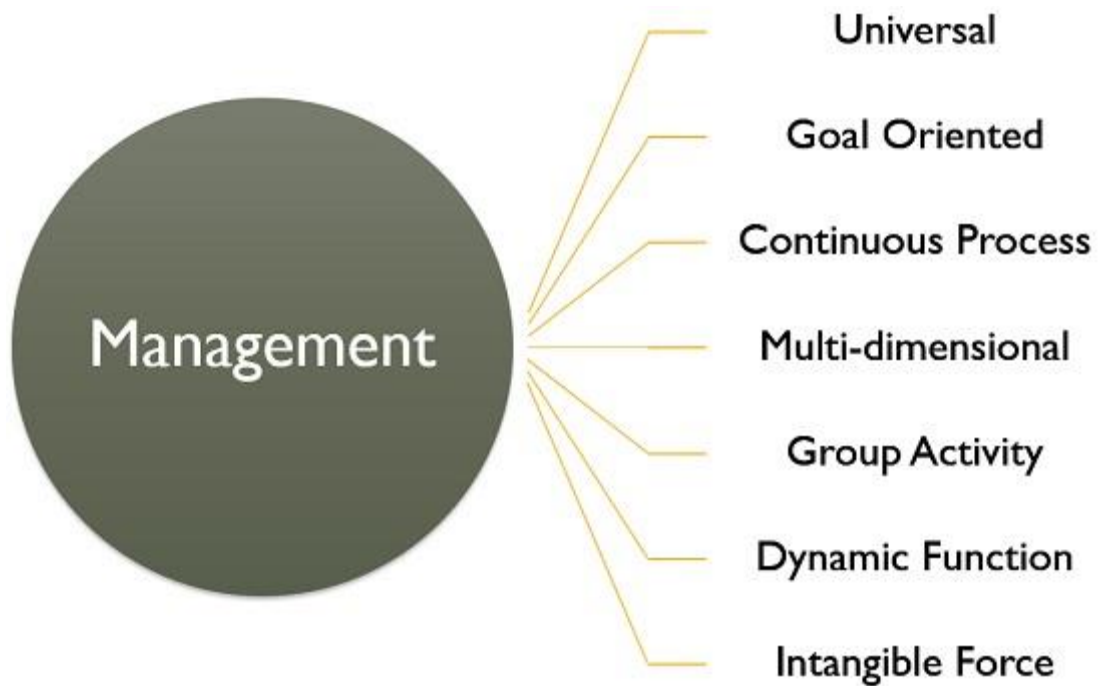
- **Universal**: All the organizations, whether it is profit-making or not, they require management, for managing their activities. Hence it is universal in nature.

- **Goal Oriented**: Every organization is set up with a predetermined objective and management helps in reaching those goals timely, and smoothly.

- **Continuous Process**: It is an ongoing process which tends to persist as long as the organization exists. It is required in every sphere of the organization whether it is production, human resource, finance or marketing.

- **Multi-dimensional**: Management is not confined to the administration of people only, but it also manages work, processes and operations, which makes it a multi-disciplinary activity.

- **Group activity**: An organization consists of various members who have different needs, expectations and beliefs. Every person joins the organization with a different motive, but

after becoming a part of the organization they work for achieving the same goal. It requires supervision, teamwork and coordination, and in this way, management comes into the picture.

- **Dynamic function**: An organization exists in a business environment that has various factors like social, political, legal, technological and economic. A slight change in any of these factors will affect the organization's growth and performance. So, to overcome these changes management formulates strategies and implements them

- **Intangible force**: Management can neither be seen nor touched but one can feel its existence, in the way the organization functions.

Precisely, all the functions, activities and processes of the organization are interconnected to one another. And it is the task of the management to bring them together in such a way that they help in reaching the intended result.

Levels of Management

1. **Top-Level Management**: This is the highest level in the organizational hierarchy, which includes **Board of Directors and Chief Executives**. They are responsible for defining the objectives, formulating plans, strategies and policies.

2. **Middle-Level Management**: It is the second and most important level in the corporate ladder, as it creates a link between the top and lower level management. It includes **departmental and division heads and managers** who are responsible for implementing and controlling plans and strategies which are formulated by the top executives.

3-Lower Level Management: Otherwise called as functional or operational level management. It includes **first line managers, foreman, supervisors**. As lower level management directly interacts with the workers, it plays a crucial role in the organization because it helps in reducing wastage and idle time of the workers, improving the quality and quantity of output.

While managers often view their work as task or supervisory in orientation, this view is an illusion.

At the most fundamental level, management is a discipline that consists of a set of five general functions: planning, organizing, staffing, leading and controlling. These five functions are part of a body of practices and theories on how to be a successful manager.

Understanding the functions will help managers focus efforts on activities that gain results. Summarizing the five functions of great management .

1. Planning: When you think of planning in a management role, think about it as the process of choosing appropriate goals and actions to pursue and then determining what strategies to use, what actions to take, and deciding what resources are needed to achieve the goals.

2. Organizing: This process of establishing worker relationships allows workers to work together to achieve their organizational goals.

3. Leading: This function involves articulating a vision, energizing employees, inspiring and motivating people using vision, influence, persuasion, and effective communication skills.

4. Staffing: Recruiting and selecting employees for positions within the company (within teams and departments).

5. Controlling: Evaluate how well you are achieving your goals, improving performance, taking actions. Put processes in place to help you establish standards, so you can measure, compare, and make decisions.

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qZphAdxA3Xg

Five Functions of Great Management

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Meaning of Educational Management:

The origin of the development of educational management as a field of study began in the United States in the early part of the twentieth century. Development in the United Kingdom came as late as the 1960's. Educational management, as the name implies, operates in educational organisations or institutions.

There is no single accepted definition of educational management as its development observed in several disciplines or fields like business, industry, political science, economics, administration and law. So while defining the meaning of the term educational management can be said that, "Educational management is a complex human enterprise in which different resources are brought together and made available to achieve and to accomplish the desire and expected goals or objectives.

It is being mainly a human endeavor should be properly planned without emphasizing the rigid application of mechanical and physical principles. It is fundamentally a social organisation where inter human relationships must play a major role. For success of educational management, there must be adequate freedom and flexibility on the one hand and necessary discipline and decorum on the other hand in the educational institution.

Thus management of education or educational management implies the practical measures for ensuring the system to work for achieving the goals or objectives of an educational institution. So educational management operates in educational organizations or institutions.

There is no single accepted definition of educational management as its development has drawn heavily on several disciplines like economics, sociology and political science. But some specialists in

this area have propounded their views in the form of giving their definitions on educational management which are given below.

Definitions of Educational Management:

School management, as a body of educational doctrine, comprises a number of principles and precepts relating primarily to the technique of classroom procedure and derived largely from the practice of successful teachers. The writers in this field have interpreted these principles and precepts in various ways, usually by reference to larger and more fundamental principles of psychology, sociology and ethics.

"Theory and practice of the organisation and administration of existing educational establishments and systems."

To him management implies an orderly way of thinking. It describes in operational terms what is to be done, how it is to be done and how we know what we have done. Management is a method of operation and good management should result in an orderly integration of education and society.

In the light of above discussion it is clear to visualize that educational management is a comprehensive effort intended to achieve some specific educational objectives. It deals with the educational practices, whereas educational philosophy sets the goals, educational psychology explains the principles, educational administration tells how to achieve educational objectives and principles. It is the dynamic side of education.

It deals with educational institutions – right from the schools and colleges to the secretariat. It is concerned with both human and material resources which are essential. Because the degree of success of the educational management of any educational

programme depends upon the degree of co-ordination and organisation of these resources.

Types of Educational Management

There are four main types of the disciplinary ruling, as well as an identification of physical resource. Each type has its advantages and disadvantages. You can see the list of them below:

1. **Centralized and Decentralized.** Objective advantages of centralized supervision are obvious, because it ensures the unity of action of all entities and objects of management, in particular solving the main strategic problems of education development. It promotes the creation of disciplinary standards, preservation, and strengthening of the sense of cultural community of the entire population of the country. At the same time, such a system enhances authoritarian tendencies in academic control, restricts the initiative of pedagogical workers and local administration, complicates the search for new ways of developing education, imposes excessive monotony of forms and imposes methods of managerial work, ignores or underestimates the peculiarities of regional specificity.

2. **Authoritarian/Autocratic and Democratic.** The transition to autocratic and democratic models of state-public education provides a combination in the process of managing bodies of different origin (state, public, self-government), which facilitates the gradual transition from centralized to

decentralized management, decentralization of controlling processes. Bodies of public self-government, the public within the defined legal field influence the process of education management by the partnership.

What are the Important Functions of Educational Management?

1. Forecasting:

It is a systematic assessment of future conditions by collecting all sorts of information about the present position of the system, its present and expected resources and trying to form a picture in terms of the accepted Philosophy in a particular country to arrive at a fruitful forecast.

2. Decision-making:

Decision-making is a key factor in educational management as here we have to think of generations which will be affected by the policies decided. Having considered various alternative and consequence of each course of action, suitable course of action must be determined. Guess work, arbitrary exercise of authority, ill considered hasty decisions should have no place in educational management. The following points must be borne in mind while deciding that the:

3. Planning:

The plan should be flexible. The very existence of variables and uncertainties make decision-making and planning a necessity. There should be enough scope of change to cater for any unforeseen situations. There are many variables – the priorities may change due to unforeseen circumstances; equipment and grants may not become available as expected; personnel may be posted out or they may proceed on leave; all these variable contributing to the non-implementation of decisions.

4. Organization:

It is the combination of necessary human effort, material equipments in systematic and effective correlation to accomplish the desired results. Under educational administration, we organize:

(a) Ideas and principles into school systems, curricular and co-curricular activities, time schedules, norms of achievement and the like;

(b) Human beings into schools, classes, committees, groups, school staff, the inspecting staff.

(c) Material into buildings, furniture and equipment, libraries, laboratories, workshops, museums and art galleries.

5. Motivation:

Involvement in deciding policies and plans help in motivation. The term motivation aims to make the man to be cheerfully willing to do the job we want him to do. Face to face communication is quite useful if organization members are to be motivated to do their best. Communication, down, up and across is also of great importance to the motivation of organization members.

6. Control:

Effective control is an important element in educational administration. The administrator must constantly check on his terms and his $_0$wn performance vis-a-vis the standards laid down. He needs to take corrective action to the form of adjustments to the physical environment of work, modification and addition of materials and methods or abilities and motivation review of the personnel in terms of their spirits.

7. Cooperation:

It is required of all the elements the persons, material and ideas, knowledge and principles and so to interweave them as to achieve a common objective and a single effect. The

administration should look into the: (a) relations among people, (b) allocation of tasks, and (c) division of labour.

8. Evaluation:

Evaluation is a good way to find out the success or failure of a project. Good measures are required to find out the reasons why it failed or succeeded, which steps in the process were most successful, what should have been done to improve the action and what should be done differently at the next trial.

9. Recording and reporting:

Recording and reporting are essential elements of educational management which is answerable to the parents, the higher authorities, the society etc.

10. Supervision:

The purpose of supervision is to bring about a continuing improvement in the instructional programme. Cox and Langfitt write, "Management executes, directs; supervision advises, stimulates, explains, leads, guides and assists. Both plan, both diagnose, both inspect, but management decides and orders execution, while supervision helps to decide and assist in improving instruction."

Democratic educational management:

Now in the modern era democracy is unanimously regarded and accepted "as the way of life." This is not only applicable in case of a particular nation but also for the entire globe/world. This very statement implies that in every aspect of development the democratic principles, values and ideas must be adhered or accepted. Accordingly in the field of management it must be accepted and implemented.

Being contextual in approach it can be visualized that in the field of education democratic management is highly stressed. In other-words it can be said that democratic educational management is the need of the day for bringing wholesome educational development of every nation. Like other educational managements "authority and control" are also the two basic hallmarks in democratic educational management, which are exercised in decentralized form.

Decentralization refers to the type of management in which control is vested in the agencies or persons ranging from grass-root level to top level. It recognizes the rights of all the agencies or persons who are linked with the educational institution. In this type of educational management 'we feelings' prevail in the educational institution with an environment of mutual trust, accompanied by co-operative planning, group discussion, participation of all the staff members and organization of the programme in a joint-venture.

In this management teachers get proper scope for planning, administering, organizing, directing, coordinating, supervising, controlling and evaluating the assignments entrusted upon them. However like democracy in democratic educational management the following principles are highly stressed.

Principles of Democratic Educational Management:

The principles of democratic educational management are:

a. Principle of sharing responsibility:

In the field of democratic educational management everybody who is more or less involved in the process should take the responsibility to share in the work.

b. Principle of Equality:

As equality is the basic hallmark of democracy. It should be treated and accepted in the field of democratic educational management. So all the personnel who are involved in the process should get equal facilities, rights and opportunities in doing their duty.

c. Principle of Freedom:

In the field of democratic educational management every person should be given freedom to do their duty in their own jurisdiction. This will lead to make the educational management of every educational programme successful in democratic perspective.

d. Principle of Co-operation:

In order to make educational management of any educational programme a successful one a greater cooperation should be ensured among different persons involved in the field of educational management.

4. Creative Educational Management:

The creative management of every educational programme indicates the uniqueness of the head of the educational institution in which the programme is conducted. It means when the educational management of any educational programme is done through utilization of creative talents associated with this from top to bottom in a desirable and acceptable manner.

Lassiez faire Educational Management:

This type of management gives freedom to the functionaries or personnel involving in it. It means for ensuring proper management of educational programme freedom as far as

possible and practicable should be given to everybody and they have to exercise this freedom in a desirable and acceptable manner

What are the qualities of a great manager? Unfortunately, there is no single all-encompassing answer to this question. It all depends on numerous factors; like the type of company concerned, the strategy, goal, context, stakes, team, management…

Simply put, just as there is bound to be the right employee for the right job, there is a right manager for the right company, context and team. Hence, a "good" manager is a fully context-dependent notion.

Quizzes

1) What is the definition of educational management?

2) Write the characteristics of the management.

3) What are the functions of general management?

4) What are the functions of educational management?

Chapter 2   15 Qualities of a Great Manager

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zaeszXWEYZQ

#1 – Having a Vision and Communicating It

One of the qualities of a **great manager** that know how to convey the mission to others, and proposing a clear way of thinking that can orient everybody's work. Having vision is one thing, but it is another altogether to be able to convey it.

After all, it is useless if it can't be clearly understood. And I must emphasize the word *clearly*!

#2 – Being Autonomous and Responsible

A great manager must be able to tackle decisions on his or her own and, most importantly, must be capable of bearing the

responsibility of those choices, be they good or bad. It is also crucial that they prioritize and develop their employees' autonomy, **empowering them** all the while.

Being autonomous means being unafraid of responsibility, being able to take a firm stance on issues even when alone with a given opinion, and accepting the consequences of such a decision.

Let's be honest – being a leader often means having to face difficulties on your own, and that is not a strength given to everyone!

#3 – Knowing How to Be in Command

The person in command should keep an eye on the goal, give directives, make judgment calls, tackle obstacles head-on, manage their emotions, **be a role model for others**, take a firm stance on some issues – often going against the *status quo* – and win the trust of others. Not an easy feat indeed!

Nothing is more harmful to a team than a captain without direction, who is unable to settle conflicts, who refuses to see reality as it is, who can't bear criticism, and who won't answer for his or her actions. It is the perfect recipe for disaster!

#4 – Taking the Right Decisions at the Right Time

For managers, the art of **decision making** is an essential requirement of leadership. The result of the choices made by the manager can be, and often is, the very reason for their success or failure.

It is important to make the best decision possible, but making it at the right moment is key. Doing so too late is as bad as making the wrong decision!

#5 – Showing Managerial Courage

One of the main qualities of a great manager is his or her **managerial courage**. After all, they are people who must face problems, say things as they are, make difficult decisions and be responsible for their actions.

Recognizing things for what they are means saying that which needs to be said at the right time, to the right person, and in the right manner.

Facing problems is essentially equivalent to making sure that one is looking at reality, no matter how harsh it may be, and then sharing it with the team in order to tackle it together.

All in all, managerial courage means knowing how to manage the storm, including the incertitude and ambiguity that comes along with it. A great manager makes more right decisions than wrong ones, even when based on insufficient information, in the least amount of time possible and with few or no precedent solutions on which to base their reasoning!

#6 – Showing Leadership and Inspiring Others

Leadership is the ability to influence and guide a group toward a common goal, while entertaining a relationship of mutual trust. For a manager, this also means being in charge, taking command, having vision, **encouraging employee engagement** and

motivation, all the while obtaining the collaboration of a group with the main objective in mind.

#7 – Having Intellectual Resources

A great manager always wants to evolve, learn and better him- or herself. The more intellectual resources they have, the faster the learning occurs!

Do your managers have a logical style of thinking; the ability to use an ordered and rigorous chain of reasoning or a systematic and deductive way of thought?

Are they able to create and formulate hypotheses, have a 6th sense and call upon their intuition? In a storm of ambiguity, intuition is a most essential tool!

Do they have a global strategic vision in addition to a more operational way of viewing things? Are they able to manipulate abstract concepts that do not directly translate into direct application, like ideas and conceptual notions?

#8 – Having Political Sense

Having political sense is essentially being able to distinguish between "being political" and "having political sense" (and you would be surprised of the amount of people who do not understand this distinction!).

If someone has political sense, they are capable of saying and doing things that are in line with the convictions and customs that are deemed acceptable in a given environment; it is seeking out,

understanding and considering the stakes that are present in the situation one is in.

One of the qualities of a great manager is choosing the proper time and place in order to communicate what needs to be relayed with minimum disruption, all the while reading nonverbal signs and adapting their speech to the situation and audience.

#9– Having Empathy

What a wonderful quality empathy is! And I could talk about its benefits for ages.

Empathy is essentially the art of knowing others, understanding their feelings, perceiving their points of view, feeling a sincere interest for their preoccupations and being able to entertain **harmonious relationships** with a wide variety of individuals.

However, do not confuse empathy with sympathy! Sympathy is the feeling of being touched by someone's hardships and experiencing the need to act in order to abate their suffering.

Empathy, however, has nothing to do with the desire to save others!

#10 – Showing Humility and Vulnerability

"Vulnerability tastes of truth and smells of courage."

Having the courage to be vulnerable as a manager, the courage to be yourself, is the keystone of an inspiring leader.

Humility means being able to recognize your mistakes and downfalls without excuses, to recognize that you are no superhero, putting others at ease, encouraging and respecting different points of view, knowing how **to build on everybody's strengths** and surrounding yourself with people who are often better than yourself.

#11 – Showing Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence encompasses a group of verbal and non-verbal skills that allow an individual to generate, recognize, express, understand and evaluate their own emotions and those of others in a way that orients their thoughts and actions to fulfill requirements and respond to **the pressures of the surrounding environment**.

In order to develop that trait, the first step for a manager is knowing him- or herself! Why? Simply because someone who is deaf to their own feelings forever remains at their mercy. A manager must also learn to govern their own emotions, tailoring them to the flurry of situation that may arise, all the while showing empathy for the feelings of others.

#12 – Surrounding Oneself Well

Success is undoubtedly the reward of teamwork and, in this context, one of the qualities of a great manager is to know how to surround himself with the right companions, judging others accurately and knowing how to create highly productive teams.

He or she must therefore know the recipe to building a **dream team**:

- Knowing the needs of others while being realistic;

- Knowing how to rely on and maximize every individual's strengths;

- Knowing the strength that lies in diversity and complementarity.

#13 – Being Action- and Solution-Oriented

A great manager cannot simply witness events – they must take action, in step with their team!

In today's environment, hesitant organisations are quickly pushed aside by those who dash forward and have managers who act with goals in mind. Those who hesitate generally do so because of perfectionism, procrastination or fear of risk, which in the end only delays the actions that need to be taken quickly and at the proper moment.

#14 – Knowing How to Delegate and Trust Others

A manager can never be great if they want to tackle everything themselves and get all the credit.

Delegation is of utmost importance since it allows the manager to rely on their real added value. In order to delegate in the most optimal way, it is necessary to trust collaborators and share the responsibility, as well as the credit.

#15 – Being Positive, Enthusiastic and Cultivating the Joys of Working in a Group

Who wants to follow a permanently negative manager? (Or even an overly optimistic one!)

Who wants to push their limits if there is no pleasure to withdraw from the experience?

Are your managers capable of **cultivating happiness at work**, as well as the enthusiasm and joy of working as a team?

Of course, the ultimate superhero of management does not exist. (And even if they did – we would not even necessarily want them!)

The most important actions to take is **determining your managers' qualities**, helping them know themselves better, and relying on their strengths in order to help them grow.

<mark>10 Characteristics of an Effective Manager</mark>

Are you a manager looking to make a difference in your workplace? Do you want to be a leader that will positively influence your team? Whether you manage five or fifty employees, being a manager comes with a lot of responsibility.

Here's your guide about how to be a successful and effective manager at your job:

<mark>Leadership</mark>

In order to be an effective manager, you need to be able to lead your employees in an efficient manner. A lot of responsibility comes with being a manager, and being able to lead a team is required.

Experience

If you don't have experience working in a professional environment and leading a team, it will be hard to step up as a manager. A great way to gain experience in a management role is to volunteer, either within your field or with a nonprofit. Ask to help manage and produce events, whether it's raising money for an organization or organizing an event.

Communication

Being able to communicate with your team is required when being an effective manager. This not only means communicating job responsibilities and expectations, it means listening to your team and working with them to produce results within their position.

Knowledge

Experience as a manager is a must but so is knowledge. There are many different degrees offered for managers, including a [bachelor's degree in business](#) or a [master's degree in leadership](#) or project management. You can also get a [certificate in project management](#), entrepreneurship, ethics, or human resource management.

Organization

If you aren't organized in your position, there's a good chance that the employees you manage won't be either. There are many resources online that can inspire you to get organized. You can also buy a personal planner or download an app on your phone that can remind you of meetings, tasks you need to complete every day, etc.

Time Management

Another key factor in being a successful manager is time management. If you're late every day, your employees might think it's acceptable to also be late. Time management is also important when it comes to prioritizing your day, making sure you have time to communicate with your employees, and accomplishing goals throughout the week.

Reliability

A manager that is leading a team has to be reliable. This means being available for your employees, getting things done that you said you would, and supporting your team however needed.

Delegation

If you don't know how to delegate projects and tasks, your role as a manager will be a lot more difficult. Don't be afraid to ask your employees to help complete a task. You might think it's easier to do everything yourself, but this will add more time to your already busy schedule, and you won't be allowing your employees to do what they were hired to do.

Confidence

To be an effective manager, you need to be confident in your abilities, experience, and decisions. This doesn't mean you have to be arrogant or feel that you're better than your employees. But you're in a management role for a reason, so be proud and be an inspiration to your team.

Respect for Employees

If you don't respect your employees, there will definitely be tension in your workplace. Be cognizant of their time and abilities, be able to listen and communicate with them, and be a resource of knowledge and guidance.

What are the qualities needed to be a successful school leader? This is the question I set out to answer in a new book for which I interviewed some of the UK's best headteachers.

It started with a challenge: imagine you are cast adrift on a desert island with a school full of children in desperate need of a great headteacher. What eight qualities would you take with you to run your desert island school?

The challenge, based on the long-running BBC radio programme Desert Island Discs, produced a treasure trove of contributions from school leaders. Their insights, stories and experiences confirmed my belief that, while there might well be a common set of qualities that are crucial for successful leadership, there is also scope for different leadership styles.

Far from being clones enslaved by government diktat or professional orthodoxy, the best headteachers run their schools through conviction and often sheer personality. Even so, they do share some vital leadership qualities. So here are eight to take with you to your own desert island.

1. Vision

It's easy to dismiss the concept of "vision" as vague and woolly, but the best school leaders are visionaries with a clear sense of moral purpose. Successful leaders have "great vision – the ability to formulate and shape the future, rather than be shaped by events", says Richard Harman, headmaster of Uppingham School, Rutland.

2. Courage

Successful school leaders show great determination, with the willpower and patience to see things through. They are willing to take risks and are steadfast in challenging under-performance or poor behaviour. "There's a mental courage that you don't waver from," says Madeleine Vigar, principal of the [Castle Partnership Academy Trust](#) in Haverhill, Suffolk.

3. Passion

"We are there for the children and we mustn't ever forget that," says Llyn Codling, executive headteacher of Portswood, St Mary's and Weston Park primary schools, Southampton. Like Codling, successful school leaders are passionate about teaching and learning and show great commitment to children. They take an active interest in their pupils' work – and that of their staff.

4. Emotional intelligence

Successful school leaders are team-builders. They understand the importance of relationships, empower their staff and pupils and show great empathy. "Get the relationships right – open, trusting, humorous – and much else follows naturally," says [Kingsbridge Community College](#) principal, Roger Pope. "They feel motivated. They want to follow you."

5. Judgment

The best headteachers show great judgment, make the right calls and are wise leaders. Crucially, however, it isn't simply a matter of acting alone. It's about involving the whole school community and taking people forward together.

6. Resilience

The business of headship is full-on and, at times, gruelling. Successful school leaders are optimistic and resilient, remain calm in a crisis and are energetic and positive at all times. "It about really knowing yourself and having personal strategies so you are able to steady yourself in stormy waters," says Catherine Paine, primary head and assistant CEO of REAch2 Academy Trust, Waltham Forest.

7. Persuasion

The best school leaders are confident communicators and storytellers. They are great persuaders and listeners, adept at describing 'the story of their school' to any audience. They are also great motivators. "Getting people to do things and go that extra mile lies at the heart of good leadership," says Kenny Frederick, former headteacher at George Green's School, Tower Hamlets.

8. Curiosity

Successful school leaders are outward-looking and curious. As Teresa Tunnadine, headteacher at the Compton School in Barnet, states: "Headship is about having at least one foot outside of the school looking at what's going on elsewhere and picking up good ideas." They are excellent networkers and great opportunists, always in touch with events.

The Role of the Principal in Schools

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gQLAxe5Occ4

The role of the principal covers many different areas including leadership, teacher evaluation, and student discipline. Being an effective principal is hard work and is also time-consuming. A good principal is balanced within all her roles and works hard to ensure that she is doing what she feels is best for all constituents

involved. Time is a major limiting factor for every principal. A principal must become efficient at practices such as prioritizing, scheduling, and organization.

School Leader

A school principal is a primary leader in a school building. A good leader always leads by example. A principal should be positive, enthusiastic, have his hand in the day-to-day activities of the school, and listen to what his constituents are saying. An effective leader is available to teachers, staff members, parents, students, and community members. He stays calm in difficult situations, thinks before acting, and puts the needs of the school before himself. An effective principal steps up to fill in holes as needed, even if it isn't a part of his daily routine.

Student Discipline Chief

A large part of any school principal's job is to handle student discipline. The first step of having effective student discipline is to ensure that teachers know the expectations. Once they understand how the principal wants them to handle discipline issues, then her job becomes easier. Discipline issues a principal deals with will mostly come from teacher referrals. There are times that this can take a large part of the day.

A good principal will listen to all sides of an issue without jumping to conclusions, collecting as much evidence as she can. Her role in student discipline is much like that of a judge and a jury. A principal decides whether the student is guilty of a disciplinary infraction and what penalty she should enforce. An effective principal always documents discipline issues, makes fair decisions, and informs parents when necessary.

Teacher Evaluator

Most principals also are responsible for evaluating their teachers' performance following district and state guidelines. An [effective school](#) has effective teachers, and [the teacher evaluation process](#) is in place to ensure that the teachers are effective. Evaluations should be fair and well documented, pointing out strengths and weaknesses.

A good principal should spend as much time in classrooms as possible. He should gather information every time he visits a classroom, even if it is just for a few minutes. Doing this allows the evaluator to have a larger collection of evidence of what actually goes on in a classroom than a principal who make few visits. A good evaluator always lets his teachers know what his expectations are and then offers suggestions for improvement if they are not being met.

Developer, Implementer, and Evaluator of School Programs

Developing, implementing, and evaluating the programs within the school is another large part of the role as a principal. A principal should always be looking for ways to improve the student experience at school. Developing effective programs that cover a variety of areas is one way to ensure this. It is acceptable to look at other schools in the area and to implement those programs within the principal's school that have proved to be effective elsewhere.

A principal should evaluate school programs every year and tweak them as necessary. If a reading program has become stale and students are not showing much growth, for example, a principal should review the program and make changes as needed to improve it.

Reviewer of Policies and Procedures

An individual school's governing document is its student handbook. A principal should have his stamp on the handbook. A principal should review, remove, rewrite, or write new policies and procedures every year as needed. Having an [effective student handbook](#) can improve the quality of education students receive. It can also make a principal's job a little easier. The principal's role is to ensure that students, teachers, and parents know what these policies and procedures are and to hold each individual accountable for following them.

Schedule Setter

Creating schedules every year can be a daunting task. It can take some time to get everything to fall into its proper place. There are many different schedules a principal may be required to create including a bell, teacher duty, computer lab, and library schedule. The principal should cross-check each of those schedules to ensure that no one person has a load that is too heavy

With all the scheduling a principal has to do, it is almost impossible to make everyone happy. For example some teachers like their planning period first thing in the morning and others like it at the end of the day. It is probably best to create the schedule without trying to accommodate anyone. Also, a principal should be prepared to make adjustments to schedules once the year begins. She needs to be flexible because there are times that there are conflicts she did not foresee that need to be changed.

Hirer of New Teachers

A vital part of any school administrator's job is to hire teachers and staff who are going to do their job correctly. Hiring the wrong person can cause huge headaches down the line while hiring the right person makes the principal's job easier. The interview

process is extremely important when [hiring a new teacher](#). There are many factors that play into a person being a good candidate, including teaching knowledge, personality, sincerity, and excitement toward the profession.

Once a principal has interviewed candidates, she needs to call references to get a feel for what the people who know them think they would do. After this process, the principal might narrow the choices to the top three or four candidates and ask them to come back for a second interview. This time, she can ask the [assistant principal](#), another teacher, or the superintendent to join in the process to include another person's feedback in the hiring process. Once completing the process, she should rank candidates accordingly and offer to position to the person who is the best fit for the school, always letting the other candidates know that the position has been filled.

Public Relations Point Person

Having good relations with parents and community members can benefit a principal in a variety of areas. If a principal has built trusting relationships with a parent whose child has a discipline issue, it will be easier to deal with the situation. The same holds true for the community. Building relationships with individuals and businesses in the community can benefit the school greatly. Benefits include donations, personal time, and overall positive support for the school.

Delegater

Many leaders by nature have a hard time putting things in others' hands without their direct stamp on it. However, it is vital that a [school principal](#) delegate some duties as necessary. Having trustworthy people around will make this easier. An effective

school principal does not have enough time to do everything that needs to be done by himself. He must rely on other people to assist him and trust that they are going to do the job well.

15 Educational Leadership Skills for New School Administrators to Develop

As a new school administrator, are you wondering what educational leadership skills or traits you should be fine-tuning, learning, and developing? Look no further!

Do you find yourself dreaming of sitting in a school administrator office of your very own instead of the one you currently share with your students?

If so, it may be time to start thinking about moving from the classroom into an educational leadership role as an assistant principal or as a school principal.

Identifying and developing educational leadership skills and effectively incorporating these qualities in your principal resume to target the desired position will be critical to your career transition.

If you are a teacher, you already have a ton of important educational leadership qualities to be a successful school leader.

Transitioning from the classroom to the principal's office can seem like a daunting step to take, but it could be the best decision you ever make.

I understand how scary it can be to move outside your comfort zone of teaching into something new, exciting and challenging like leading a school.

Not every teacher has dreams of becoming a 21st Century school leader in education. Don't get me wrong – a teacher is a leader – but not of the entire school.

Only those who have tended to seek out top leadership positions and leadership roles throughout their lives will have the desire to pursue a leadership role in education. And whether you are happier in the classroom or want to lead a school, either choice will be perfect for your specific situation.

However, if you dream of becoming a school leader, I want to help you!

There are hundreds of educational administration jobs available in the United States, Canada, and Internationally. They include jobs for coordinators, vice-principals, principals, head of schools, business administrators, educational administrators, assistant superintendents, and superintendents. So there are lots of leadership positions available for you to choose from.

Research career trends in education to see what's hot and what aligns with your values, motivators, interests, and skills.

In most cases, a school administrator is required to have teaching experience prior to accepting a job in administration, as well as an administrative license or credential. If you already have these, then you are well on your way to applying for administrative positions, such as school principal or vice principal.

If you have already gained leadership experience in your teaching career by leading a department, mentoring student teachers, serving as the lead teacher, or coordinating professional development or extracurricular activities, you can use this skill base as a foundation for an educational leadership position.

In this post, you will discover 10 tips designed to assist educators who are seeking to be strong administrators and better leaders. Not only will you find these career tips helpful if you are a budding leader, but you can pass them on to seasoned administrators as well – everyone can use a little brushing up on their skills.

These skills will help you to write a resume to transition from teaching to educational leadership. The art of resume writing is to target the resume to the desired job using relevant skills and accomplishments. Plus using keywords that are relevant to the position you are seeking are critical.

1.Demonstrate Teambuilding and Collaboration Skills

As one of the head honchos of the school, you are directly responsible for leading your team of staff and students to succeed. Therefore, it is crucial that you have developed and are able to demonstrate how you are able to unite the school as one and lead in times of crisis or change. Be the first person to take action when something goes wrong.

Make sure that the school population knows they can turn to you right away. Propose new ideas to bring together teachers of different schools of thought, so the school may learn and flourish as a result of this extraordinary collaboration. Most teachers participate in extracurricular activities to become a better team player.

2. Ability to Coordinate with Diverse People

More than likely your particular school is a multicultural melting pot with regard to students and staff alike. It is essential that you

treat all individuals equally, regardless of gender, race, age, creed, socio-economic level, etc.

Put your prejudices behind you and strive to make this a highly inclusive and welcoming learning environment. In addition, you will have to learn to work with a number of different personalities – some will be very easy to get along with, while others may be difficult and frustrating.

Take the time to get to know your staff as individuals, learn what personality type each of them falls into, and figure out how to coordinate with them accordingly.

3. Foster Strong Written and Verbal Communication Skills

Whether you are speaking at an assembly, addressing the school board, or writing grant proposals or your philosophy of administration and leadership, you must be able to communicate your thoughts clearly and concisely. If you find you struggle with either writing or public speaking, it may be a good idea to take night classes or distance learning courses to improve these pertinent skills.

How you represent yourself verbally or in written correspondence will be an indication of how you will be a leader. You want to come off as a strong, knowledgeable, and confident administrator, both in person and on paper.

4. Organize and Encourage Professional Development Seminars and In-services

All staff in your building needs to keep their skills sharpened and their minds alert. An excellent way to achieve this is to bring in guest speakers or coordinate seminars that cater to a broad audience.

Promote topics that are outside-the-box or are addressed less frequently than basic
classroom instruction skills. These may include maintaining a stress-free life, reaching students in an innovative manner, renewing the joy of teaching, and bringing the classroom to life.

Do not make these in-services mandatory; instead, let your employees know that you will be attending and express why it is important that they should participate as well.

5. Remain Up-to-date on Current Educational Administration Trends or Concerns

In the field of education new thoughts, techniques and devices are rising rapidly. It is essential that you stay on top of these issues, understand them, know how to communicate these new ideas to colleagues, and are willing to incorporate as many inspiring inventions as possible.

Not only will this assist you as an individual, but it will also aid in bettering your school and staff, and help your institution rank highly within the district or region. Furthermore, if you think you have a groundbreaking idea, do not hesitate to share it with fellow educators or strive to publish an article in a reputable journal.

6. Promote School Spirit Events

If student and staff morale remains high, so will test scores. By arranging assemblies, fundraisers, and other school-wide events on a regular basis, you will surely attract positive attention and boost school spirit, resulting in greater enrolment rates and a lower rate of teacher turnover.

Fundraisers are a great method for gaining additional income to put toward new computers and technology, sports teams, after-

school clubs, and other [extra-curricular areas](#) that may need some financial help. By asking students and staff to participate, you are truly creating a school community where everyone feels included and valued.

7. Encourage Community Involvement and Promotional Events

If you are a new school administrator, it is of the utmost importance that you make an excellent first impression on the local community. By hosting open houses for the school and promoting community involvement amongst your students and staff, you will be able to foster strong relationships with close neighbors and local businesses.

There may come a time when you need to reach out to these individuals or organizations. If you are already on good terms with them and have established respect for yourself and your school, this should be a relatively easy task.

8. Maintain an Optimistic, Can-do Attitude

Whether you are facing a crisis at the school or the trials of a gloomy economy, make sure that you remain positive and upbeat. If the educational leader is optimistic and promotes an attitude that things will get better, this feeling will be contagious with the other staff.

Enthusiasm is another great asset that you must possess and display to be an effective administrator. Enthusiasm, like positivity, is contagious. If you demonstrate how eager you are about an upcoming school event or learning a new piece of technology application that the school has acquired, it will be much easier to get the rest of the school onboard.

9. Offer Positive Reinforcement to Students and Staff

As mentioned above, positivity can be a great driving force. By offering positive encouragement to students and staff, such as letting them know you are proud of them or rewarding them for a job well done, you will be able to cultivate a happy, productive and success-driven learning environment.

People want to feel good about their jobs and, as the new school administrator, you need to help your staff with this. Like teachers reward their students, you can hold special ceremonies or staff appreciation days to boost staff morale and let individuals know how much you value them.

10. Play an Active Role in IEP Development

Individualized Education Plans/Programs play a crucial role in assisting students with disabilities or delayed skills, and as such, you should want to be a part of IEP planning and development, regardless of the role you currently hold. By speaking with colleagues, parents, and students, you will show that you are truly dedicated to helping all students learn and progress.

Furthermore, you will have some great ideas to lend to make IEP's more effective. Get input from other administrators throughout the district as well – the more minds working together, the more creative the ideas, the better the program.

11. Drive Learning and Success for All

As noted above, it is vital that school leaders are advocates to help each and every child learn, regardless of age, grade level, disabilities, and personal circumstances.

Do as much as you can to build an inclusive and supportive school community, which is dedicated to helping all students reach their full potential – this includes scheduling guest speakers, hiring

specialists, making referrals to the appropriate agencies, locating helpful materials, and talking to parents.

If there are certain disabilities or social issues that you do not fully understand, do some extra research or attend conferences to help gain the necessary information.

12. Parent Relationship Building

Parents play a key role in the success of their children. The same can be said for the success of your school. Family members are a wonderful resource when you need extra help with putting on a fundraiser or school-wide event.

If you would like to increase communication and familiarity with these individuals, you may want to hold parent workshops and attend PTA meetings. Workshops are also an effective way to introduce families to new school policies or innovations that you wish to implement. By developing a strong relationship with parents, you and your staff will be able to discover more about the students and learn how to best accommodate their unique needs.

13. Share Best Practices with Experienced and New School Administrators

As the old adage goes, two heads are better than one. By working with other professionals in the same field, you will be able to hear different perspectives on various topics of interest. If it is not already in place, try to organize a monthly meeting with educators and administrators from across the district.

Hold brainstorming sessions to discuss regional problems and creative solutions. Furthermore, by networking and developing strong, working relationships with like-minded professionals, you will have someone to call on in times of crisis or uncertainty.

Regardless of how high you climb the administrative totem pole, there will always be someone higher than you, whether it is a principal, superintendent, or the school board. Therefore, it is essential that you know what is anticipated of you right from the start; thus leading to few, if any, misunderstandings and complications down the road.

Take the time to read and be able to identify with set school policies and procedures. If your boss is open to suggestions, make them tactfully. This is also an excellent way to forge a healthy relationship with him or her.

15. Retain a Professional Leadership Appearance

Style of dress, personal grooming habits, and overall appearance all say a great deal about a person. If you want to be taken as a serious professional, then you must dress like one. This does not mean that you need to go out and buy suits or blazers worth thousands of dollars; it simply means that you need to look like you fit the part.

Do not break the bank trying to impress. Dress pants (or skirt) and a matching sports coat or blazer are all very fitting for an administrative position. Keep colors and/or prints tasteful. In addition to your clothing, make certain that you keep up with personal grooming – showered, combed and/or styled hair, fresh breath, neat nails, etc.

Wrapping up Educational Leadership Skills for New School Administrators

There are many other qualities to learn and develop if you wish to enter a role in education administration. I will write another blog post on them in the further.

Quizzes

1) Summarize the good qualities of good manager.

2) What are the characteristics of the effective manager?

3) Explain the role of principal in school.

Chapter 3   Problems that face managers in educational management

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xtUs9CAd9co

What are all the common problems faced by teachers in schools?

4. Lack of Support from Schools

· The schools keep conducting tests multiple number of times in the entire year. They come to big conclusions about the students' learning based on just their scores. But that is not the ultimate measure to judge a child's abilities, instead the child should be given adequate learning materials, proper infrastructure and teacher's support.

· The number of students per classroom is so large that it becomes difficult for the teachers to manage everyone. Schools should take measures to shrink the class size.

· The teachers are asked to complete the curriculum on time, doesn't matter if it is not properly understood by the students. School authorities should take regular reports from the teachers about the class performance and make a flexible curriculum accordingly.

· The educational materials provided by the school lacks relevance at times making them inadequate for the true learners. Schools should provide materials which can help the children understand their topics well enough.

1. Integrating curriculum with 21st century learning skills
It may be the 21st Century but many schools have yet to make the shift to the new millennium's styles of teaching and learning. An overloaded curriculum can leave teachers overwhelmed

when trying to develop critical thinking, problem solving skills, curiosity, entrepreneurship and digital analysis.

2. Development and growth in Information Communications Technology (ICT)
The students in our classrooms are true digital natives, spending most of their personal time using digital devices for entertainment and communication purposes. Often, they are more knowledgeable than the adults in their lives of various social media apps, electronic games and multimedia entertainment; and all this from an extraordinarily young age.

<mark>7 big problems–and solutions–in education (continued)</mark>

Today's education system includes ingrained practices, including policy and decades-old methods, that prevent schools from moving to competency-based models.

Solutions to this problem include:

- Creating and making available educational resources on competency-based learning. These resources might be best practices, rubrics or tools, or research.

- Convening a coalition of League of Innovative Schools districts that are working to build successful competency-based models.

- Creating a technical solution for flexible tracking of competencies and credits.

Problem No. 2: Leadership doesn't always support second-order change, and those in potential leadership roles, such as teachers and librarians, aren't always empowered to help effect change.

Solutions to this problem include:

- Promoting League of Innovative Schools efforts to enable second-order change leadership

- Creating a framework, to be used in professional development, that would target and explain second-order change leadership discussions

- Schedule panel discussions about second-order change leadership

Problem No. 3: Communities and cultures are resistant to change, including technology-based change

Solutions to this problem include:

- Identifying new and engaging ways to share cutting-edge and tech-savvy best practices with school and district stakeholders and community members

- Involve business leaders in technology-rich schools and create school-business partnerships

- Look to influential organizations to spearhead national ed-tech awareness campaigns

Problem No. 4: Education budgets aren't always flexible enough to support the cost, sustainability, or scalability of innovations

Solutions to this problem include:

- Build relationships with local businesses and career academies, and create incentives for companies to hire students, in order to create a revenue stream for schools

- Look to competitive pricing and creative solutions

- Leaders must not be afraid to take risks and support the changes needed to bring about this kind of budgeting

Problem No. 5: Professional development in the U.S. is stale and outdated

Solutions to this problem include:

- Identifying best practices from other industries or sectors, and learn more about adult learning

- Create a community for teachers to access immediate help

- Personalize professional development

- Create and strengthen K-12 and higher education partnerships

- Create alternative modes of certification and reward forward-thinking practices

Problem No. 6: School districts do not have evidence-based processes to evaluate, select, and monitor digital content inclusive of aligned formative assessments

Solutions to this problem include:

- Creating a marketplace or database to help educators identify and evaluate, as well as take ownership of, digital content

- Involve students in digital content evaluation

- Identify schools or districts to test digital content evaluation and storage systems

Problem No. 7: Current and traditional instructional methods leave students less engaged and less inclined to take ownership of their learning

Solutions to this problem include:

- Creating working groups, within education organizations, with the aim of advancing authentic student learning

- Leverage the internet to create online tools and resources that offer innovative teaching strategies to help engage students

- Help teachers understand a

- ROBLEMS IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT OF PAKISTAN

- **5.1 problems of curriculum development and suggestions for its improvement**

- Falling education standard is one of the most favorite topics for discussion at our social gatherings. Everyone has his own views and experiences to narrate and ultimately, express the expression of grief and then recall the good old days when everything was at its best.

- It is a known fact that our educational standards are on the decline. We have progressed in quantitative expansion but gone backward qualitatively, in the government policies there are planning and recommendations for the revolutionary steps but the progress in negligible.

- We have innovative ideas but unable to implement any positive change effectively. That is why we could not

achieve the desired goals. We have many leaders in education but most of them are without dedication to work. We have many schools, colleges and universities but they are working only to award certificates and degrees to the students without changing their attitude. The students are just memorizing facts and information from their text material without developing proper concepts to apply in daily life. Teachers are following conventional methods such as the lecture. Textbook recitation and notes dictation. The innovative methods are not followed even in teacher training institutes. The textbooks are also theoretical ignoring the activities. All these and many more are the curriculum related problems. These problems are identified by various policies along appropriate recommendations.

- **5.2 Problems of Curriculum Development Process**

- Look to the various phases or elements of curriculum development process. So many problems can be indicated i.e.

- Problems related to objectives.

- Problems related to content.

- Problems related to methods.

- Problems related to audio-visual aids.

- Problems related to evaluation.

- **Problems Related to Objective**

- The curriculum development is a continuous and dynamic process, having some goals to be achieved through classroom activities.

- The effectiveness of curriculum process depends largely upon the extent to which these goals are achieved. If the objectives are formulated in a clear and behavioral terms, their achievement becomes easy. The objectives formulated for the existing curricula are mostly ambiguous and non behavioral such types of objectives can be considered as invalid. Some of the objectives are too broad to achieve and some of them are not related to the socio economic conditions in the country. There are certain objectives that are not according to the psychological needs of the learners.

- Ø Need some clear Goals to achieve in education system and for that need some good objectives

- Ø Current objectives formulated are mostly ambiguous and non behavioral

- Ø Some of the objectives are too broad

- Ø Socio economic conditions is one of the reason in formulation of good objectives in the country, because to achieve good objectives its need financial support.

- Ø Some objectives are not related to psychological needs of students

- Ø Need of behavioral and non behavioral objectives both in education system

- Ø The objective should be narrow down and specific to the actual need of the society

- Ø Objective should be achievable

. **Problems Related to Content**

- It has already been mentioned that curriculum development is a dynamic process. So it must be flexible enough to be changed from time to time along with the changes occurring in the society. But in our country, researches in curriculum development are very rare which make it static.

- Some of the defects of existing subject matter are as under;

- The content is not selected on the basis of research.

- To content does not help in the achievement of desired goals.

- The content is not suitable to the life situation of the learners.

- There is a lack of horizontal and vertical coordination in various concepts.

- The content does not demand active participation of learners, instead it encourages rote memory.

- Logical sequence (when required) is missing.

- The subject matter does not help in the development of understanding, indicative reasoning and desired creative abilities.

- principle of representative content ignored

- No motivation and interest for students

- Lack of physical and mental activities.

- Lack of Situational analyses

- No teaching methods suggested

Problems Related to Methods

- The problems of curriculum development related to methods of instruction are:

- Methods of instruction are not suggested by the curriculum planners.

- Methods of instruction which are being followed in the classroom do not help in the achievement of desired goals.

- Teachers take last interest in inquiry-based methods.

- Participatory or communicative approaches are not followed in the class.

- Methods are not helping the learners to develop various skills.

- The existing teacher training programmes do not fulfill the requirements of the innovative methods.

- Teachers are reluctant to follow activity-based methods.

- **Problems Related to Audio-visual Aid**

- Lack of sources and resources in educational institutes affects badly the implementation of curriculum development.

- Teachers are not properly trained in preparation and used of low cost material.

- The curriculum planners have not given any guidelines to the teachers to use the local resources as audio-visual aids.

- Charts should be accurate but it always missing the third dimensional attribute and must be viewed from a fixed position

- The aids must be relevant to the concept need to be developed

- the audio-visual should be interesting for the students

- chalk board is the oldest aid of teaching but chalk is a source of pollution and it all depend on teacher hand writing

- power failure (electricity) problem, it sometime damage audio-visual aids

- Hardware problem in electronic AV aids

- Overburden class room, the problem of visibility of small charts to all students

- **Problems Related to Evaluatio**

- Proper evaluation programme is not suggested by the curriculum planners.

- The test items are not related to the objectives of the relevant course.

- Most of the test items are ambiguous.

- Only cognitive aspect is emphasized in evaluation.

- The content validity is very low in existing evaluation system.

- The concept of continuous evaluation in to applied.

Quizzes

1) Write three problems in education and their
   solutions.

2) Show problems related to the methods of teaching.

3) What are the problems related to the objectives of
   education?

4) What are the problems related to the content?

Chapter 4 Planning

Planning

Planning is the process of thinking about and organizing the activities required to achieve a desired goal. Planning involves the creation and maintenance of a given organizational operation. This thought process is essential to the refinement of objectives and their integration with other plans. Planning combines forecasting of developments with preparing scenarios for how to react to those developments. An important, albeit often ignored, aspect of planning is the relationship it holds with forecasting. Forecasting can be described as predicting what the future *will* look like, whereas planning predicts what the future *should* look like.

Research planning: Planning involves the creation and maintenance of a plan.

Planning is also a management process, concerned with defining goals for a company's future direction and determining the missions and resources to achieve those targets. To meet objectives, managers may develop plans, such as a business plan or a marketing plan. The purpose may be achievement of certain goals or targets. Planning revolves largely around identifying the resources available for a given project and utilizing optimally to achieve best scenario outcomes.

Strategic Planning

Strategic planning is an organization's process of defining its strategy or direction and making decisions about allocating its resources to pursue this strategy. To determine the direction of the organization, it is necessary to understand its current position and the possible avenues through which it can pursue a particular course of action. Generally, strategic planning deals with at least one of three key questions:

- What do we do?
- For whom do we do it?
- How do we excel?

The key components of strategic planning include an understanding of the firm's vision, mission, values, and strategies. (Often a "vision statement" and a " mission statement " may encapsulate the vision and mission.)

1. *Vision:* This outlines what the organization wants to be or how it wants the world in which it operates to be (an "idealized" view of the world). It is a long-term view and concentrates on the future. It can be emotive and is a source of inspiration. For example, a charity working with the poor might have a vision statement that reads "A World without Poverty."
2. *Mission:* It defines the fundamental purpose of an organization or an enterprise, succinctly describing why it exists and what it does to achieve its vision. For example, the charity above might have a mission statement as "providing jobs for the homeless and unemployed."
3. *Values:* These are beliefs that are shared among the stakeholders of an organization. Values drive an organization's culture and priorities and provide a framework in which decisions

are made. For example, "knowledge and skills are the keys to success," or "give a man bread and feed him for a day, but teach him to farm and feed him for life." These example values place the priorities of self-sufficiency over shelter.

4. *Strategy:* Strategy, narrowly defined, means "the art of the general"—a combination of the ends (goals) for which the firm is striving and the means (policies) by which it is seeking to get there. A strategy is sometimes called a roadmap, which is the path chosen to move towards the end vision. The most important part of implementing the strategy is ensuring the company is going in

5. the right direction, which is towards the end vision.

Tools and Approaches

There are many approaches to strategic planning, but typically one of the following is used:

- Situation-Target-Proposal: Situation – Evaluate the current situation and how it came about. Target – Define goals and/or objectives (sometimes called ideal state). Path/Proposal – Map a possible route to the goals/objectives.

- Draw-See-Think-Plan: Draw – What is the ideal image or the desired end state? See – What is today's situation? What is the gap from ideal and why? Think – What specific actions must be taken to close the gap between today's situation and the ideal state? Plan – What resources are required to execute the activities?

Among the most useful tools for strategic planning is a SWOT analysis (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats). The main objective of this tool is to analyze internal strategic factors (strengths and weaknesses attributed to the organization) and external factors beyond control of the organization (such as opportunities and threats).

Planning

Planning is the function of management that involves setting objectives and determining a course of action for achieving those objectives. Planning requires that managers be aware of environmental conditions facing their

organization and forecast future conditions. It also requires that managers be good decision makers.

Planning is a process consisting of several steps. The process begins with environmental scanning which simply means that planners must be aware of the critical contingencies facing their organization in terms of economic conditions, their competitors, and their customers. Planners must then attempt to forecast future conditions. These forecasts form the basis for planning.

Planners must establish objectives, which are statements of what needs to be achieved and when. Planners must then identify alternative courses of action for achieving objectives. After evaluating the various alternatives, planners must make decisions about the best courses of action for achieving objectives. They must then formulate necessary steps and ensure effective implementation of plans. Finally, planners must constantly evaluate the success of their plans and take corrective action when necessary.

There are many different types of plans and planning.

Strategic planning involves analyzing competitive opportunities and threats, as well as the strengths and weaknesses of the organization, and then determining how to position the organization to compete effectively in their environment. Strategic planning has a long time frame, often three years or more. Strategic planning generally includes the entire organization and includes formulation of objectives. Strategic planning is often based on the organization's mission, which is its fundamental reason for existence. An organization's top management most often conducts strategic planning.

Tactical planning is intermediate-range (one to three years) planning that is designed to develop relatively concrete and specific means to implement the strategic plan. Middle-level managers often engage in tactical planning.

Operational planning generally assumes the existence of organization-wide or subunit goals and objectives and specifies ways to achieve them. Operational planning is short-range (less than a year) planning that is designed to develop specific action steps that support the strategic and tactical plans

. https://open.lib.umn.edu/principlesmanagement/chapter/1-5-planning-organizing-leading-and-controlling-2/

What is Planning?

Planning is ascertaining prior to what to do and how to do. It is one of the primary managerial duties. Before doing something, the manager must form an opinion on how to work on a specific job. Hence, planning is firmly correlated with discovery and creativity. But the manager

would first have to set goals. Planning is an essential step what managers at all levels take. It needs holding on to the decisions since it includes selecting a choice from alternative ways of performance.

Importance of Planning

Planning is definitely significant as it directs us where to go, it furnishes direction and decreases the danger of risk by making predictions. The significant advantages of planning are provided below:

- **Planning provides directions**: Planning assures that the objectives are certainly asserted so that they serve as a model for determining what action should be taken and in which direction. If objects are well established, employees are informed of what the company has to do and what they need do to accomplish those purposes.
- **Planning decreases the chances of risk**: Planning is an activity which permits a manager to look forward and predict changes. By determining in prior the tasks to be completed, planning notes the way to deal with changes and unpredictable effects.
- **Planning decreases overlapping and wasteful activities**: Planning works as the foundation of organising the activities and purposes of distinct branches, departments, and people. It assists in avoiding chaos and confusion. Since planning guarantees precision in understanding and action, work is conducted on easily without delays.
- **Planning encourages innovative ideas**: Since it is the primary function of management, new approaches can take the form of actual plans. It is the most challenging project for the management as it leads all planned actions pointing to growth and of the business.
- **Planning aids decision making**: It encourages the manager to look into the future and make a decision from amongst several alternative plans of action. The manager has to assess each option and pick the most viable plan.

MEANING OF PLANNING	Planning bridges the gap between where we are (present) and where we want to go (future).
	In simple words, foreseeing the future contingencies and plan for it to accomplish an objective.

IMPORTANCE OF PLANNING	
(1) OVERLAPPING AND WASTEFUL ACTIVITIES	- Through planning, the efforts of various individuals and departments are coordinated properly to eliminate overlapping & wasteful activities. - It ensures clarity in thoughts and actions, work is carried on smoothly without any confusion and misunderstanding. - Useless and wasteful activities are reduced or eliminated. - It is easier to detect inefficiencies and take corrective measures to deal with them.
(2) PROVIDES DIRECTIONS	- By stating in advance how work is to be done, planning provides direction for action. - Planning guarantees that goals and aim are distinctly defined so that they - operate as a pattern for determining what direction should be taken. - Planning makes the goals and objectives clear in the minds of all individuals working in different capacities. - Lack of planning brings chaos and lack of coordination. **Example:** *A car manufacturing company gives targets to employees who decide their direction of work.*
(3) INNOVATIVE IDEAS	- Planning is thinking in advance what to do and how to do it. - New ideas can take the shape of concrete plans and innovation. - Innovation is required to modify the plans for the growth and expansion of the business.

	- **Example:** - *Through innovative products, the companies maintain a competitive edge in the market and it is planning through which it is decided how to innovate.* - *In a company of real estate, there are different departments like Marketing, HR, Sales, and Finance. Each department has assigned targets and jobs. This reduces overlapping of work and wastage of efforts.*
(4) REDUCES THE RISKS OF UNCERTAINTY	- Planning is done for the future and the future is full of uncertainties. - Planning enables a manager to look forward and take appropriate steps to deal with future uncertainties and changes. - Mis-happenings and uncertain events cannot be eliminated completely but their effect on the organisation can be minimised if we plan how to overcome such situations. - **Example:***An organization might ensure its inventory yet an accident can take place and damage its assets. So, the future is uncertain yet we can minimise the risks by proper planning.*
(5) DECISION MAKING	- Through planning, managers compare different alternatives with their benefits and limitations. - Planning helps make rational decisions by choosing the best most profitable alternative which may bring lower cost, adaptable to the organisation and situations. - **Example:** *A group of marketing experts (deciding for best marketing strategy for the product) chalk out different alternatives evaluates these alternatives and finally selects the best alternative.*
(6) SET	- Planning involves the setting of goals and

STANDARDS FOR CONTROLLING	these predetermined goals are accomplished with the help of managerial functions like planning, organising, staffing, directing and controlling. • Planning provides standards against which actual performance is measured. • Without standards, the actual performance of each individual, department, and division cannot be measured. • With the help of standards, deviations in the performance are found and such deviations become the basis of effective planning for future planning. • Planning provides a basis to bring the desired output under controlling function and result of controlling function provides guidelines for effective planning. • **Example:** *A torch manufacturing company decides to manufacture 8000 torches in the month of December. However with the passage of 15 days only 2000 torches were manufactured. So the company decided to revise its standard for production*.

Q.1- "Lack of planning brings chaos and lack of coordination." Identify the statement and choose the correct answer.

a. Planning reduces the risks of uncertainty

b. Planning reduces overlapping and wasteful activities

c. Planning provides directions

d. None of the above

Answer : d**.** None of the above

Q.2- "Planning provides _____ and reducing the risk of uncertainty, planning helps managers in the many other ways."

a. Actions

b. Direction

c. Coordination

d. None of the above

Answer : b. Direction

Q.3-"Without _____, actual performance of each individual, department, and division cannot be measured."

a. Planning

b. Directing

c. Coordination

d. Standards

Answer : a. Planning

5-6 MARKS QUESTIONS

Q.1 WHAT IS PLANNING? HOW DOES IT HELP AN ORGANISATION IN ACHIEVING ITS GOALS?

(OR)

DEFINE 'PLANNING' STATE ANY FOUR POINTS OF IMPORTANCE OF PLANNING. (OUTSIDE DELHI 2014)

(OR)

IN ADDITION TO PROVIDING DIRECTIONS AND REDUCING THE RISK OF UNCERTAINTY PLANNING HELPS MANAGERS IN THE MANY OTHER WAYS.' EXPLAIN ANY FOUR SUCH WAYS. (DELHI COMPTT. 2014)

(OR)

IS PLANNING ACTUALLY WORTH THE HUGE COSTS INVOLVED? EXPLAIN. *(NCERT)*

ANSWER:

(A) MEANING OF	• Planning bridges the gap between where we are (present) and where we want to go

PLANNING	(future). • Planning is deciding in advance what to do, how to do when to do it and by whom it is to be done.

(B) IMPORTANCE OF PLANNING:

(a) REDUCES OVERLAPPING AND WASTEFUL ACTIVITIES	• Through planning, the efforts of various individuals and departments are coordinated properly. • Thus, useless and wasteful activities are reduced or eliminated. • It ensures clarity in thoughts and actions, work is carried on smoothly without any confusion and misunderstanding.
(b) PROVIDES DIRECTION	• By stating in advance how work is to be done, planning provides direction for action. • Planning ensures that goals and objectives are clearly defined so that, they act as a guide for deciding what action should be taken and in which direction.
(c) PROMOTES INNOVATIVE IDEAS	• Planning is deciding in advance what to do and how to do it. • New ideas can take the shape of concrete plans and innovation. • Innovation is required to modify the plans for the growth and expansion of the business. • **Example:***Deciding in advance helps to innovate as a company can foresee what they may be facing in future and accordingly it can bring innovation in their products.*
(d) REDUCES THE RISKS OF UNCERTAINTY	• Planning is done for the future and the future is full of uncertainties. • Planning enables a manager to look forward and take appropriate steps to deal with future uncertainties and changes.

	• Mishappenings and uncertain events cannot be eliminated completely but their effect on the organisation can be minimised with proper planning. • **Example:***An organisation might take every step to prevent an accident; still, it can take place and damage its assets. So, the future is uncertain but we can minimise the risks by proper planning.*
(e) FACILITATES DECISION MAKING	• • Through planning, managers compare different alternatives with their benefits and limitations. • Planning helps to make rational decisions by choosing the best possible alternative. • With correct planning, cost-effective methods can be chosen which can also prove to be the most profitable one. • **Example:** *Marketing experts in a company choose the best marketing strategy out of available alternatives, to promote the product of a company.*
(f) SET STANDARDS FOR CONTROLLING	• Planning involves the setting of goals and whether these predetermined goals are accomplished that is ensured with controlling. • Planning provides standards against which actual performance is measured. • With the help of standards, deviations in the performance are found and corrective actions are taken. • Therefore, planning set standards for controlling. • **Example:***A torch manufacturing company decides to manufacture 8000 torches in the month of December. However, with the passage of 15 days, only 3000 torches were manufactured. Thus, the company took*

	corrective actions and made some changes and arrangements to make the remaining 5000 torches in 15 days.

1 MARK QUESTIONS

Q.1 DEFINE 'PLANNING'. (OUTSIDE DELHI COMPARTMENT 2015)

ANSWER: Planning bridges the gap between where we are (present) and where we want to go (future).

Q.2 PLANNING PROVIDES DIRECTIONS. WHAT IS DIRECTION IN PLANNING?

(OR)

HOW DOES PLANNING PROVIDE DIRECTION? (NCERT)

ANSWER: Planning helps to build a roadmap to achieve the goals of the organisation and directs all activities towards that course of action.

Q.3 PLANNING MAY HAVE DIFFERENT ALTERNATIVES AND THE MANAGERS COMPARE THESE ALTERNATIVES TO ACHIEVE THE BEST FEASIBLE ALTERNATIVE. IDENTIFY WHICH POINT OF IMPORTANCE IS HIGHLIGHTED HERE?

ANSWER: Planning facilitates decision making.

Q.4 WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF SETTING STANDARDS IN THE PROCESS OF PLANNING?

ANSWER: Standards set in the planning process help in the measurement of actual performance and thus, deviations are found and corrected in time

Q.5 DREAMS CAN BE TURNED INTO REALITY ONLY WHEN MANAGERS

THINK IN ADVANCE WHAT TO DO AND HOW TO DO IT. NAME THE FUNCTION OF MANAGEMENT INDICATED BY THE STATEMENT. (DELHI COMPTT. 2014)

ANSWER: Planning.

Q.6 'DECIDING IN ADVANCE WHAT TO DO AND HOW TO DO' IS ONE OF THE BASIC MANAGEMENT FUNCTIONS'. GIVE THE MEANING OF THIS FUNCTION. (OUTSIDE DELHI COMPTT. 2014)

ANSWER: The function of management referred in the above statement is planning which bridges the gap between where we are (present) and where we want to go (future).

Q.7 AT WHICH LEVEL OF MANAGEMENT IS PLANNING FUNCTION PERFORMED?

ANSWER: At all levels of management.

Q.8 WHAT ARE THE MAIN POINTS IN THE DEFINITION OF PLANNING? *(NCERT)*

ANSWER:

(a) What is to be done?
(b) How it is to be done?
(c) Where is it to be done?
(d) When is to be done?
(e) By whom it is to be done?

https://byjus.com/commerce/planning/

Importance of Planning: It's Features, Limitations, Process and Types

Article shared by : Samiksha S <="" div="" style="margin: 0px; padding: 0px; border: 0px; outline: 0px; font-size: 16px; vertical-align: bottom; background: transparent; max-width: 100%;">

Read this article to learn about the importance of planning for an organization: it's features, limitations, process and types!

All organizations whether it is the government, a private business or small businessman require planning. To turn their dreams of increase in sale, earning high profit and getting success in business all businessmen have to think about future; make predictions and achieve target. To decide what to do, how to do and when to do they do planning.

Meaning:

Planning can be defined as "thinking in advance what is to be done, when it is to be done, how it is to be done and by whom it should be done". In simple words we can say, planning bridges the gap between where we are standing today and where we want to reach.

Planning involves setting objectives and deciding in advance the appropriate course of action to achieve these objectives so we can also define planning as setting up of objectives and targets and formulating an action plan to achieve them.

Another important ingredient of planning is time. Plans are always developed for a fixed time period as no business can go on planning endlessly.

Keeping in mind the time dimension we can define planning as "Setting objectives for a given time period, formulating various courses of action to achieve them and then selecting the best possible alternative from the different courses of actions".

Features/Nature/Characteristic of Planning:

1. Planning contributes to Objectives:

Planning starts with the determination of objectives. We cannot think of planning in absence of objective. After setting up of the objectives, planning decides the methods, procedures and steps to be taken for achievement of set objectives. Planners also help and bring changes in the plan if things are not moving in the direction of objectives.

For example, if an organisation has the objective of manufacturing 1500 washing machines and in one month only 80 washing machines are manufactured, then changes are made in the plan to achieve the final objective.

2. Planning is Primary function of management:
Planning is the primary or first function to be performed by every manager. No other function can be executed by the manager without performing planning function because objectives are set up in planning and other functions depend on the objectives only.

For example, in organizing function, managers assign authority and responsibility to the employees and level of authority and responsibility depends upon objectives of the company. Similarly, in staffing the employees are appointed. The number and type of employees again depends on the objectives of the company. So planning always proceeds and remains at no. 1 as compared to other functions.

3. Pervasive:
Planning is required at all levels of the management. It is not a function restricted to top level managers only but planning is done by managers at every level. Formation of major plan and framing of overall policies is the task of top level managers whereas departmental managers form plan for their respective departments. And lower level managers make plans to support the overall objectives and to carry on day to day activities.

4. Planning is futuristic/Forward looking:
Planning always means looking ahead or planning is a futuristic function. Planning is never done for the past. All the managers try to make predictions and assumptions for future and these predictions are made on the basis of past experiences of the manager and with the regular and intelligent scanning of the general environment.

5. Planning is continuous:

Planning is a never ending or continuous process because after making plans also one has to be in touch with the changes in changing environment and in the selection of one best way.

So, after making plans also planners keep making changes in the plans according to the requirement of the company. For example, if the plan is made during the boom period and during its execution there is depression period then planners have to make changes according to the conditions prevailing.

6. Planning involves decision making:

The planning function is needed only when different alternatives are available and we have to select most suitable alternative. We cannot imagine planning in absence of choice because in planning function managers evaluate various alternatives and select the most appropriate. But if there is one alternative available then there is no requirement of planning.

For example, to import the technology if the licence is only with STC (State Trading Co-operation) then companies have no choice but to import the technology through STC only. But if there is 4-5 import agencies included in this task then the planners have to evaluate terms and conditions of all the agencies and select the most suitable from the company's point of view.

7. Planning is a mental exercise:

It is mental exercise. Planning is a mental process which requires higher thinking that is why it is kept separate from operational activities by Taylor. In planning assumptions and predictions regarding future are made by scanning the environment properly. This activity requires higher level of intelligence. Secondly, in planning various alternatives are evaluated and the most suitable is selected which again requires higher level of intelligence. So, it is right to call planning an intellectual process.

Importance/Significance of Planning:

1. Planning provides Direction:

Planning is concerned with predetermined course of action. It provides the directions to the efforts of employees. Planning makes clear what employees have to do, how to do, etc. By stating in advance how work has to be done, planning provides direction for action. Employees know in advance in which direction they have to work. This leads to Unity of Direction also. If there were no planning, employees would be working in different directions and organisation would not be able to achieve its desired goal.

2. Planning Reduces the risk of uncertainties:

Organisations have to face many uncertainties and unexpected situations every day. Planning helps the manager to face the uncertainty because planners try to foresee the future by making some assumptions regarding future keeping in mind their past experiences and scanning of business environments. The plans are made to overcome such uncertainties. The plans also include unexpected risks such as fire or some other calamities in the organisation. The resources are kept aside in the plan to meet such uncertainties.

3. Planning reduces over lapping and wasteful activities:

The organisational plans are made keeping in mind the requirements of all the departments. The departmental plans are derived from main organisational plan. As a result there will be co-ordination in different departments. On the other hand, if the managers, non-managers and all the employees are following course of action according to plan then there will be integration in the activities. Plans ensure clarity of thoughts and action and work can be carried out smoothly.

4. Planning Promotes innovative ideas:

Planning requires high thinking and it is an intellectual process. So, there is a great scope of finding better ideas, better methods and procedures to perform a particular job. Planning process forces managers to think differently and

assume the future conditions. So, it makes the managers innovative and creative.

5. Planning Facilitates Decision Making:

Planning helps the managers to take various decisions. As in planning goals are set in advance and predictions are made for future. These predictions and goals help the manager to take fast decisions.

6. Planning establishes standard for controlling:

Controlling means comparison between planned and actual output and if there is variation between both then find out the reasons for such deviations and taking measures to match the actual output with the planned. But in case there is no planned output then controlling manager will have no base to compare whether the actual output is adequate or not.

For example, if the planned output for a week is 100 units and actual output produced by employee is 80 units then the controlling manager must take measures to bring the 80 unit production upto 100 units but if the planned output, i.e., 100 units is not given by the planners then finding out whether 80 unit production is sufficient or not will be difficult to know. So, the base for comparison in controlling is given by planning function only.

7. Focuses attention on objectives of the company:

Planning function begins with the setting up of the objectives, policies, procedures, methods and rules, etc. which are made in planning to achieve these objectives only. When employees follow the plan they are leading towards the achievement of objectives. Through planning, efforts of all the employees are directed towards the achievement of organisational goals and objectives.

Limitations of Planning:

1. Planning leads to rigidity:

Once plans are made to decide the future course of action the manager may not be in a position to change them. Following predefined plan when

circumstances are changed may not bring positive results for organisation. This kind of rigidity in plan may create difficulty.

2. Planning may not work in dynamic environment:

Business environment is very dynamic as there are continuously changes taking place in economic, political and legal environment. It becomes very difficult to forecast these future changes. Plans may fail if the changes are very frequent.

The environment consists of number of segments and it becomes very difficult for a manager to assess future changes in the environment. For example there may be change in economic policy, change in fashion and trend or change in competitor's policy. A manager cannot foresee these changes accurately and plan may fail if many such changes take place in environment.

3. It reduces creativity:

With the planning the managers of the organisation start working rigidly and they become the blind followers of the plan only. The managers do not take any initiative to make changes in the plan according to the changes prevailing in the business environment. They stop giving suggestions and new ideas to bring improvement in working because the guidelines for working are given in planning only.

4. Planning involves huge Cost:

Planning process involves lot of cost because it is an intellectual process and companies need to hire the professional experts to carry on this process. Along with the salary of these experts the company has to spend lot of time and money to collect accurate facts and figures. So, it is a cost-consuming process. If the benefits of planning are not more than its cost then it should not be carried on.

5. It is a time consuming process:

Planning process is a time-consuming process because it takes long time to evaluate the alternatives and select the best one. Lot of time is needed in

developing planning premises. So, because of this, the action gets delayed. And whenever there is a need for prompt and immediate decision then we have to avoid planning.

6. Planning does not guarantee success:

Sometimes managers have false sense of security that plans have worked successfully in past so these will be working in future also. There is a tendency in managers to rely on pretested plans.

It is not true that if a plan has worked successfully in past, it will bring success in future also as there are so many unknown factors which may lead to failure of plan in future. Planning only provides a base for analysing future. It is not a solution for future course of action.

7. Lack of accuracy:

In planning we are always thinking in advance and planning is concerned with future only and future is always uncertain. In planning many assumptions are made to decide about future course of action. But these assumptions are not 100% accurate and if these assumptions do not hold true in present situation or in future condition then whole planning will fail.

For example, if in the plan it is assumed that there will be 5% inflation rate and in future condition the inflation rate becomes 10% then the whole plan will fail and many adjustments will be required to be made.

External Limitations of Planning:

Sometimes planning fails due to following limitations on which managers have no control.

(i) Natural calamity:

Natural calamities such as flood, earthquake, famine etc. may result in failure of plan.

(ii) Change in competitors' policies:

Sometimes plan may fail due to better policies, product and strategy of competitor which was not expected by manager.

(iii) Change in taste/fashion and trend in the market:

Sometimes plans may fail when the taste/fashion or trend in market goes against the expectation of planners.

(iv) Change in technologies:

The introduction of new technologies may also lead to failure of plans for products using old technology.

(v) Change in government/economic policy:

Managers have no control over government decisions. If government economic or industrial policies are not framed as expected by manager then also plans may fail.

Planning Process:

1. Setting up of the objectives:

In planning function manager begins with setting up of objectives because all the policies, procedures and methods are framed for achieving objectives only. The managers set up very clearly the objectives of the company keeping in mind the goals of the company and the physical and financial resources of the company. Managers prefer to set up goals which can be achieved quickly and in specific limit of time. After setting up the goals, the clearly defined goals are communicated to all the employees.

2. Developing premises:

Premises refer to making assumptions regarding future. Premises are the base on which plans are made. It is a kind of forecast made keeping in view existing plans and any past information about various policies. There should be total agreement on all the assumptions. The assumptions are made on the basis of forecasting. Forecast is the technique of gathering information. Common forecast are made to find out the demand for a product, change in government or competitor policy, tax rate, etc.

3. Listing the various alternatives for achieving the objectives:

After setting up of objectives the managers make a list of alternatives through which the organisation can achieve its objectives as there can be many ways to achieve the objective and managers must know all the ways to reach the objectives.

For example, if the objective is to increase in sale by 10% then the sale can be increased:

(a) By adding more line of products;

(b) By offering discount;

(c) By increasing expenditure on advertisements;

 (d) By increasing the share in the market;

(e) By appointing salesmen for door-to-door sale etc.

So, managers list out all the alternatives.

4. Evaluation of different alternatives:

After making the list of various alternatives along with the assumptions supporting them, the manager starts evaluating each and every alternative and notes down the positive and negative aspects of every alternative. After this the manager starts eliminating the alternatives with more of negative aspect and the one with the maximum positive aspect and with most feasible assumption is selected as best alternative. Alternatives are evaluated in the light of their feasibility.

5. Selecting an alternative:

The best alternative is selected but as such there is no mathematical formula to select the best alternative. Sometimes instead of selecting one alternative, a combination of different alternatives can also be selected. The most ideal plan is most feasible, profitable and with least negative consequences.

After preparing the main plan, the organisation has to make number of small plans to support the main plan. These plans are related to performance of routine jobs in the organisation. These are derived from the major plan. So, they are also known as derivative plans. These plans are must for accomplishing the objective of main plan. The common supportive plans are plans to buy equipment, plan for recruitment and selection of employees, plan to buy raw material, etc.

6. Implement the plan:
The managers prepare or draft the main and supportive plans on paper but there is no use of these plans unless and until these are put in action. For implementing the plans or putting the plans into action, the managers start communicating the plans to all the employees very clearly because the employees actually have to carry on the activities according to specification of plans. After communicating the plan to employees and taking their support the managers start allocating the resources according to the specification of the plans. For example, if the plan is to increase in sale by increasing the expenditure on advertisement, then to put it into action, the managers must allot more funds to advertisement department, select better media, hire advertising agency, etc.

7. Follow-up:
Planning is a continuous process so the manager's job does not get over simply by putting the plan into action. The managers monitor the plan carefully while it is implemented. The monitoring of plan is very important because it helps to verify whether the conditions and predictions assumed in plan are holding true in present situation or not. If these are not coming true then immediately changes are made in the plan.

During follow up many adjustments are made in the plan. For example, if the expenditure planning is done keeping in mind 5% inflation rate but in present situation if the inflation rate rises to 10% then during follow up the managers make changes in the plans according to 10% inflation rate.

Plan:
Plan is a document that outlines how goals are going to be met. It is a specific action proposed to help the organization achieve its objectives. There may be

more than one way and means of reaching a particular goal but with the help of logical plans, objectives of an organization could be easily achieved.

Single Use Plans:

Single use plans are one time use plan. These are designed to achieve a particular goal that once achieved will not reoccur in future. These are made to meet the needs of unique situations. The duration or length of single use plan depends upon the activity or goal for which it is made. It may last one day or it may last for weeks or months if the project for which it is made is long.

Standing Plans:

Standing plans are also known as Repeat Use Plans. These plans focus on situations which occur repeatedly. Standing plans are used over and over again. They are made once but retain their value over a period of years. Although some revisions and updates are made in these plans from time to time.

Types of Plans:

Planning is a pervasive function which means it is not the task of top level managers only but managers working at different levels perform planning function. The plans framed by top level manager may differ from the plans formed by middle and lower level managers. The different types of plans or common plans formed by the managers at different levels are:

Objectives – Rules

Strategy – Programmes

Policies – Methods

Procedures – Budgets

1. Objectives:

Objectives are the ends towards which the activities are directed. They are the end result of every activity. An objective:

(a) Should be related to single activity;

(b) Should be related to result and not to activity to be performed;

(c) It should be measurable or must be measured in quantitative term;

(d) It must have a time limit for achievement of objective;

(e) It must be achievable or feasible.

For example, increase in sale by 10% or decrease in rejections by 2%.

2. Strategy:
A strategy is a comprehensive plan to achieve the organisational objectives. The dimensions of strategy are:

(i) Determining long term objectives.

(ii) Adopting a particular course of action.

(iii) Allocating resources for achieving the objectives.

Strategy formulation is the task of top level people and it is must to scan and understand clearly the business environment before framing the strategy. The common decisions in strategy are whether to introduce a new product or not. If to introduce then how, finding out customer for your products making changes in existing products etc. All the strategic decisions are greatly influenced by the business environment. Strategy defines the future decisions regarding the organisation's direction and scope in the long run.

For example, Choice of advertising media, sales promotion techniques, channels of distribution, etc.

3. Policies:
Policy can be defined as organisation's general response to a particular problem or situation. In simple words, it is the organisation's own way of handling the problems. Policies are made at every level because the managers

at every level need to decide or predetermine the way of handling a situation and policy acts as a guide to take decisions in unexpected situation.

Policy formation always encourages initiatives of employees because employees have to deal with situations and the way of handling the situation is decided in consultation with the employees. Then they will be able to handle the situation in a much better way. For example, a school may have policy of issuing admission form only to students who secured more than 60% marks.

"No credit sale policy", etc. Introduction of new product in the market.

4. Procedures:
Procedures are required steps established in advance to handle future conditions. The sequence of steps to be followed by employees in different situations must be predetermined so that everyone follows same steps.

The procedure can be defined as the exact manner in which an activity has to be accomplished.

For example, the procedure for admission in a particular school can be:

(a) Set up a file for applicants;

(b) Accept the field forms and put them in a file;

(c) Ask for other certificates to verify score or marks of students;

(d) Put those documents also in the file;

(e) Give the file to admission in-charge.

Procedures are made common for all the departments to co-ordinate their activities. So procedures cut across all the departmental lines. For example, the procedure to handle the order by manufacturing department may involve sales department also.

5. Rules:

Rules spell out special actions or non-actions of the employees. There is no discretion allowed in rules, i.e., they must be followed strictly and if rules are not followed then strict actions can be taken against employees who are disobeying the rules. Rules are spelt out to create the environment of discipline in the organisation. For example, there can be rule of no smoking in the organisation. Rules generally guide the general behaviour of the employees and employees cannot make any changes in them.

6. Programmes:

Programmes are the combination of goals, policies, procedures and rules. All these plans together form a program. The programmes are made to get a systematic working in the organisation. The programmes create relation between policies, procedures and goals. The programmes are also prepared at different levels. A primary programme is prepared by the top level and then to support the primary programme supportive programmes of different levels are prepared for smooth function of the company.

For example, construction of shopping mall, Development of new product.

7. Methods:

Methods can be defined as formalized or systematic way of doing routine or repetitive jobs. The managers decide in advance the common way of doing a job. So, that

(a) There is no doubt in the minds of employees;

(b) There can be uniformity in actions of the employees;

(c) These help in applying the techniques of standardization and simplification;

(d) Act as guide for employees.

If the common way of doing the job is not decided in advance then there will be confusion and comparison will not be possible. For example, for the valuation of stock, the organisation must decide in advance what method has

to be adopted (lifo or fifo). So that everyone follows the same method and comparison with the past value of stock can be done, method for calculation of depreciation.

8. Budget:

Budget is the statement of expected result expressed in numerical terms. In budgets the results are always measurable and most of the time these are financial in nature but it does not mean that company prepares only financial budget. Financial budget is also known as profit plan of the company because it includes the expected income and related expenditures with that income and the profit which the company will earn in the coming year.

Along with financial budget capital budget is prepared to find out the expected capital requirement. Operational budget is prepared where instead of finance hourly units are used stating expected hours the employees will be working. Budgets are prepared by managers at every level and lower level managers generally prepare operational budgets.

The most common budget prepared by managers at different levels is cash budget. This budget estimates the expected cash inflow and cash outflow over a period of time. Cash inflow comes from sales and cash outflow is in the form of expenses. Businessmen can find out net cash position by subtracting cash outflow from cash inflow.

For example, Sale budget

Sales in unit = Rs 1, 00,000

Price per unit = Rs 20

Total Sale budget = Rs 2,000,000

Effective School Management and Supervision: Imperative for Quality Education Service Delivery

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Abstract

To provide quality education requires effective management of the human and material resources in the industry. Supervision which is a component of education administration is equally fundamental if the goals of the system will be realized. This paper therefore examines the twin concepts of school management and supervision as the vital factors in providing quality education services. The paper advocated for school administrators to have the required qualification and experience to function optimally. Also, managers of the education industry were advised to attend conferences, seminars and workshops to enhance their skills in school management and supervision among others.

Introduction

Education in all countries of the world is seen as the corner stone of development. It forms the basis for literacy, skills acquisition, technological advancement as well as the ability to harness the natural resources of the environment for development. To be able to actualize this, the school organization must be properly managed.

The School is an organization of complex activities which are carried out by people and are coordinated by different persons. Thus, management is necessary in school to co-ordinate the various activities of the units for goal achievement. Management in school entails working with and through teachers, non teaching staff and pupils or students to get things done effectively. School management has its attention primarily

on the school. It is more concerned with the institution, its goals, policies and execution of these policies. In school management, the primary aim has to do with the improvement of teaching and learning, and all the activities of the school. The functions of management in school are performed by the schools heads (i.e. head teacher/principal) known as the school manager.

A school manager is described as an executive head of his organization. He/she is a coordinator who has to organize activities in such a way that things work smoothly, quickly and effectively. The education manager is described as the individual in a school setting who directs the affairs of the school in such a way as to achieve its primary goals and objectives. He/she is involved in effective planning, organizing, supervision, controlling and evaluation. Therefore, for a school manager to successfully accomplish the set objectives, he has to work with other people within the school system and be able to inspire them to work co-operatively with him so as to achieve the educational objectives.

Sidho (2002) highlighted some principles that can be of help in the achievement of school objectives. These include consistency with the philosophy of education, democratic approach, optimum contribution by all, respect for individualities, due importance to different programmes, and optimistic outlook.

Function of a School Manager

The purpose of school management is to enable members of staff of the school and the students to work together with the head-teacher of the school as a team in order to achieve the desired goals and objectives of the school. The school manager is the person responsible for coordinating the activities of the school, using resources at his disposal in such a way that the school's objectives are achieved. He is essentially an organizer and implementer of plans, policies and programmes meant for specific educational objectives. Jaiyeoba (2003), highlighted some of the functions performed by school the manager (principal) as planning, organizing, coordinating and directing.

Planning: The school manager prepares a plan that will embrace the subjects in the school curriculum, the number of students, the number of classes, the number and qualifications of teachers to teach the various subjects as well as the instructional materials that will be required for effective teaching. He request for personnel ahead of time and ensures that the time-table for instructions is prepared in such a way that clashes are avoided**.**

Organizing: The school manager organizes both the human and material resources. He organizes the work in the school into units with each unit manned by a specialist. He assigns tasks to the administrative staff and also organizes instructional materials that are necessary to enhance student learning.

Coordinating means the tasks of uniting and correlating all activities of the school. The school manager coordinates all activities of the various units within the school. Since the teachers are interdependent, it is the duty of the Principal to coordinate their activities.

Controlling is the means by which the manager sees that things are done according to laid-down rules and regulations. In the school, the manager has to ensure that teachers

perform their duties as required, which can be done through effective supervision, making corrections where necessary.

Directing: The school manger is expected to provide effective leadership. He accomplishes this task by stimulating his staff to perform and guiding them as to what to do. He also guides the performance of the students, by telling them what to do on a daily basis through announcements at school assemblies.

Operational Areas in the School Management

The school manager, in an attempt to carry out the functions earlier discussed, performed a variety of tasks. These tasks or operational areas of management, according to Campbell, Bridges and Nystrand (1977), are grouped into the following six categories:

1. **School–Community Relations**: The school as an organization cannot be divorced from its environment and this is the reason why the school managers have to develop and administer a culture for the participation of parents and the community in school affairs. Time must always be created to receive and interact with parents who visit the school or who are invited to the school. Such parents should be accorded the highest respect. Parents' complaints should be taken seriously and handled with respect and a sense of concern.

2. **Curriculum and Instruction**: This is the core area of the school system i.e. the essence of teaching –learning process. It is therefore crucial that the school managers should pay adequate attention not only to the planning of the curriculum but also to the effectiveness of the delivery of instruction and also, the execution of the instructional programmes. Managers have to create conductive working environment for teaching and learning. This, they can achieve through dynamic leadership, provision of material and instructional resources, provision of co-curricular activities for the students, motivation of staff, innovative instructional methodology and good human relations.

3. **Staff-Personnel**: This implies provision of personnel needed in carrying out programmes of instruction and pupils personnel i.e. (teaching and nonteaching staff). The school manager should provide appropriate stimulation and encouragement to staff members so as to retain them on the job and at the same time get them perform their tasks to the maximum benefits of the organization. It is important for the school manager to provide orientation exercise for newly employed staff, and at the same time, do a proper placement of these staff members so as to provide a source of satisfaction for them and thereby retain them on the job.

4. **Students/Pupils–Personnel**: This involves the services rendered to students that compliment regular classroom instruction such as taking pupils inventory, organizing the pupils provision of social workers and guidance counselors to help the students in both their academic and social lines. There should be accurate data on pupils' enrolment, so that the well being of the pupils would be taken care of. Also counseling services should be provided as they help in minimizing discipline problems in schools. The school managers

apart from the provision of the welfare services, should also encourage co-curricular activities such as recreational activities, participation of students in different clubs such as Boys Scout, farmers' club, JETS club, etc

5. **Physical Facilities**: It consists of the school buildings, school grounds, equipment and other education facilities that are provided in the school which aid the stimulation of teaching-learning process. It is usually assumed that effective learning can occur regardless of the type of school facilities provided. Ill-ventilated classroom cannot support optimum learning and a pleasant school layout produces measures of psychological effects on the learner. The manager must make sure that the buildings are kept safe for the students' use and that they are under good sanitary conditions. Worn-out equipment should be repaired, leaking roofs and chairs should be repaired as well. The whole school should be made attractive so as to boost the morale of the teachers and students in the school.

6. **Finance and Business Management**: It involves making budget for the school, securing revenue from the government or through other sources, managing expenditure, and directing non-teaching personnel. The school manager should prepare the budget, secure revenue for the school and also use the fund at his disposal judiciously. He must also provide a proper accounting system for the money collected in the school.

7. **General Duties**: The school head is expected to summon staff meetings in order to provide a forum for direct communication with both teaching and non-teaching staff. This is important so that the teaching and learning goals could be achieved. The school principal has the responsibility for projecting the image of the school through functions like sporting events, literary and cultural displays by the school etc.

School Management for Quality Education Service Delivery

Education quality is becoming increasingly important for those who are involved in it either directly or indirectly, and for those who use its services. Access to education and quality education are to be regarded as mutually dependent and individual needs and rights. This is primarily achieved by developing creativity, civil and democratic values, as well as by knowledge, ability and skills needed for everyday and professional life. Basic education is not sufficient or complete, and therefore should be considered only as a basis for learning that needs to be used all lifelong. Lifelong learning for all has become one of the pillars of development.

The UNESCO (2012) report highlighted indices of quality education. Some of them are:

i. Quality learners: Are learners healthy, well-nourished and ready to participate and learn, supported in learning by their families and communities?

ii. Quality learning environment: Is the environment healthy, safe and protective and gender sensitive, and provides adequate resources and facilities?

iii.   Quality content: Is the content reflected in relevant curricula and materials for the acquisition of basic skills and knowledge?

iv.   Quality processes: Processes through which trained teachers use childcentered teaching approaches in well-managed classrooms and schools and skill assessment to facilitate learning.

v.   Quality outcomes that encompass knowledge, skills and attitudes, and are linked to national goals for education.

Other Indicators of Quality in Education

The system of indicators of quality in education, as well as quality criteria associated with the indicators, help schools to point out the important areas of their own activities – their own advantages and disadvantages and development opportunities. School quality team can debate about representation and development of particular aspects and search for method for upgrade and meliorate indicator representation in specific school circumstances.

The indicators are grouped into seven areas with specific topics:

1.   Curriculum: Structure of the curriculum (program/goals, tasks, focus on development of functional tasks, focus on students' activities, integration of programs within and between areas).

2.   Achievement (evaluated by external, independent agencies) achievement quality compared with the set goals.

3.   Teaching and Learning: Teachers work, students' work and experience, meeting the needs of the students, monitoring and evaluating the work of students and teachers.

4.   Students' support: Students' personal, social and spiritual growth, progress and achievement monitoring, support in all aspects of learning, progress, students and teachers personal development.

5.   School ethos: School policy, school atmosphere and relations, specific goals of each individual school, orientation towards students', teachers and parents satisfaction.

6.   Resources: School resources, teachers' professional associates, the principal, their education, teacher team work, cooperation, being open to innovation, material resources and premises, efficient human and material resource.

7.   Management: Leadership and quality assurance, approaches to leadership and management.

Some Theories in School Management

To be able to function effectively, the school manger needs to be abreast of some theories in education management. Some of them are high listed below:

a.   Leadership theories
b.   Decision making theories
c.   Communication theories

        d.   Conflict theories
        e.   Motivation theories
        f.   Human Relation theories

Knowledge and utilization of these theories in all areas of management (public/ private schools and companies) will enhance the job performance of the manager. This will eventually lead to realization of organizational goals and objectives.

Supervision

Supervision is an administrative process through which the leader ensures that his subordinates are all contributing towards effective learning process. Hammock and Owing in Nwaogu (1980) stated that supervision attempts to look into the organization of learning programmes, the grouping of pupils, method of evaluating, reporting and determining pupil's progress, the content of the curriculum, the teaching methods, the philosophy and practicing of discipline, the time schedule, place and procedure of staff meetings, procedures used in parents conference, the study and use of the community resources. All these are evaluated and thoroughly discussed in the attempt to improve the learning and growing of the students.

The concept of supervision is one that describes a process that is common to all professions and occupations. No organization can function effectively without it. Supervision is an interaction between at least two persons for the improvement of activity. It is a formative, supportive and developmental process designed to improve and process of guiding encouraging, directing and motivating workers so as to improve their output **Purpose of Supervision**

The purpose of instructional supervision in the school systems according to Nnabuo (1996) are:

        (a)   To develop educational goals;
        (b)   To control and co-ordinate educational activities;
        (c)   To motivate teachers and other staff;
        (d)   To solve problems in educational organization; (e) To develop teaching professionalism; and (f) To evaluate or assess educational outcomes.

In addition, instructional supervision is needed to ensure that each individual teacher within the school system had been performing the duties for which he was scheduled and to improve the effectiveness of teachers so that they could contribute meaningfully to the attainment of the system's goal.

It could be summed up that the purpose of instructional supervision is to improve teaching and learning process for the benefit of the student, teacher and society.

Qualities of a Good Education Manager and Supervisor

Scholars have identified teacher competence to relate to effective planning, management and evaluation. Lowise Back in Nnabuo (1996) finally came up with some characteristics a good school supervisor must possess. These are:

        1.   He/she must adapt at helping young people control themselves and even more adapt at controlling himself;
        2.   Be a good listener and less talker;

3.   Be attuned to the needs of others;
4.   Be a good counsellor;
5.   Know how to be fair and firm;
6.   Lead without appearing to dominate; and
7.   Be able to share the process of planning and directing others.

Similarly, Akinade (1996), Peretomode (2003) in Agih (2013) identified some of the qualities of a good school manager as technical skill, human skill, conceptual skill, emotional stability, ability to motivate others, honesty, commitment to duty, clear vision and goal.

What to Supervise

There are many things to supervise. These include the school programme and resources, assessment of Principals (other head teachers), the teachers, the nonacademic staff, the students/ Pupils, the school plants (facilities and equipment), the school account, the school project and school records. Also, the indicators of quality in education as discussed in the proceeding text are others items to supervise.

Types of Supervision

Jaiyeoba (2006) categorized supervision under two types:

i. Internal supervision   ii.
External supervision

Internal Supervision

As the name implies, this is the type of supervision carried out by the internal supervisor in the school as the principal, headmaster/mistress, their assistant or the heads of departments. It is also referred to as within school supervision.

An example of effective internal supervision is clinical supervision. This is a clinical approach to school supervision. According to Goldhammer and Krajeweski (1969), clinical supervision refers to a close observation, detailed face-to-face interaction between the supervisor and the teacher with the aim of binding the two in an intimate professional relationship. Clinical supervision is often perceived as a model with certain stages or cycle of phases. In 1969, Goldhammer and his colleague, with the basic ideas they got from Morris Cogan, specified a five stages or cycles of supervision. These are:

a.   Pre-observation conference;
b.   Observation;

c.   Analysis and strategy;
d.   Supervision conference; and
e.   Post conference.

External Supervision

This is the type of supervision carried out by people designed by the Ministry of Education to carryout supervision in schools. This used to be known as inspection. They include those who go by the titles, Chief Inspector of Education, Deputy Inspector of Education, Zonal Inspector of Education, etc.

These are Inspectors who are expected, as their primary responsibility, to inspect schools and work directly with teachers to improve the quality of instruction in school.

Types of External Supervision

External supervision can further be divided into four main types namely:

i.   Full   inspection   ii.
Follow-up   inspection   iii.
Partial inspection
iv. Recognition inspection / certification inspection

Full Inspection

In this type of inspection every aspect of the school is supervised. These include the teaching staff, non-teaching staff, subjects taught in the school, the mode of assessment of students, school records, equipment, school plant, overall organization of the school among others.

It is carried out to ascertain the level of school performance in the aspect of curriculum implementation, distribution of duties, school organization and general discipline in school.

Follow-up Inspection

This is the supervision carried out to assess the actions taken on the recommendations and suggestion made in the report on the full inspection. It is embarked upon so as to find out if the actions taken are achieving the desired objectives. This type of supervision helps in encouraging the staff to strive for greater professional efficiency. It also helps in stimulating interest for educational development in the students.

Partial Inspection

In this type of supervision, the supervisory practice is limited in scope. It does not involve every aspect of the school life neither does it involve a team of experts up to the level of full inspection.

Certificate Inspection

It is a form of school inspection intended for individual teacher that needs upgrading for one reason or the other. It is useful for confirmation at the appointment at the end of the teachers' probation period. Here, inspectors are not expected to pose themselves as

faultfinders or mere critics, but as helpers, advisers and inspires in every possible way to attain desired standard in the school

Recognition Inspection

Another type of inspection related to certification inspection is recognition. It is a type of inspection that is usually conducted on a young school which, in practice, has had an advisory visit and is now seeking to gain accreditation as centre for public examinations such as the Senior School Certificate Examination (SSCE) and the National Technical Examination (NTCE).

It is designed to assess the standard as well as the preparedness of any institution seeking accreditation to the examinations conducted by public bodies (for example, WAEC, NABTEB, NECO) with a view to recommending them for approval by such bodies.

Stages of External Supervision

Supervision involves three stages namely:

i. The preparation stage ii. The real supervision
or observation stage iii. The conference stage

The Preparation Stage

This is the period prior to supervision. At this stage, the school or person to be supervised is informed. The type of supervision or person to be supervised is informed. The type of supervision to be carried out is communicated so that adequate preparation can be made. Adequate plans for supervision for successful supervision are made at this stage. The supervisor plans for those aspects of the school that would be supervised.

The Real Supervision or Observation Stage

This is the stage at which the real observation is carried out. The supervisor(s) visit the school/classroom and observe the situation. Those aspects to be supervised as previously planned would be supervised and notes would be taken.

The Conference Stage

This is the last stage. At this stage, meeting is held with those supervised. Findings during observation are discussed at this stage. The schools/teachers are commended where necessary and areas of weaknesses are brought into focus for improvement. Suggestions/recommendations are made for improvement.

Problems of School Management and Supervision

Some of the recurring problems in the management of schools, which are general to almost all the levels of education in the country, are:

i. Inadequate funding ii. Poor infrastructure
iii. Poor teaching/learning facilities iv. Low
morale of staff v. Politics vi. Poor planning
vii.   Implementation   problems   viii.

Inexperience personnel (Supervisors)   ix. Inconsistency in government policies

The Way Out

   a.   The Ministries of Education and Proprietors of schools should ensure that only qualified teachers are employed. Head teachers should have basic qualification in educational administration.
   b.   There should be at least two Vice Principals in every secondary school. These personnel will help the Principal in his/her administrative duties so that more attention is given to supervision.
   c.   Both public and the private schools should think of how to generate more revenue without increasing school fees arbitrarily in order to facilitate the provision of some basic education facilities for learning. This will enhance the functions of the supervisor.
   d.   Principals or supervisors should be sponsored to attend refresher courses in school administration to be abreast with current best practices. Conferences, seminars, workshops, etc. are usually quite helpful.
   e.   School managers and supervisors should focus their functions based on constructive analysis and the reinforcement of successful patterns rather than on the condemnation of unsuccessful patterns. (Most supervisors often indulge in fault finding and negative feedback rather than been corrective).
   f.   School supervisors should not be feared or seen as constituting a threat. (Most teachers still entertain fear at the visit of school inspectors and supervisors).
   g.   Supervisors should try not to be teacher of teachers but rather help teachers to become co-supervisors. This is likely to result in a change of behaviour of the teachers. When this happens, the teachers and supervisors are likely to have common responsibility as colleagues for the improvement of teaching and learning.

Conclusion

   In this discussion, we have examined the twin concepts of school management and supervision, and found that effective school management and supervision are focused on improving the teaching competence and general well being of the school system. This invariably impacts positively on students' achievement and educational development of the society. Without proper school management and supervision, the rationale for effective instructional services in the schools is therefore underscored. Unfortunately, the inadequacies of effective school management and supervisory practice in the country generally have been revealed, given the dearth of qualified personnel and other education facilities to enhance teaching and learning. This therefore makes a strong case for the school supervisory network championed by the head teachers as partners in progress. In doing this, the paper has emphasized clinical supervision and effective administration of schools by the various head teachers, which if properly done will actualize the primary objective of the school- effective teaching and learning.

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CHAPTER 6   DECISION MAKING IN

SCHOOLS

The task of "deciding" pervades the entire administrative organization. . . . A general theory of administration must include principles of organization that will insure correct decision making, just as it must include principles that will insure effective action.

PREVIEW

1. Administrative decision making is a dynamic process that solves some organizational problems and, in the process, often creates others.

2. Decision making is a general pattern of action found in the rational administration of all functional and task areas in organizations.

3. Values are an integral part of decision making.

4. The classical decision-making model uses a strategy of optimizing to maximize the achievement of goals, but the model is an ideal rather than an actual description of practice.

5. Satisficing is a pragmatic decisionmaking strategy that some administrators use to solve the problems of practice.

6. Most administrators probably use an incremental model of deciding; they muddle through.

316

7. An adaptive strategy of deciding unites the rationalism and comprehensiveness of satisficing with the flexibility and utility of the incremental model.

8. Like most complex processes, however, there is no single best way to decide; the best approach is the one that best fits the circumstances: a contingency approach is proposed.

9. Not all organizational decisions are rational; the garbage can model helps explain nonrationaldecision making.

10. Irrationality in decision making is often produced by stress; the JanisMann conflict model describes the pitfalls of defective decision making.

11. Sometimes participation improves the quality of decisions; sometimes it does not. The HoyTarter model suggests when and how to involve subordinates in decision making.

12. One of the dangers of group decision making is group think, shared illusions about the correctness and invulnerability of the group.

13. Groupthink can be avoided by understanding its causes and by appropriately

14. structuring group decision making.

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=3QTmiDt9rIc

Decision making is a major responsibility of all administrators, but until decisions are converted into action they are only good intentions. Deciding is a sine qua non of educational administration because the school, like all formal organizations, is basically a decision-making structure. Our analysis begins with an examination of classical decision making.

THE CLASSICAL MODEL: AN OPTIMIZING STRATEGY

Classical decision theory assumes that decisions should be completely rational; it employs an **optimizing** strategy by seeking the best possible alternative to maximize the achievement of goals and objectives. According to the classical model, the decision-making process is a series of sequential steps:

1. A problem is identified)
2. Goals and objectives are established.
3. *All* the possible alternatives are generated.
4. The consequences of each alternative are consideredft
5. All the alternatives are evaluated in terms of the goals and objectives.
6. The *best* alternative is selected—that is, the one that maximizes the k goals and objectives.
7. Finally, the decision is implemented and evaluated.

The classical model is an ideal (a normative model), rather than'a description of how most decision makers function (a descriptive model). Most scholars, in fact, consider the classical model an unrealistic ideal, if not naive. Decision makers virtually never have access to all the relevant information. Moreover, generating all the possible alternatives and their consequences is impossible. Unfortunately, the model assumes information-processing capacities, rationality, and knowledge that decision makers simply do not possess; consequently, it is not very useful to practicing

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administrators.

THE ADMINISTRATIVE MODEL:
A SATISFICING STRATEGY

Given the severe limitations of the classical model, it should not be surprising that more realistic conceptual approaches to decision making in organizations have evolved. The complexity of most organizational problems and the limited capacity of the human mind make it virtually impossible to use an optimizing strategy on all but the simplest problems. Herbert Simon (1947) was

the first to introduce the administrative model of decision making to provide a more accurate description of the way administrators both do and should make organizational decisions.' The basic approach is satisficing—that is, finding a satisfactory solution rather than the best one. Before analyzing the satisficing strategy in detail, we examine the basic assumptions upon which the model rests.

Some Basic Assumptions

Assumption 1. *Administrative decision making is a dynamic process that solves some organizational problems and creates others.*

Specific decisions that foster the achievement of the organization's purposes frequently interfere with other conditions that are also important. Peter M. Blau and W. Richard Scott (1962: 250-51) explain that the process of

decision making is dialectical: "problems appear, and while the process of solving them tends to give rise to new problems, learning has occurred which influences how the new challenges are met." Thus at best, decision making by thoughtful and skillful executives and their staffs should lead to more rational decisions, but it typically will not result in final decisions. The complex nature of organizations usually precludes that possibility.

Assumption 2. *Complete rationality in decision making is impossible; therefore, administrators seek to satisfice because they have neither the ability nor the cognitive capacity to maximize the decision-making process.*

Effective administration requires rational decision making. Decisions are rational when they are appropriate for accomplishing specific goals, and people typically try to make rational decisions (Tversky, 1969; Payne, Bettman, and Johnson, 1988). Administrative decisions, however, are often extremely complex, and rationality is limited for a number of reasons:

- All the alternatives cannot be considered because there are too many options that do not come to mind 1

- All the probable consequences for each alternative cannot be anticipated because future events are exceedingly difficult to' predict and evaluate.

- Finally, rationality is limited not only by the administrators' information-processing capacities, but also by their unconscious skills, habits, and reflexes as well as their values and conceptions of purpose that may deviate from the organization's vials (Simon, 1947,1991).

Because individuals are not capable of making completely rational decisions on complex matters, they are concerned with the selection and implementation of satisfactory alternatives rather than optimal ones. To use Simon's words, administrators "satisfice" rather than "optimize." Nonetheless, administrators continue to talk about finding the best solutions to problems. What is meant, of course, is the best of the satisfactory alternatives.

319

Administrators look for solutions that are "good enough." They recognize that their perception of the world is a drastically simplified model of the complex interacting forces that constitute the real world. They are content with this oversimplification because they believe that most real-world facts are not important to the particular problem(s) they face and that most significant chains of cause and effect are short and simple. Consequently, they ignore many aspects of reality and make choices using a simplified picture of reality that accounts for only a few of the factors that they consider most relevant and important (Simon, 1947). That is, they limit the scope of the decisions so that rationality can be approached.

Organizations provide members with an environment of goals, objectives, and purposes. This environment narrows and defines the roles, thereby limiting the number of alternatives. According to Simon (1947), rational behavior consists of a means-ends chain. Given certain ends, appropriate means are selected, but once those ends are achieved, they in turn become means for further ends, and so on. After organizational objectives are agreed on, the administrative structure serves as a basis for the means-ends chains. To illustrate, once the ends for organizational members are defined by the directives from a superior, the subordinate's responsibility is primarily to determine the "best" means for attaining those ends. That pattern, along with procedural regulations, narrows the alternatives and establishes **bounded rationality.**

An individual's decision is rational if it is consistent with the values, alternatives, and information that were analyzed in reaching it. An organization's decision is rational if it is consistent with its goals, objectives, and information. Therefore, the organization must be constructed so that a decision that is rational for the individual remains rational for the organization when reassessed from the organizational perspective (Simon, 195M).

Assumption 3. *Decision making is a general pattern of action found in the rational administration of all major tasks and functional areas in organizations.*

In deciding, those with the responsibility generally go through a general pattern of action that includes the following:
- Recognize and define the problem or issue.
- Analyze the difficulties in the situation.
- Establish criteria for a satisfactory solution.
- Develop a strategy for action.
- Initiate a plan of action.
- Evaluate the outcomes.

Although the process is conceptualized as a sequential pattern because each step serves as a logical basis for the next, the process is also cyclical. Thus, decision making may be entered into at any stage. Moreover, the steps are taken again and again in the process of administering organizations. The cyclical evolution of rational, deliberate, purposeful action—beginning with the development of a decision strategy and moving through implementation and appraisal of results—occurs in all types of organizations (Litchfield, 1956).

The structure of the process is the same, for example, in military, industrial, educational, or health services organizations. The universality of rational decision making calls attention to the fact that essentially it is the same regardless of specific context. Educational organizations are different from industrial organizations in a great many important ways. For example, the technologies and the products are quite different, but the decision-making process is not.

The specific tasks of school administration can be described in a number of ways. School administrators are responsible for curriculum and instruction, negotiations, physical facilities, finance and business, pupil personnel, evaluation and supervision, recruitment and selection of employees, and public relations. Regardless of the task, decision making is essential not only in each of these task areas but also in the broader functional areas of administration—policy, resources, and execution (Litchfield, 1956).

A policy is a general statement of objectives that guides organizational actions. The policy function is often termed "policy making" or "policy formulation," but it is substantially more.[2] Policies are not only formulated but also programmed, communicated, monitored, and evaluated. Policy making is a special instance of decision making in which issues revolve around policy matters.

The key resources of administration are people, money, authority, and materials. The rational process of deciding also is the vehicle for resource allocation. In determining the need for personnel, supplies, physical facilities, and monies, the administrator is confronted with difficulties and problems that require both deliberate and reflective choice and implementation—the use of the action cycle of the decision-making process.

Finally, the cycle is used in the execution of administration. In order to allocate and integrate the resources consistent with policy mandates and to accommodate conflicting values and tendencies, the executive attempts to administer the system through a continuous series of the cyclical actions that constitute the decision-making process (Litchfield, 1956).

 Assumption 4. *Values are an integral part of decision making.*

Decisions are not value free. Values and moral choice are critical in systematic and deliberate decision making. When administrators pursue actions that they believe will attain a valued outcome, they are making judgments of value between competing goods or the lesser of evils.[3]But action requires more than good intention. For example, educational administrators often must weigh compassion for students against the judgments of teachers. Teachers may be threatened by students and react strongly to reestablish their authority. In the process, students may be punished for infractions that challenge the teacher's position. Most administrators value the welfare of both teachers and students, and yet administrators often must make decisions that favor one over the other. Judgments of value are inextricably tied to judgments of fact. The same kind of scanning and assessing used by decision makers to consider their options can abet moral choices (Willower, 1991;Willower and Licata, 1997).

Science and rationality, and ethics and practice should not be sharply separated (Dewey, 1938; Evers and Lakomski, 1991; Willower, 1993). One goes through the same process to make an ethical judgment or a rational decision. Whether making ethical judgments or rational decisions, the reflective examination of alternative courses of action and their consequences is necessary. Hence, both moral choice and rational decisions require the formulation of hypotheses concerning probable consequences and outcomes. The practice of administrative decision making is a continuing exercise in both rationality and valuation; it is both a rational and ethical activity. To separate the activities is foolhardy and impossible. Values and rationality are symbiotic not antithetical. The separation of ethics and the reflective methods of science promote ritualism and mechanistic administration. Decision making is about moral choice, and thoughtful moral choice depends on informed explanation and inference (Hoy and Tarter, 1995).

Decision-Making Process: An Action Cycle

The specific sequence of steps in the decision-making process has already been outlined. The action cycle of that process is illustrated in Figure 9.1. Many decision-making action cycles may be occurring simultaneously. One elaborate cycle, regarding fundamental goals and objectives (strategic planning), may be proceeding at the level of the board of education, whereas smaller and related sequential cycles, regarding curriculum and instruction, pupil personnel services, finance and business management, and facilities planning, may be progressing at the district level.

Let us turn to a more detailed analysis of each step in the action cycle.4
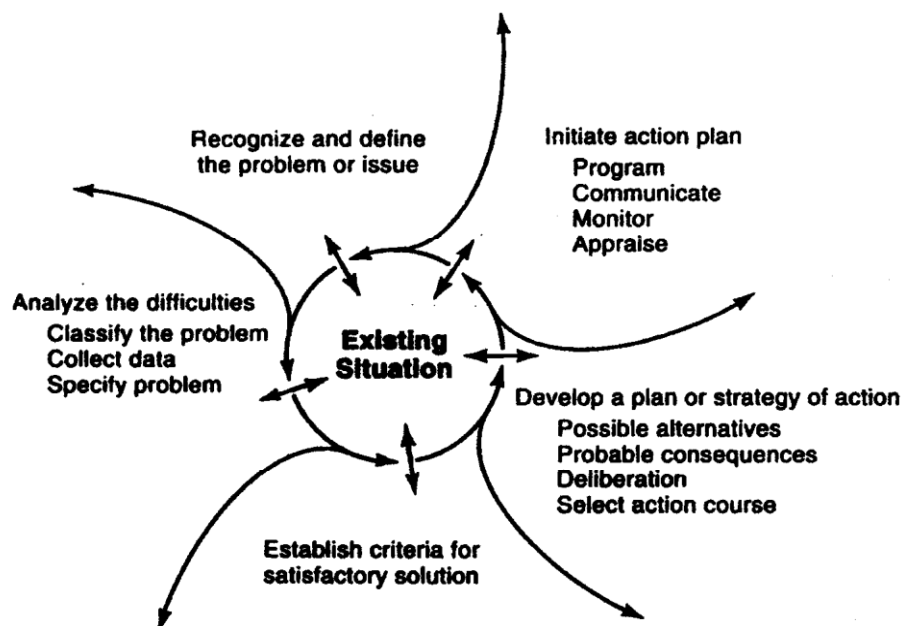
FIGURE 9.1   *Decision-Making Action Cycle*

Step 1. Recognize and Define the Problem or Issue

The recognition of a difficulty or disharmony in the system is the first step in the decision-making process. Effective administrators are sensitive to organizational actions and attitudes that do not measure up to the prescribed standards. The common retort, "We don't have problems; we have answers," is symptomatic of insensitive administrators who are headed for trouble. Although it may be possible for them to maintain equilibrium in the organization over the short run, the likelihood of organizational chaos over the long run seems great.

The recognition and definition of a problem are crucial to deciding and often do not receive adequate attention. The way a problem is conceptualized is important to subsequent analysis and solution. Not only are sensitivity and perceptual acuteness in the administrator necessary, but a rich conceptual background and a thorough understanding of formal and informal organizations are desirable in framing the problem. Too often administrators define problems quickly and narrowly and, in so doing, restrict their options. They treat only the symptoms of the problems, not the problem itself. For example, the response to a request from a teacher group for more autonomy in selecting curricular materials can be seen by a principal as an attempt to undermine administrative authority. The problem so conceived yields a set of alternatives that likely will be unduly narrow and restrictive. Such a teacher request, however, can open up a host of positive, creative possibilities for long-range curriculum development. This example, coincidentally, underscores the importance of security and confidence; the secure and confident administrator is unlikely to view such a teacher request as a threat to his or her authority.

During this first stage in the process, it is important to place the problem in perspective. If the problem is complex, its definition likewise will be complicated, perhaps multidimensional. The problem may need to be broken down into subproblems, with each subproblem cycled through the decision-making process. Furthermore, the problem may require several solutions. For instance, the problem of districting in a school system, where large numbers of parents want their children in school X rather than Y, may be settled in the short run by a policy statement indicating that a child will be assigned to a school solely on the basis of geographic location. The long-run solution, however, might well involve equalizing educational opportunities and improving the program of in-struction in one or more schools. Two guides for defining the problem:

- First, define the immediate problem.
- Then, define the long-term problem.

In deciding, the executive does not necessarily merely react to existing problems. Effective administrators are constantly alert to issues that might become problems. In that way they can adopt a course of action that will prevent problems as well as promote organizational health and growth.

Step 2. Analyze the Difficulties in the Existing Situation

This stage of the decision-making process is directly related to the first stage; in fact, some writers prefer to combine definition and analysis. However,

analysis calls for the classification of the problem. Is the problem unique? Or is it a new manifestation of a typical difficulty for which a pattern of action has already been developed?

Chester I. Barnard (1938) distinguished three kinds of decisions based on where the need for them originates:

- Intermediary decision arise from authoritative communications from superiors that relate to the interpretation, application, or distribution of instruction.
- Appellate decisions grow out of cases referred by subordinates.
- Creative decisions originate in the initiative of the executive concerned.

In contrast, Peter E Drucker (1966) proposed two basic kinds of decisions— generic or unique. **Generic decisions** arise from established principles, policies, or rules. Indeed, recurring problems are routinely solved by formulaic rules and regulations. A great many of the intermediary or appellate decisions that confront school principals (indeed, all middle-level administrators) are generic. That is, the organization has established mechanisms and procedures for dealing with problems. This does not mean, however, that they are unimportant; it simply means that they belong to a general group of organizational problems that frequently occur and that the organization wants to be prepared to deal with. Such decisions are needed when a principal implements policy mandated by the board, monitors absenteeism among teachers, mediates student-teacher conflicts, and interprets disciplinary procedures. All these generic decisions can be intermediary or appellate decisions (originating from above or below the principal in the hierarchy). In all cases the principal should be able to handle the situation by applying the appropriate rule, principle, or policy to the concrete circumstances of the case.

Unique decisions, however, are probably creative decisions that require going beyond established procedures for a solution; in fact, they may revire a modification of the organizational structure. Here the

decision maker deals with an exceptional problem that is not adequately answered by a general principle or rule. Creative decisions quite often change the basic thrust or direction of an organization. In order to seek a creative solution, decision makers explore all ideas that are relevant to the problem.

A unique decision might arise when principal and staff work to resolve a curricular issue where there are no established guidelines. The superintendent may specifically request an innovative solution. Completely unique events are rare; nevertheless, the distinction between problems that are routine and those that are unique is an important one in terms of deciding. Two common mistakes administrators need to guard against are:

- Treating a routine situation as if it were a series of unique events.
- Treating a new event as if it were just another old problem to which old procedures should be applied.

Once the problem has been classified as generic or unique, the administrator is in a position to address a number of other questions. How important is the problem? Can the problem be more fully specified? What information is

Educational Administration

needed to specify the problem? The original definition of a problem is usually global and general. After classifying and determining the importance of the problem, the decision maker begins to define more precisely the problem and issues involved. This entails the need for information. The amount of information that should be collected depends on a number of factors, including the importance of the problem, time constraints, and existing procedures and structure for data collection. The more important the problem, the more information the decision maker gathers. Time, of course, is almost always a constraint. Finally, the existing procedures for data collection may facilitate or prohibit the search for relevant information.

In brief, decision makers need relevant facts. What is involved? Why is it involved? Where is it involved? When? To what extent? Answers to these questions provide information to map the parameters of the problem. Such information can be collected in formal, sophisticated ways, making use of operations research and computer facilities, as well as in informal ways, through personal contacts, by telephone, or in conversations.

Step 3. Establish Criteria for a Satisfactory Solution

After the problem has been analyzed and specified, the decision maker must decide what constitutes an acceptable solution. What are the minimum objectives that are to be achieved? What are the musts

compared to the wants? It is not unusual for the perfect solution in terms of outcomes to be unfeasible. What is good enough? Answers to such questions help the decision maker establish his or her aspiration level. That is, what are the criteria for a satisfactory decision? At this point, sometimes the decision maker will rank possible outcomes along a continuum from minimally satisfying to maximally satisfying; a completely satisfactory outcome usually does not remain after compromise, adaptation, and concession. It is also useful to consider what is satisfactory in both the short and long term.

Criteria of adequacy need to be specified early so that the decision maker knows that a "right" decision is being made and not just one that will be accepted. In general, the criteria used to judge the decision should be consistent with the organization's mission. What we have referred to as criteria of adequacy, scientists often refer to as boundary conditions—the limits that the decision maker must meet if the decision is to be judged satisfactory.

Step 4. Develop a Plan or Strategy of Action

This is the central step in the process. After recognizing the problem, collecting data, and specifying the problem and its boundary conditions, decision makers develop a systematic and reflective plan of action. The process involves at least the following steps:

- Specify alternatives.
- Predict the consequences of each alternative.
- Deliberate.

Select a plan of action.

Before we proceed to analyze each of these steps, several limitations need to be reiterated. Administrators base their plans of action on simplified pictures of reality; they choose the factors that they regard as most relevant and crucial; and thus they are able to come to some general conclusions and take actions without becoming paralyzed by the facts that "could be" indirectly related to the immediate problems. In describing the art of administrative decision making, Barnard (1938) warns:

- Do not decide questions that are not pertinent.
- Do not decide prematurely.
- Do not make decisions that cannot be effective.
- Do not make decisions that others should make.

The search for alternatives to solve a particular organizational problem is called **problemistic** search. It is distinguished from random

curiosity and from the search for understanding per se (Cyert and March, 1963; Bass, 1985b). Problemistic search is straightforward, usually reflecting simplified notions of causality, and based on two simple rules:

- Search in the area of the problem symptom(s). • Search in the area of the current alternative(s).

When these two rules do not produce enough reasonable alternatives, expand the search. Problemistic search probably is the dominant style of administrators; hence, most decision making is reactive.

But deciding need not be reactive. James D. Thompson (1967) has suggested that it is possible to develop behavior-monitoring procedures to search the environment for opportunities that are not activated by a problem. He calls this process **opportunistic** surveillance; it is the organizational counterpart of curiosity in the individual. Obviously, a decision-making structure that encourages opportunistic surveillance is more desirable than one that allows for only problemistic search.

Specifying Alternatives A preliminary step in formulating an intention to act is to list all possible alternatives. In actuality, only some of the options are specified because, as we have noted earlier, people do not have the informationprocessing capacity to think of all alternatives. Nonetheless, advancing a greater number of choices increases the likelihood of finding satisfactory alternatives that meet the already-specified conditions.

Creative decision makers are able to develop unique, viable alternatives, an often time-consuming task. Unfortunately, too many administrators do not take the time to develop a comprehensive set of possible options; they see the solution as a simple dichotomy—it is either this or that. Don't be overly impressed with speed in deciding; it is often a symptom of sloppy thinking. The impact of a solution is much more important than the technique. Educational organizations need sound decisions, not clever techniques.

Time is necessary to develop a comprehensive set of alternatives, yet time is limited. Consider as your first alternative doing nothing. Once in a great while, such an alternative turns out to solve the problem; things work

themselves out. Unfortunately, most problems do not just work themselves out, but the decision not to decide should always be reflectively considered. Even if "doing nothing" does not solve the problem, sometimes it buys time for further thinking and information gathering, that is, it becomes a short-term strategy. In fact, it is useful to consider other temporary alternatives that do not really solve the problem but that provide more time for deliberation. Temporary alternatives, once refined and more completely thought through, are often the basis for more elaborate proposals. The key in developing preliminary and temporary alternatives is that, if successful, they buy time without creating hostility. There is always the danger that options that buy time will be seen as stalling; hence, buying time should be used sparingly and adroitly.

Routine decisions often can be handled quickly and effectively. Unique decisions demand more thoughtful and creative decision making. Creative thinking is of particular value in generating options. To think creatively, individuals must be able to reduce external inhibitions on the thinking process, to make relativistic and nondogmatic distinctions, to be willing not only to consider but also to express irrational impulses, and to be secure and amenable to brainstorming. Of course, the climate and culture (see Chapter 5) of the organization can either inhibit or facilitate creative thinking.

In brief, the development of effective solutions typically requires:

327

- A willingness to make fewer black-and-white distinctions.
- The use of divergent and creative thinking patterns.
- Time to develop as many reasonable alternatives as possible.

Predicting Consequences For each alternative that is developed, probable consequences should be proposed. Although for analytic purposes we have treated specifying alternatives and predicting consequences as separate operations, they usually occur simultaneously. The formulation of alternatives and probable consequences is a good place to use groups—pooling brainpower and experience to make predictions as accurately as possible. By and large, pre-d icting consequences to proposed alternatives is hazardous. On some issues—for example, those involving financial costs—accurate predictions of consequences can be made; however, when trying to anticipate the reactions of individuals or groups, the results typically are much more problematic.

Predicting consequences underscores the need for a good managementinformation system, and those school structures that have built-in capacities to collect, codify, store, and retrieve information have a distinct advantage in the decision-making process. In addition, consulting with a number of individuals who are in a position to know improves one's predictive power. For each decision alternative, the consequences can be predicted only in terms of probable rather than certain outcomes.

Deliberating on And Selecting the Course of Action The final
phase of developing a strategy for action involves a reflective
analysis of the alternatives and consequences. Sometimes it
is helpful to list all the alternatives with their accompanying
probable consequences in a probability-event
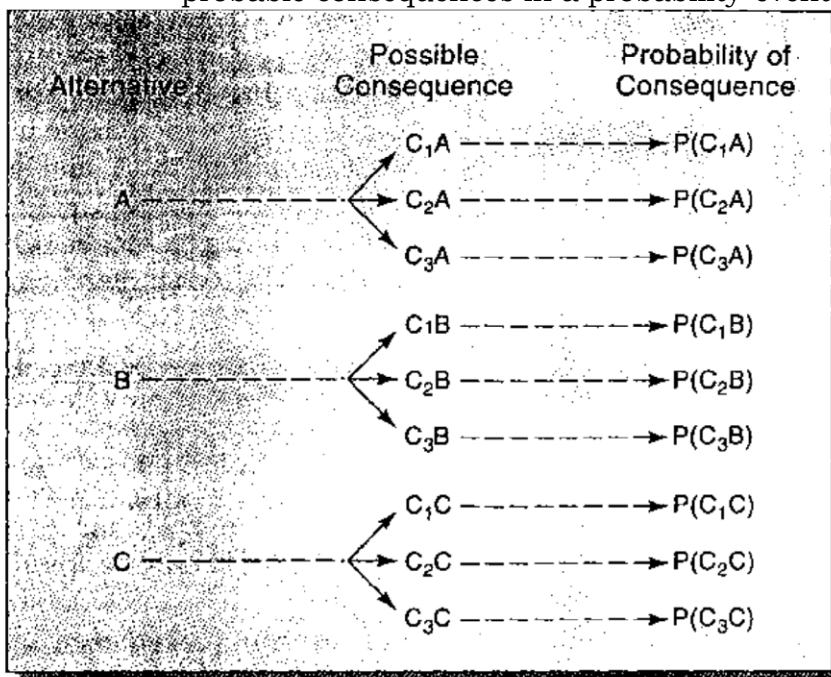
FIGURE 9.2 *Example of Probability Event Chain*

chain (see Figure 9.2). The figure is read as follows: Alternative A
has three possible consequences (C_1A, C_2A, C_3A), and the
probability of each of these consequences occurring is designated
$P(C_1A)$, $P(C_2A)$, $P(C_3A)$. Although this procedure may not be
completed for each problem-solving issue, every option typically has

329

a number of consequences, each with a certain probability that should be considered.

In the deliberation, prior to selecting the appropriate alternatives, decision makers carefully weigh the pzpbable consequences of each alternative in light of the criteria for a satisfactory solution. After such reflection, they

choose the "best" alternative or select a series of alternatives that are linked in some sequential order, which provides a strategy and plan of action; the more problematic the issue, the more likely a complex course of action.

To illustrate the planning of strategy, let us simplify the procedure. It may be possible to set up a strategy several moves in advance, just as a good chess player does. Alternative A may result in a positive and acceptable solution; however, if it does not, the decision maker goes to alternative B and, if need be, to alternative C, and so on, provided the probable consequences are still satisfactory. Of course, unanticipated consequences may require a rethinking of viable alternatives. Occasionally decision makers cannot find an acceptable alternative. A reduction in the aspiration level may be necessary; that is, the criteria for a satisfactory solution are reconsidered (return to step 3). A new set of objectives, new alternatives, new data, and a new and more feasible strategy may have to be formulated.

In the process of searching for satisfactory alternatives, decision makers seek to keep the activity manageable by using simplified decision rules called

heuristics—simple rules of thumb that guide the decision making and enable us to make decisions in a rapid and

efficient manner.[6] For example, rules about when to take a "hit" in blackjack ("hit on 16, stick on 17") or how to play chess (dominate the center of the board) are heuristics. Some heuristics are useful, but others can be misleading (Gigerenzer, Todd, and ABC Research Group, 1999).

The recognition heuristic is the tendency to infer a higher value (e.g., stronger, faster, higher) to that which is familiar. The recognition heuristic for a two-object problem is simply stated:

> If one of two objects is recognized and the other is not, then infer that the recognized object has a higher value (Gigerenzer, Todd, and ABC Research Group, 1999).

For example, "Which city has a larger population: Munich or Dortmund?" The person who has not heard of Dortmund would infer Munich to be larger and would be correct. The recognition heuristic should only be applied when one of the objects is not recognized, but in such cases research demonstrates that the recognition rule of thumb is quite powerful (Gigerenzer, Todd, and ABC Research Group, 1999).

The availability heuristic is the tendency for decision makers to base their judgments on information already available to them (Abelson and Levi, 1985). Although such a strategy is quick and efficient, it is limited by what is known and what first comes to mind. Moreover, this heuristic can cause people to make errors (Tversky and Kahneman, 1974) and to overestimate the frequencies of events. In short, what is available in the decision maker's memory is often inadequate and sometimes misleading.

The representative heuristic is the tendency to view others as the typical stereotype that they represent; for example, an accountant is seen as bright, mild-mannered, and precise (Tversky and Kahneman, 1974: Greenberg and Baron, 1997). The representative heuristic applies to events and objects as well as people—the more Closely an item represents the most typical occurrence, the more likely it will be judged to be that prototype. Even though such quick judgments are incomplete and prone to error, they are quite common in decision making (Tversky and Kahneman, 1974, 1981).

The **anchoring-and-adjustment** heuristic is a mental rule of thumb in which existing information is accepted as a reference point for decision making but is adjusted as new information becomes available (Baron, 1998). For example, a principal may evaluate teacher performance during an observation as satisfactory, but when confronted with new information from the teacher may make an adjustment on the rating. Such a process is more likely if the principal does not have a good basis for judging the quality.

The influence of heuristics on decision making is strong and often occurs unconsciously; in fact, recent evidence suggests that arbitrary numbers can anchor people's judgments even when the numbers are irrelevant to the decision (Wilson, Houston, Etling, and Brekke, 1996). The bad news is that the potential sources of errors of some heuristics are strong; but the good news is that such errors can be reduced by experience and expertise (Frederick and Libby, 1986; Northcraft and Neale, 1987; Smith and Kida, 1991).

Obviously, a large number of factors mediate the choice of a preferred alternative or alternatives. The values of the administrator, the cultural context in which the decision is made and implemented, the perceptions of those involved, the importance of the situation, the pressure on the decision maker, heuristics, and the importance of the goal—all of these and other factors intervene in the selection of a final course of action. Nonetheless, deliberate, rational, and reflective decisions generally result from following a systematic sequence of steps.

Step 5. Initiate the Plan *of Action*

Once the decision has been made and a plan of action formulated, the decision needs to be implemented—the final element in the decision-making cycle. The initiation of the plan of action requires at least four steps: programming, communicating, monitoring, and appraising.

Programming Decisions must be translated and interpreted into specific programs—that is, the mechanics and specific details for implementing the plan must be specified. For example, the plan to change the system of grading elementary school students contains a specific and detailed set of operations that require answers to a number of questions. Who has to have information about the plan? What actions need to be taken and by whom? What preparation is needed so that those who have to take action can do so? The action that is to be programmed must be

333

appropriate to the abilities of the people involved. In brief, the program must be realistic and capable of implementation.

What we call "programming" others have called "program planning"— the activity designed to implement decisions. Program planning can be accomplished through a wide range of specific methods and techniques. Which ones are used depends on the sophistication and capabilities of the school organization. Programming may include budgeting, setting behavioral objectives, using network-based management techniques, and specifying other ways of translating a decision into specific programs for allocating authority and human resources.

Communicating Once the plan has been programmed, it is necessary that each involved individual become aware of his or her responsibilities. Channels of communication among the individuals as well as opportunities for communicating both horizontally and vertically must be given careful attention. For a program to be successful, individuals need to know clearly not only what their own roles are, but also the roles of others as they relate to the total plan. Otherwise, efforts may be duplicated, counterproductive, or ineffective. The communication system developed to implement the plan in large part can and should be a crucial mechanism to initiate action and to enhance coordination of the program. Communicating is discussed in detail in Chapter 10.

Monitoring The process of overseeing the implementation of the plan of action is monitoring. Evaluation and reporting must be built into the action

cycle to provide continuous assessment of actual outcomes as compared to expected ones. Monitoring is a control process using systematic feedback. Standards of performance, once they are set, need to be enforced. Enforcement does not necessarily mean coercive control. There are many techniques of control such as rewards and incentives, persuasion, and identification with organizational goals. Different modes of control and enforcement are more or less effective depending on the situation and the individuals involved. Continuous feedback is necessary to evaluate the progress of implementing the plan of action.

Appraising Once the decision has been programmed, communicated, and monitored, the outcomes still need to be appraised to determine how successful the decision has been. Has the decision been a satisfactory one? What new issues or problems have arisen? Decisions commonly are made in situations where probabilities, not certainties, are weighed. Even the most carefully conceived and executed decisions can fail or become obsolete. Organizational decisions are made in a context of change—facts, values, and circumstances change. Therefore, a fully articulated decision—one that has been reflectively made, programmed, communicated, and monitored—in itself brings about sufficient change to necessitate its own further reevaluation

and appraisal (Litchfield, 1956). Hence, the appraisal stage is both an end and a new beginning in the action cycle of decision making. Clearly, there are no ultimate solutions—only satisfactory decisions and solutions for the moment.

PARTICIPATION IN DECISION MAKING

In 1948 Lester Coch and John R. P. French conducted a classic study on the effects of participation in decision making, using a series of field experiments at the Harwood Manufacturing Corporation. The results were clear and con-

clusive: employee participation in decision making improved productivity. Other studies also have supported the desirability and influence of participation in decision making, both in business and in educational organizations.[9] The following generalizations summarize much of the research and theoretical literature on teacher participation in decision making.

- The opportunity to share in formulating policies is an important factor in the morale of teachers and in their enthusiasm for the school.

- Participation in decision making is positively related to the individual teacher's satisfaction with the profession of teaching.

- Teachers prefer principals who involve them in decision making.

- Decisions fail because of poor quality or because they are not accepted by subordinates.
- Teachers neither expect nor want to be involved in every decision; in fact, too much involvement can be as detrimental as too little.
- The roles and functions of both teachers and administrators in decision making need to be varied according to the nature of the problem.

Should teachers be involved in decision making and policy formulation? Wrong question! Sometimes they should. Other times they should not. Involvement can produce either positive or negative consequences. The appropriate questions are: Under what conditions should subordinates be involved in decision making? To what extent? How?

There are a number of models of shared decision making that are useful in answering these questions. The most well-known model is one originally developed by Victor Vroom and Phillip Yetton (1973) and refined by Vroom and Jago (1988). The Vroom-Jago model matches participation in decision making with the nature of the problem and situation. From the extant research, a set of eight rules is developed to improve the quality and acceptance of a decision. In addition, the constraints of time and development are formulated as two additional rules. In brief, these 10 rules provide a complicated model of participation that requires the use of a complex set of decision trees or a computer (Vroom and Jago, 1988). The model has its limitations for practice, in that it is initially difficult to learn and then challenging to apply; nonetheless, students of administration would be well

advised to examine the formulation in some depth (Vroom and Jago, 1988; Hoy and Tarter, 1995). We focus our attention on a simplified model of shared decision making developed by Hoy and Tarter (1992, 1993a, 1993b, 1995).

Trust and Situations

One more consideration is useful if we are to be successful in applying the model to actual problems. Trust of subordinates should sometimes moderate their degree of involvement.[10] When subordinates' personal goals conflict with organizational ones, it is ill-advised to delegate decisions to them because of the high risk that decisions will be made on personal bases at the expense of the overall welfare of the school.[11] Thus subordinate trust is important, and to gauge trust, we propose a final test.

> • *The test of trust:* Are subordinates committed to the mission of the organization? And can they be trusted to make decisions in the best interests of the organization?

If the decision is outside the zone of acceptance and if subordinates can be trusted to make decisions in the best interest of the organization, then participation should be extensive. We call this a *democratic situation* because the only issue is whether the decision should be made by consensus or majority rule. But if the decision is outside the zone and there is little trust in the subordinate, then we have a *conflictual situation* and participation should be restricted. To

338

do otherwise invites moving in directions inconsistent with the overall welfare of the organization.

If the decision issue is not relevant to subordinates and they have no expertise, however, then the decision clearly falls within their zone of acceptance and involvement should be avoided; this is a *noncollaborative situation.* Indeed, participation in such cases will likely produce resentment because subordinates typically are not interested.

When subordinates have a personal stake in the issue but little expertise, we have a *stakeholder situation* and subordinate participation should be limited and only occasional. To do otherwise courts trouble. If subordinates have nothing substantive to contribute, the decision ultimately will be made by those with the expertise (not subordinates), and a sense of frustration and hostility may be generated. Subordinates, in fact, may perceive the experience as an empty exercise in which the decisions have "already been made." Daniel L. Duke, Beverly K. Showers, and Michael Imber (1980) conclude from their research that shared decision making is often viewed by teachers as a formality or attempt to create the illusion of teacher influence. On the other hand, occasionally it may be useful to involve teachers in a limited way. When involvement is sought under these circumstances, it must be done skillfully. Its major objectives should be to open communication with subordinates, to educate them, and to gain support for the decision.

Finally, when there is an *expert situation—when* subordinates have no personal stake in the outcomes but do have the knowledge to make a useful contribution. Should subordinates be involved? Only occasionally! To involve them indiscriminately in decisions of this type is to increase the likelihood of alienation. Although involvement under these circumstances increases the administrator's chances of reaching a higher-quality decision, subordinates too often are likely to wonder aloud "what the administrator gets paid for." These decision situations and appropriate responses are summarized in Figure 9.4.

Decision-Making Structures

Once the administrator has determined that subordinates should be involved in deciding, the next question becomes how the process should proceed. Hoy and Tarter (1995) suggest five decision-making structures:

1. *Group consensus:* The administrator involves participants in the decision making, then the group decides. All group members share equally as they generate and evaluate a decision, but total consensus is required before a decision can be made.

2. *Group majority:* The administrator involves participants in the decision making, then the group decides by majority rule.

3. *Group advisory:* The administrator solicits the opinions of the entire group, discusses the implications of group

suggestions, then makes a decision that may or may not reflect subordinates' desires.

4. *Individual advisory:* The administrator consults with subordinates individually who have expertise to inform the decision, then makes a decision that may or may not reflect their opinions.

5. *Unilateral decision:* The administrator makes the decision without consulting or involving subordinates in the decision.

Decision making is a complex process. Ideas and theories are drawn from such diverse disciplines as cognitive science, economics, political science, psychology, and sociology. Several supplementary books are useful to beginning students. James G. March (1994) provides a primer on decision making; his book is concerned with how decisions actually happen rather they how they should; his ideas are simple and straightforward. AmitaiEtzioni (1988) reminds us of the moral dimension of decision making and the centrality of moral issues in economic thought. Two edited selections are worth perusing: Mary Zey's (1992) collection pursues alternatives to the rational-choice models, and the March (1988) selections examine decision making under ambiguity. For those students who want a sophisticated treatment of participation in decision making, Victor Vroom and Arthur Jago(1988) provide an excellent and comprehensive model. Hoy and Tarter (1995) use case studies to link decision theory to problems of practice; they demonstrate the utility of good theory in solving actual administrative problems in schools. Finally, Willower and Licata (1997) discuss values and valuation in educational decision making and demonstrate the use of "consequence analysis" to solve the problems of practice.

NOTES

1. Research suggests that many administrators ignore normative methods prescribed by scholars for effective decision making and persist in questionable decision tactics. See Nutt (1984).

2. What has been termed policy making in the public sector is often discussed as strategic formulation in the private sector; for example, see Henry Mintzberg (1978) and Johannes Pennings (1985).

3. For an excellent discussion and application of values and valuation in the practice of educational administration, see Willower and Licata (1997).

4. Iterations of this cycle occur frequently in the organizational literature. For example, see Griffiths (1959) and Daft (1989).

5. The problem is much more complex, however, if it also involves the integration of minority students into segregated schools.

6. A critical and interesting analysis of heuristics is made by a group of cognitive psychologists called the *prospect school*. Their main thesis is that individuals cope with their limited cognitive abilities by using heuristic devices to solve complex problems. Although the heuristics help, they themselves sometimes introduce systematic biases that may subvert decision making. For example, see Nisbett and Ross (1980) and Kahneman, Solvic, and Tversky (1982).

7. Etzioni (1967) reports that 50 articles and Ph.D. dissertations have been written on mixed scanning since his original article. For his synthesis, see Etzioni (1986).

8. This section draws heavily on the work of Janis (1985) and Janis and Mann (1977).

9. For studies that support the desirability of participation in decision making, see Sharma, 1955; Guest, 1960; Vroom, 1960, 1976; Belasco and Allutto, 1972; Allutto and Belasco, 1973; Conway, 1976; Hoy, Newland, and Blazovsky, 1977; Driscoll, 1978; Mohrman, Cooke, and Mohrman, 1978; Moon, 1983. For a comprehensive and somewhat critical review of participation in decision making, see Locke and Schweiger (1979). Likewise, for a review of participative decision making in education, see Conway (1984). The effects of subordinate participation in decision making, however, are neither simple nor unambiguous; for example see Imber, 1983; Conway, 1984; Imber and Duke, 1984; Vroom and Jago, 1988; Conley, Bower, and Bacharach, 1989; Bacharach, Bamberger, Conley, and Bauer, 1990; Conley, 1990.

10. In earlier versions of this model, this third test was called commitment; we believe trust is a better word to capture the meaning of the test.

11. For a useful distinction between shared decision making and delegation of decision making, see Hoy and Sousa (1984), and for a critical analysis on participation in schools, see Keith (1996).

12. Hoy and Tarter (1995) illustrate the application of decision theory to practice with actual contemporary cases and then provide 30 new cases

from educational settings for consideration. The anonymous letter was written by Hoy and Tarter for this chapter. From Hoy and Tarter Administrators Solving the Problems of Practice. Copyright 1995 by Allyn & Bacon. Adapted by permission.

KEY CONCEPTS AND IDEAS

Adaptive strategy
Administrative model
Anchoring-and-

   adjustment heuristic
Availability heuristic
Boundary conditions
Bounded rationality
Classical model
Defensive avoidance
Garbage can model
Generic decisions

Groupthink syndrome
Heuristics
Hypervigilance
Incremental model
Mixed-scanning model
Muddling through
Opportunistic

   surveillance

Optimizing
Policy
Problemistic search

Recognition Heuristic
  Representative
  heuristic
Satisficing
Unconflicted
adherence
Unconflicted change
Unique decisions
Vigilance

Zone of acceptance
Zone of indifference

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346

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Table of Contents

How to Get Wet without Plunging In: Creative Ways to Start Class

By Patty Kohler-Evans

Starting a lecture can be challenging: getting everyone seated, attentive, and ready to move forward with the content can take several minutes. I have found that sometimes it feels abrupt and disjointed, especially when it has been a week since the last class meeting, so I've been working on strategies that help me get a class going without wasting time and that get all the students engaged and ready to learn. I now begin each lesson with a creative review of the last week's materials. The reviews involve a variety of techniques for getting students to reflect on previous content and ready to move on to new information. They also help with building relationships, a critical component of teacher-student interactions. Here are some of the strategies that I think work best to accomplish these goals.

Who's Your Partner?

Using sticky-back name tags, I put three or four names that go together on the tags. Some examples are John, Paul, Ringo, and George, or Bill, Chelsea, and Hillary. I then randomly put the name tags on the backs of students. The students are allowed to find their partners by asking only yes and no questions. When they find the rest of their group, I have them work on a short review assignment. This can be a list of questions from the previous week's content or a reflection or anything that requires that they work together. The process of finding the rest of the group takes only a few minutes and gets students active and focused.

Piece the Puzzle

For this activity I break the content from the last lecture into four or five sections. Then I take key points from each section and make them into jigsaw puzzles, one puzzle for each

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section, with five or six pieces per puzzle. I jumble the pieces and give a set of puzzles to each group of students. I generally make each set of puzzles on a different color of paper and put the jumbled pieces in a Ziploc bag. Each group completes all the puzzles. This requires them to categorize previously learned information. I like to engage in competition for prizes from the local dollar store. The first table to complete all the puzzles correctly wins the prize. Another variation is to give each student a piece of a puzzle and have the student locate the other four or five students who have pieces to the same puzzle—I don't make the puzzles different colors in this case.

Roundtable Review

With this activity, I have students get out a sheet of paper and write a list of numbers from one to ten. Then I instruct them to put one important idea from the previous lecture on the first line. The paper is passed to the person on the left. Each time the paper is passed, the person receiving the paper writes a different idea. After a few minutes I call time, and the papers go back to the original owner. This represents a collection of ideas for future review and study.

I have found that the preparation for these activities takes very little time and that the results are very worthwhile. My students anticipate the activities, and I look forward to having the students in a place where they are ready to learn. 🍃

Making a Syllabus More Than a Contract

By Roxanne Cullen

For years I've introduced my course syllabus by saying, "This is your contract for the course." And all too often the document read more like a contract than a true representation of my conceptualization of the course. So I revised my introductory composition course syllabus in an attempt to create a more learner-centered academic experience. Although these elements have been at the core of my teaching, my syllabus did not necessarily make them explicit or clearly articulate their function to the students. Based on advice I found in several resources regarding the syllabus, I came to see that a teacher needs to consider the ways a syllabus can be useful to students. My goal was to make my syllabus more than the standard contract between my students and me. I wanted it to become a tool for learning.

I began by analyzing my syllabus using a rubric that I developed with a colleague based upon principles of learner-centered pedagogy. The original design of the rubric was as a tool for administrators to determine the degree of learner-centeredness in a department or unit based upon a review of course syllabi. The rubric has three main categories, each with several subcategories. The main category, **Community**, includes subcategories that relate to the accessibility of the teacher, the presence of learning rationale, and evidence of collaboration. In the category **Power and Control**, the subcategories focus on teacher and student roles; use of

outside resources, and the general focus of the syllabus: Does it focus on policies and procedures or is it weighted toward student learning outcomes? Is there opportunity for negotiation of policies, procedures, assignment choice, etc.? In the category **Evaluation and Assessment**, the subcategories examine the use of grades, the feedback mechanisms employed, types of evaluation, learning outcomes, and opportunities for revising or redoing assignments.

A review of my syllabus inspired me to revise. I made several changes to emphasize the concept of community. Although I have always provided rationales for assignments when I talked about them in class, I added a rationale statement for assignments in the syllabus. I also provided rationales for all policies and procedures so that they would look less like arbitrary laws set down by the teacher and more as though they served enhanced learning. I also incorporated more teamwork and collaborative projects, again with a rationale tied to learning outcomes. Finally, I made an effort throughout to disclose information about myself, mostly in regard to my experience as a composition teacher and a writer.

The most significant change I made was in the area of power and control. Instead of establishing an attendance policy, class participation rules, or penalties for late work, I indicated that all of these would be negotiated by the class. Because the course is populated by first-semester students,

I was reluctant to share much more power than that.

My former one-page syllabus was now 10 pages and included a short philosophical statement on learning to write along with writing- and learning-related justifications for every policy and procedure. In an effort to make the syllabus a working part of the course in which students discovered for themselves what they needed to know about the course, I had them write their first essay on the syllabus. I asked them to consider things like their expectations of the class, what they thought my expectations were, what they thought they knew about me, and what their roles and responsibilities included.

I was actually eager to read the essays. In some respects, I felt that my work was being evaluated by them, which provided an interesting twist on power and control. Their essays became another feedback mechanism for me. Equally if not more interesting was the conversation among the students as they prepared to write. I use WebCT, so I suggested to students that they use the discussion board tool as a prewriting strategy. The discussion was lively and, I believe, productive. Even students who had been reluctant to participate in class discussions about the syllabus weighed in online with great authority regarding their interpretation of it.

My syllabus is still a work in progress. Most important, at this point, is the tone my new syllabus has set for the semester. Making the first essay a response to the syllabus has focused more thought and time on it than in any of my previous classes. It has served as a catalyst for discussion, for setting goals, and for discussing writing. It has focused our attention on learning and made every aspect of the course intentional. This syllabus is much more than the standard contract between my students and me.

Conditions Associated with Classroom Conflict

By Maryellen Weimer

Students can and do regularly disrupt the classroom. Sometimes they are openly hostile, challenging the teacher's authority and objecting to course requirements and classroom policies. More often, the conflict grows out of their inattentiveness and passivity. They arrive late, leave early, talk during class, and don't even bother to hide their boredom.

Faculty researchers (reference below) wondered whether characteristics of courses and instructors might be associated with conflict. They also wondered whether instructors' preparation and caring attitude toward students related to the presence or absence of students' disruptive behaviors. And they were curious as to how instructors went about resolving conflict and whether they perceived the techniques they used as being successful.

To find answers to these questions and to document whether the differences between hostile and inattentive conflict were real, they surveyed a national sample of psychology professors. Faculty who completed a 71-item questionnaire were asked to answer while thinking about a single course they had taught recently in which they experienced a high level of student conflict.

Analysis of the survey results documented a number of important findings. First, the hypothesis about there being two different kinds of conflict was confirmed. Second, "we found that the amount of conflict that faculty reported was actually unrelated to many characteristics of courses or instructors." (p. 183)

In other words, things like the instructor's gender, race, age, years of teaching experience, full-time versus part-time status, and class size did not relate to the amount of reported conflict. These findings are at odds

> Hostile conflict—as in challenging, open resistance—was found to be related to "whether faculty expressed care toward students, communicated respect, behaved sensitively, and remained warm and engaged."

with some previous research that has documented that students tend to challenge the authority of female professors and faculty of color more often than they challenge white male faculty. Other research results do not find correlations between instructor characteristics and such things as student ratings of instructor effectiveness.

However, these researchers did find some interesting correlations between instructional methods and conflict. For example, "the use of lecture correlated directly with inattentive classroom conflict. On the other hand, using discussion or active learning related inversely with inattentive classroom conflict." (p. 182)

Hostile conflict—as in challenging, open resistance—was found to be related to "whether faculty expressed care toward students, communicated respect, behaved sensitively, and remained warm and engaged." (p. 184) Faculty who did not approach students in these ways reported higher levels of conflict. And these faculty behaviors were also found to be most effective at reducing conflict. The researchers describe these methods as "working alliances" and report results that suggest faculty build them when they attend "to the emotional bonds that exist in the classroom," when they promote "a common sense of purpose when teaching," and when students are treated respectfully despite agreements. (p. 185) Even though more than 61 percent of this sample reported that they ignored conflict and the behaviors associated with it, this strategy was related to poorer outcomes.

In sum, based on these findings, faculty are well advised, yet again, to take seriously their relationships with students. In this case it seems that an ounce of prevention may well be worth the pound of cure.

Reference: Meyers, S.A., Bender, J., Hill, E.K., and Thomas, S.Y. (2006). How do faculty experience and respond to classroom conflict? *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, 18 (3), 180–187. 🍃

Getting to Know You: The Importance of Establishing Relationships

By Patty Kohler-Evans

About two or three semesters ago, I conducted an informal experiment with two of my classes. With one, on the first night of class, I asked students their names and major courses of study. I introduced myself in much the same way, with a brief statement about my chosen field. With the other class, I spent time during the first and second class sessions on activities designed to acquaint students with each other and establish how we would conduct the class. I used what I learned about students that first night throughout the rest of the course. When I compared feedback from the two classes, I was amazed at the differences between the two. For example, one student from the second class noted that these activities made the class more "user friendly." He left class looking forward to the rest of the semester.

I'd like to share some of the activities I used to get students connected with each other and with me.

What's in a name?

When students introduce themselves, I ask them to tell us their name and also to share what that name means, if they know that; to talk about the individual for whom they were named; and to indicate whether or not they like their name. I have also asked whether they live their name. For instance, my name, "Patricia," means loyal. I tell students that fits because I am generally a faithful friend. In some cases students don't know what their name means. I have found that they are very willing to do some research to find out what it means and to then share that information with the rest of the class.

T-shirt collage

Sometimes I have students introduce themselves to each other by creating a T-shirt that represents who they are. I supply each student with a pre-drawn T-shirt pattern on a sheet of paper. I ask students to use magazine pictures, markers, crayons, etc., to design the shirt.

Usually, I bring all the materials to class. Students tend to talk to each other about themselves as they are designing their T-shirts. I do a shirt too. I believe this shows students that I value this activity. Students seem to really enjoy doing this activity, and they usually work very hard to include multiple aspects of themselves in the collage. Students listen attentively when it's time to share the T-shirt collages, and even at the end of the semester they still remember information about their classmates.

Identification of personal interests

In many of my classes, I ask students to share information about their personal interests and learning preferences. I use a questionnaire to obtain this information, and I tell students to only share what they are comfortable having me know. A commercially available product that generates this information is the Learning Express-ways™ folder.

Asking for written feedback

I frequently ask for written comments at the end of lectures. Students may comment about the class, express a concern, or share other information. I respond to all comments in writing and return them at the next class. Sometimes I ask students to rate their understanding on a 1-to-10 scale, and sometimes I ask for a brief reflection.

Since I have started to invest more time in getting to know my students, I have noticed that my relationships with them have improved in numerous ways. When students come to me after the course has ended, I still remember their names and something about them. I have also noticed that I have more students asking questions about their chosen fields. They regularly tell me that they value the activities as well. I believe that the time invested in relationship building increases students' motivation and commitment to the course. Recently, I overheard one student commenting to another about a group assignment that I had made. She was admonishing her fellow classmate to seek out other students who were different as a way to enrich the experience. Whether these examples are a direct result of the relationship building I can't say for sure, but I am convinced that it does make a better climate for learning in my classes. 🍃

Those Students Who Participate Too Much

By Maryellen Weimer

What would we do without those few students who are always ready to speak—who make a stab at an answer when no one else will, who ask for clarification when they are confused, who even respond to things other students say in class? Most of those students we would like to clone. But then there are those who communicate to excess. They would answer every question if we let them. They would happily dominate every classroom discussion if allowed. We call these students the over-participators; in the research literature they are known as compulsive communicators, and researchers estimate that a bit more then 5 percent of students fall into this category.

The rest of the class loves and hates these classmates. They are loved because they take the pressure off everyone else. They are hated because they speak so much. Their endless contributions soon bore others. And they are hated because they make those who struggle to contribute feel woefully incompetent.

Their behavior also presents all sorts of problems for the teacher, who would love to call on somebody else, but often that familiar hand is the only one in the air. Generally over-participators are bright students. They care about the content and have the level of motivation a teacher would like to see in all students. But their determination to keep themselves always at the center of discussion tests in most of us the patience and commitment to participate.

Generally teachers do not rebuke the over-participator in public. Researchers in the study mentioned below asked students what they expected teachers to do about fellow classmates who over-participated. They found that students expect teachers to manage compulsive communicators through management strategies that are not rude or demeaning. Students "do not want to witness a fellow student subjected to negative sanctions when it comes to this particular transgression." (p. 28)

When teachers do not address the problem, according to this research, students rate them lower on measures of credibility and affect or liking. In fact, doing nothing about compulsive communicators results in even more negative student perceptions than does addressing the problem punitively.

What's the best advice, based on this research? Address the problem using positive and constructive communication strategies. It helps to have a discussion early in the course about the characteristics of effective discussion and teacher-student exchanges. If students are asked to describe those conversations that hold their attention and help them learn, they are usually quick to name the over-participation problem and state preferences for dialogue in which many people participate. Teachers should design participation activities that require the contributions of many: small groups presenting brief reports, sharing examples, or offering summaries.

It may be useful to talk privately with the student who is participating too much. It may help to make clear how and why too much communication from one student inhibits the learning of others. Perhaps the student could be encouraged to move his or her participation to the next level by not just answering questions, but asking them; by not just making comments, but specifically responding to things other students say in class.

Participation norms are established early in the course. If a teacher holds fast to hearing from lots of students right from the start, that norm will be established and can be maintained throughout the course.

Reference: McPherson, M. B., and Liang, Y. (2007). Students' reactions to teachers' management of compulsive communicators. *Communication Education*, 56 (1), 18-33.

10 Things to Make the First Day (and the Rest) of the Semester Successful

By Mary C. Clement

I like to arrive in the classroom well before the students. It gives me time to get things organized. I create an entrance table (I use chairs or desks if there's no table) that holds handouts for students to pick up. From day one the students learn the routine: they arrive, pick up handouts on the entrance table, and read the screen for instructions. They know what to do, and it saves time. Here's how I recommend introducing the routine on day one.

1. Post your name and the name and section of the class on the screen, so that when students walk in they know that they are in the right place.

2. Write "welcome" on the screen and have directions that tell students what they need to do immediately. Example: "As you enter, please tell me your name. Then pick up a syllabus, a card, and a folder from the entrance table. Fold the card so that it will stand on your desk, and write your first name on it in BIG letters. Add your last name and major in smaller print. Write your name on the tab of the folder, (last name first, then first name). Read the syllabus until class starts." [Note: By asking students to tell you their name as they enter, you can hear how the name is pronounced, and avoid the embarrassment of pronouncing it for the first time yourself.]

3. When it's time for class to start—start class! Late arrivals can catch up by reading the screen.

4. For classes of 25 or less, I have students do brief, 10-second introductions. I tell them there will be a verbal quiz after all the introductions and that they can win stars if they know who is who. (Have fun with this, but remember that these are adults and college is not like junior high.)

5. For larger classes, I have students introduce themselves to three or four people around them, and then we might do "stand-ups"— stand up if you are a Spanish major, stand up if you are an education major, and so on. I explain that students need to know each other for our small group work, and in case they have a question.

6. I collect the file folders and put them alphabetically by student name into a big plastic carrying case. When students need to turn in assignments, they find the box on the entrance table and they put their papers in their respective folders. When papers are graded, they can pull their graded tests or assignments from their folders. The beauty of this system is that time is never wasted by passing out papers. For small classes, I put handouts in the folders of absent students.

7. After the introductions and the explanation of the folder and box system, I turn to the "Today we will" list that I've written on the board, posted on a large paper flip-chart, or projected on the screen. I like to actually write this list on the board, so I can return to it even while projecting my notes. A "today we will" list outlines my plan for the day. For example, for the first day, my "today we will list" says:
- See screen for instruction for card and folder.
- Introductions
- Turn in folders
- Go over syllabus completely
- Mini-lecture on _____
- Interest inventory
- Do you know what to read/do before the next class?

Note: The "today we will" list lets me walk around the room, teach from the projection system, and then look at the list for what I should do next. I tend not to forget things if I have the list. As the semester progresses, the "today we will" list might contain warm-up questions that then appear as test questions. The list helps students who arrive late or leave early see what they have missed.

8. The mini-lesson/mini-lecture— whether it's a short overview of the first reading assignment, some sample problems, or 10 interesting questions students will be able to answer at the end of the course, I strongly recommend doing some course content on the first day. For classes that last longer than 50 minutes, I include a short student activity. I also think it's important to begin with course material on day one so that students begin to see who you are and how you teach. Since I teach courses in teacher education, I often talk about my teaching career. I

include a few stories about how times have changed and about how some things in teaching never change.

9. Interest inventories are great for the first day of class. An interest inventory is just a short list of questions about students' backgrounds and interests. It may assess their prior learning as well. In addition to name and major, students can write about a hobby, interest, or goal. Do not be too personal. You can have them answer several questions about content—maybe solve a problem, write a short paragraph or answer specific questions. Finally open-ended questions are useful:

- What are your goals after graduation?
- What has a teacher done in the past that helped you to learn _____ ?
- Is there anything else that you want me to know about you and your course of study?

You can always add one fun question:

- If your song played when you entered the room, what would that song be?

10. Every good class has an introduction, a body, and a conclusion. I usually teach the mini-lesson, and then save the last six to eight minutes of class for the interest inventory and individual questions. This way, students don't have to wait on others to finish. I instruct students to turn in their interest inventory as they exit. As they are writing, I alphabetize their folders and put them in the box on the table. Another good closure is to ask if they know what to read/do before the next class, and if they know three people to ask about the assignment if they have a question. 🍃

Use 'Stuff Happens' Cards to Handle Student Excuses

By Maryellen Weimer

Students and excuses seem to go hand in hand. Sometimes the excuses result from real events and personal problems that legitimately prevent a student from being in class, completing an assignment on time, or doing what some other policy or procedure may stipulate. Not having the wisdom of Solomon, most faculty struggle to fairly adjudicate between the real and unreal reasons offered for noncompliance.

Professor Daniela A. Feenstra, who teaches a variety of business classes at Central Pennsylvania College, has developed an interesting way through this dilemma. On the first day of class she gives each student a "Stuff Happens" card. It's about the size of a business card and also includes the semester date and a place for the student's name. In the syllabus (and in class) she explains that this is a student's "one time only" forgiveness card. If a student is late for class or might need a one-day extension on a paper, the student may trade the "Stuff Happens" card for this exception. Students don't have to get her approval or permission to use the card. Use of it is entirely at their discretion. However, each student gets only one card, which is not transferable and won't be replaced if lost.

If no "stuff happens" during a given a semester and a student follows all classroom policies and procedures, the "Stuff Happens" card may be traded in the last week of class for 20 bonus points.

Sometimes more than one "stuff happens" event may occur during the semester. When it does and the student presents the excuse or excuses, the teacher once again faces the problems described at the beginning of the article. However, Professor Feenstra notes that the "Stuff Happens" card takes care of most emergency situations. It covers the conscientious student who may occasionally have a problem. Other students are probably going to need more instructor feedback anyway. 🍃

Humor: Getting a Handle on What's Appropriate

By Mary C. Clement

The contribution that humor makes to learning is well established in research. It is not that humor causes learning; rather, it helps to create conditions conducive to learning. It helps learners relax, alleviates stress, and often makes it easier for students and teachers to connect personally. The presence of humor in a classroom can be very beneficial.

But there are a couple of problems. First, faculty often don't think of themselves as funny—some are, but most academics would not make a living as stand-up comedians. In fact, any number of faculty cannot successfully tell a joke, even after carefully rehearsing the lines and easing their tension with liquid libations. So, how might a serious academic find his or her way to humor that works in the classroom?

And then there's the problem of propriety. Not all humor is appropriate, especially given the commitment of higher education to cultural respect, diversity, and equality. If you can't make jokes about ethnicity, politics, religion, or sex, is there anything left for one-liners?

Fortunately some recent research offers help on both fronts. For faculty who don't think they can be funny in the classroom, there is a wide range of different kinds of humor. Options abound. Early research (referenced below) identified seven different kinds of humor: funny stories, funny comments, jokes, professional humor, puns, cartoons, and riddles. And each of these kinds of humor can be employed with great creativity, such as using weird names in math word problems; referring to aspects of content with humorous names, such as calling bacteria "baby beasties"; using different voices; wearing funny clothing; or telling stories about family or college days. The best news is that all of these kinds of humor have the same positive impact on learning environments.

The purpose of the study referenced below was to identify what students consider appropriate and inappropriate humor. Researchers did that by asking 284 undergraduates to list several examples of "appropriate and suitable" humor and then asking them to do the same for humor that was "offensive and/or not fitting for the class." The students had no trouble identifying examples in both categories.

This student sample generated 712 examples of appropriate teacher humor, which researchers placed in four different categories. The first, which contained almost half the listed examples, researchers called "related humor." This humor linked with course materials; examples included a physics instructor who regularly played with a Slinky to demonstrate certain physics principles or another who used course material in jokes: "What do you call someone who likes to go out a lot?" Answer: "Fungi."

The second category was unrelated humor. These first two categories contained more than 90 percent of the examples students provided, although researchers note that there was overlap between the two categories.

Examples in this second category include some teasing of student groups or individual students, or some stereotypical student behavior such as procrastinating.

The remainder of the appropriate examples were self-disparaging humor in which the instructor made jokes or told stories that poked fun at or belittled him or herself. Then there was a very small category of unintentional or unplanned humor when something funny happened spontaneously in class.

Equally valuable in this research is the analysis of inappropriate humor, for which students offered 513 examples, which researchers again placed in four categories: disparaging humor targeting students, disparaging humor targeting others, offensive humor, and self-disparaging humor.

More than 40 percent of the examples fell into the first category where instructors disparaged students individually or collectively. Students were disparaged for their lack of intelligence, gender, or appearance, as well as for their opinions.

When the disparaging humor targeted others, it used stereotypes and such specific group characteristics as gender, race/ethnicity, or university affiliation. Some inappropriate humor examples were listed as offensive because they contained sexual material or vulgar verbal or nonverbal expressions, or they were too personal.

In conclusion, researchers encourage faculty to explore humor related to the course content. Students always considered it appropriate. Moreover, many reported that it helped them relate and recall important course information.

Reference: Wanzer, M. B., Frymier, A. B., Wojtaszczyk, A. M., and Smith, T. 2006. Appropriate and inappropriate uses of humor by teachers. *Communication Education* 55 (2): 178–96.

A Behavior Contract That Made a Difference

By Lori Norin and Tom Walton

It seemed that almost every day we would come back to our offices after our speech classes with a frown on our faces and the need to tell a story about the latest shenanigans that happened in class. A student "accidentally" showed an inappropriate image on a PowerPoint slide during his speech. A student walked in 20 minutes late during a classmate's speech—with a pizza in one hand, a Mountain Dew in the other, and a cell phone on one ear. A student refused to give her speech as scheduled and dared us to do something about it.

Finally, one day we decided we had had enough. We created a list of behavioral expectations, which we asked students to sign, and thus was born the Speech Department Behavior Contract. Since then it has grown into a well-defined instrument that has had as much impact on student retention, success, and well-being as any other strategy we have added to the curriculum.

Initially the document contained 10 items—rudimentary things like students taking responsibility for reading the syllabus, signing the attendance sheet, taking the pretests and pre-assessments, meeting deadlines, etc., and understanding the consequences of making excuses for missing speeches. Even in its early format, the contract positively impacted retention and behavior in the classroom as observed by us and noted by our dean. Students told us that they appreciated the precise listing of their responsibilities because it made the rules and consequences clear.

At the end of each semester, we revise the document based on the events of the previous semester. For example, we added a statement concerning the campus electronic policy based on a serious plagiarism case that occurred in one of our sections. Once it became prevalent and blatant, we added a statement about text messaging in class. Some of our other colleagues are using contracts similar to ours, and they report the same positive effect. We hope that by sharing our contract, you will consider how it might help in creating an ideal learning environment in your classroom.

Classroom Ethics Contract

1. I received, read, and understand the department general syllabus for this course, including the attendance policy.
2. I understand failure to sign an attendance sheet at the appropriate time and date results in me being marked absent.
3. I verify that my professor has requested that I meet with him/her first should I have any concerns about the conduct of the course. If that meeting does not resolve the concerns, then my professor will recommend I meet with the department's lead faculty member or department chair.
4. I understand that my professor expects respect from everyone in the classroom at all times. This includes rules about sleeping, inappropriate talking, rudeness, doing homework, answering cell phones, and any disruptive behavior as defined by each professor, etc.
5. I understand it is my responsibility to take the online content pre- and post-test(s) by the assigned date(s).
6. I understand it is my responsibility to complete the written pre- and post-assessment(s) by the assigned date (PRCA, Speech Anxiety, Listening).
7. I understand it is my responsibility to complete all assignments on time and that there are penalties for late assignments (if allowed) at each professor's discretion.
8. I agree that if I don't understand an assignment it is my responsibility to ask for clarification.
9. I understand my professor's policy about being tardy and the consequences of not following his/her policy.
10. I understand the ramifications of missing a scheduled speaking day.
11. I understand that should I miss class it is my responsibility to get any handouts, etc.
12. I understand it is my responsibility to check my e-mail daily or weekly depending on my professor's guidelines.
13. I understand it is my responsibility to follow directions and that failure to do so will result in a loss of points.
14. I understand it is my responsibility to read and follow the Electronic Communications Policy. The link is available at the bottom of the UA-Fort Smith homepage http://www.uafortsmith.edu.
15. I understand I should not enter the classroom during a student speech. I should wait to hear applause and then enter.
16. I understand that plagiarism of any kind will not be tolerated and may result in receiving a zero (0) for the assignment, withdrawal

from the course, or suspension from the university.

17. I understand that cell phones must be turned off or turned to vibrate during class and that each professor may, at his/her discretion, enforce a consequence for any cell phone ringing or text messaging during class.

18. I understand that iPods and/or MP3 players must be turned off during class and that each professor may, at his/her discretion, enforce a consequence for any music being played during class.

19. I read, understand, and agree to abide by the student handbook guidelines for classroom ethics.

20. I understand that each professor may add additional rules in writing to this departmental document.

21. I understand that failure to sign this document does not exclude me from its requirements.

Student Signature:
_____

Class Time:
_____ 🍏

Preventing Cheating: Do Faculty Beliefs Make a Difference?

By Maryellen Weimer

"We believe that student beliefs about their peers … can influence misconduct, while faculty beliefs about student academic misconduct can influence efforts to prevent and challenge the misconduct." (p. 1059) Said another way, the researchers (citation below) are afraid that if students think that a lot of their peers are cheating, it will increase the likelihood that they will cheat. And, if faculty believe that lots of students are cheating, they will do more to prevent it. Conversely, if faculty don't think academic dishonesty is much of a problem in their classes, they will do less to prevent it and make it easier for students to get away with it.

This study did reaffirm that cheating among students (at this institution), as reported by students, is widespread. More than 90 percent of the more than 400 students in this sample admitted that they had cheated at least once. The researchers pointed out that data on cheating that differentiates between if and how often are not generally reported.

"Looking at the data this way leads to a different conclusion from examination of overall misconduct rates." (p. 1078)

The activity students reported doing least often was "improperly" acquiring or distributing exams. The activity they reported doing most often involved working with another student on material that would be submitted for grading when the instructor had not authorized collaboration with others. Results here replicated another finding documented by previous research: males reported more incidents of misconduct than females.

These researchers found that for every one of the 16 behaviors of academic dishonesty, students believed that their peers were engaging in those behaviors more often than their peers reported. The researchers worried that these inaccurate beliefs empower students to cheat more since they believe that "everyone else" is doing it.

Faculty in this study "overestimated the actual frequency of misconduct." (p. 1076) As for the actual hypotheses about faculty beliefs, they were verified. "Our results showed that faculty members who underestimate the frequency of misconduct very rarely take action to challenge students' misconduct." (p. 1076) Their results also verified the reverse. Faculty who overestimated the extent of cheating were more solicitous in their efforts to prevent it.

Researchers advise that both faculty and students should be provided accurate information as to the extent of academic misconduct occurring at an institution. Faculty "need to send [the] message to students through prevention and detection efforts." (p. 1076)

Reference: Hard, S. F., Conway, J. M., and Moran, A C. (2006). Faculty and college student beliefs about the frequency of student academic misconduct. *Journal of Higher Education*, 77 (6), 1058-1080. 🍏

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