Chapter Three

True teachers are those who use themselves as bridges over which they invite their students to cross; then, having facilitated their crossing, joyfully collapse, encouraging them to create their own - Nikos Kazantzakis

The Teacher as a Manager

The field of management of education has grown tremendously as a discipline in India in recent years. Management of an Educational institution/class requires specific set of skills. In spite of the fact that they are more or less from the business management branch, they have to be applied in a different manner as an educational system requires sensitive skills concerning students and young generation as well as a wide range of academic activities concerning teachers.

The word ‘management’ has multiple connotations. It is used as a noun, as a process and as an academic discipline. As a noun, it refers to those individuals who exercise leadership in an educational institution i.e., to managers-principals, directors, heads of the departments and so forth. As a process, it refers to planning, organizing, staffing, directing and controlling. As an academic discipline, it refers to a significant body of knowledge of concepts, theories and most importantly application in practice.

In this chapter, we would consider the teacher as a manager of a situation in which effective teaching is expected to produce the desired standard of
learning. This would require the teacher to exercise certain functions which are associated with management. Follet defines it as ‘the art of getting things done through people’ which in fact also takes into consideration the administrative aspect in which we are not interested. We are solely focusing on the professional role and responsibilities of the individual tutor in the light of management theory. We would be looking into the teacher-manager’s tasks in relation to environment, syllabus and course design, the retention, retrieval of knowledge and transfer of learning, the tasks necessary in order to teach students how to study, the maintenance of discipline, counseling. In these complex tasks, the teacher is seen as managing a system of which he is a part.

The present chapter deals with the following aspects:

1. Roles, responsibilities, skills and functions of a teacher-manager;
2. Characteristics of an effective teacher-manager;
3. Role of a teacher-manager;
4. Characteristics of effective teachers-managers;

**Responsibilities of an Educational Teacher-Manager**

Educational institutions manifest certain specific kinds of activities referred to as core activities by Argyris (1964). These core activities include:

(a). Attainment of institutional goals;

(b) Maintaining integration of the institutional system;

(c) Adapting to forces in the institution’s external environment;

(d) Maintaining and transmitting cultural patterns.
These four core activities are composed of many sub-activities which in turn lead to managerial functions. These functions comprise of planning, organizing, coordinating, directing, staffing, controlling and evaluating and are aimed at intended consequences.

The managerial responsibilities are accomplished through the following activities and sub activities.

1  *Curriculum and Instruction Development*: In terms of formulating curriculum objectives, determining curriculum content and its organization, relating the curriculum to available time, infrastructural facilities and human resources.

2  *Student Support Services*: In terms of initiating and maintaining a system of student attendance, orientation of students, providing counseling, health services, providing occupational and educational information, providing follow-up and placement services for students, making provision formative evaluation and feedback of students’ progress, establishing for dealing with rule infractions and developing student activity programmes.

3  *Extension Services*: In terms of providing an opportunity to a community to understand its composition and to identify its potential for improvement through the use of human resources, determining the educational services meant for the community, developing
implementing plans for improving community life and reviewing the acceptable plans and policies for community development rendered by the institution.

These tasks are outside the daily classroom working of the teachers have implications for the work of the institution. In addition, cultural patterns are expressed in the formal written and unwritten rules or codes of behaviour that provide norms, expectations, values, beliefs and assumptions to teachers, students, principals and others define the institutional life considered to be acceptable and meaningful. These cultural patterns, norms and traditions are an important of the institution’s curricular and co-curricular processes. In a way education management is concerned with generating new assumptions, creating new possibilities and establishing new practices.

An educational manager will have to understand that:

(a) Teaching, like learning, is concerned with creating a human environment in which it is safe to reach out and take risks, in which not getting things quite right the first time is an acceptable way to learn and discover.

(b) Change is a constant and a permanent feature of our life and we do a disservice to our children by rigidly adhering to traditional orthodoxy.

(c) Teaching is aimed at facilitating learning and should not be viewed as a ‘teacher’s performance’. It should be viewed as a process of working along with the students in and outside the class and identifying new
ways to help them realize their potentials by establishing a relationship
with them.

(d) Management is an interactive process of working together to accomplish
pre-determined aims through group cohesion rather than through
bureaucratic procedures, hierarchy and status differentials.

Roles of an Educational Manager

Different management theorists have identified roles of managers in different
ways. According to Fayol, a manager is a co-coordinator of various resources
through the functions of planning, organizing, commanding and controlling.
Fayol was a classical theorist. Theorists belonging to the school behaviourism
view manager as a team-builder concerned with the behaviours of individuals
and groups. Decision theorists and management scientists visualized manager
as a decision-maker. Systems and contingency schools consider a manager to
be a mediator between the organization and environment.

One of the most comprehensive and popular classification of managerial roles
has been developed by Mintzberg (1971) into three major categories

(A) Interpersonal Roles;
(B) Informational Roles; and
(C) Decisional Roles.

Successful educational managers activate and integrate contrasting and
potentially conflicting aspects of their total role effectively (Hughes, 1976).
Knowledge Necessary for Educational Managers

In order to perform the preceding roles effectively, an educational manager requires certain types of knowledge:

(i) Knowledge of Educational Policies and Practices: This covers the extent to which principals/heads keep themselves informed about new and existing educational policies at the national or state levels as well as about and existing practices in teaching, learning, organization, staff development, evaluation, external relationships and so forth.

(ii) Knowledge of People: This plays an important part in developing maintaining interpersonal relationships and the decisions taken initiating changes and responding to colleagues.

(iii) Knowledge of Process: This is also known as ‘know-how’. It some extent, a matter of knowing all the things one has to do and making sensible plans for doing them; and to some extent, a matter of possessing using practical, routine skills.

(iv) Knowledge of Situation: This is concerned with how principals interpret the information received by them about institutional life, how they its status and importance and how they respond to it and communicate

(v) Conceptual Knowledge: Eraut (1988) defines this as that set of concepts, theories and ideas that a person has consciously stored in memory that
helps in ‘analyzing issues or problems, or debating policies and practices’.

(vi) **Control on/of Knowledge:** According to Eraut (1988), this includes self-awareness, sensitivity, self-knowledge about one’s strengths and weaknesses, gap between what one says and what one does, and what one and does not know, self-management in such matters as use of time, prioritization and delegation, self-development in its broadest sense and generalized intellectual skills like strategic thinking and policy analysis.

However, the extent to which these knowledge types can be utilized depends partly on managerial skills.

**Skills of a Teacher-Manager**

The job of an educational manager is very complex and in order to his functions effectively, he must possess several skills. Katz (1974) identified and classified managerial skills into three broad categories:

1. **Technical Skills:** It implies an understanding of and proficiency in methods, processes and techniques used in teaching, evaluation and educational management. It is the ability to perform the tasks involved in the particular area of expertise. These skills are more important at the operating level of management as compared to higher levels.

2. **Conceptual Skills:** It refers to the ability to understand the interrelationships between different parts of an institution and their effects on each other. It also includes the ability to comprehend the
interdependence between the institution and its external environment. An effective manager must be able to view the institution as a whole and to judge the interrelationships among its parts while introducing changes. Conceptual skills can be developed through coaching, job rotation, participative decision-making and so on.

3. **Human Skills**: It implies the ability to work effectively with others and to build co-operative relationships among the members of the work group. It is the skill of winning co-operation of others and of developing teams for work. Human skills can be developed through sensitivity training.

Educational teacher-manager requires all the three types of skills.

**Managerial Functions**

Management process is defined as the process of planning, organizing, leading and controlling utilization of resources to accomplish the organization’s purpose. The components of the process of management are functions of the manager. According to Gulick, the managerial functions can be described using the acronym **POSDCORB** which includes planning, organizing, staffing, directing, co-coordinating, reporting and budgeting. According to Koontz and O’Donnell, the basic managerial functions are planning, organizing, staffing, directing and controlling.
These functions of a manager are as follows:

1  *Setting Objectives:* Most of the textbooks on the subject of management regard the attainment of organizational objectives as the end result of the functions of the manager. However, some writers view the setting of objectives as a basic function of a manager.

2  *Formulating Plans:* Objectives that underline the process of management find expression in the managerial plans that depict how, when and where the objectives will be attained and who is responsible for their attainment. Managerial plans specify the means by which the objectives will be accomplished. These are oriented towards the future and offer management a blueprint with which to direct operations in pursuit of the objectives.

3  *Organizing:* Initially the organizing of activities is based on a “differentiation” of tasks through a division of labour and on the establishment of scalar and functional relationships within a formal structure.

Next, management must provide for the integration of the differentiated tasks by assigning responsibilities and concurrently delegating authority to ensure co-ordination throughout the formal structure in a way that contributes measurably to the attainment of the managerial objectives reflected in the plans. Organizing is concerned primarily with
structuring tasks and co-coordinating activities in a logical and meaningful fashion. It also involves a formal relationship between (a) superiors and subordinates within a given unit, (b) individuals performing related activities in different units and (c) individuals doing the primary work of the organization and those who provide specialized kinds of supporting services.

4 **Staffing**: Staffing is the acquisition of personnel qualified to accomplish the tasks identified in the organizing of activities. Staffing involves obtaining the right number of the right people at the right time to accomplish the objectives set forth in the managerial plans. It includes, planning, obtaining and developing the human resource.

5 **Directing**: Having completed the staffing of operations, management is ready to direct the organization toward accomplishment of the objectives enumerated in the plan. This, the leadership function of management, involves eliciting effort and performance from the human resource in a way that contributes to the basic purposes of the organization.

6 **Controlling**: Control is regulation of operations in conformity with the managerial plans, or more specifically, in accordance with the objectives specified in such plans. Control is essential to ensure that operations are directed towards the attainment of organizational objectives. To the
extent that operations diverge from the managerial plans, the organization is out of control.

**Characteristics of an Effective Teacher-Manager**

A review of literature available in this area identifies several characteristics of Managerial Leadership as suggested by several authors such as Stogdill, Cribbin, Pedler, Burgoyne, Boydell, etc.

1. An effective managerial leader is expected to possess the following traits (Stogdill, 1981).

   (a) Capacity (intelligence, alertness, verbal facility, originality, judgement);

   (b) Achievement (scholarship, knowledge, accomplishments);

   (c) Responsibility (dependability, initiative, persistence; aggressiveness, self-confidence, desire to excel);

   (d) Participation (activity, sociability, co-operation; adaptability, humour);

   (e) Status socio-economic position, popularity);

   (t) Situation (mental ability, skills, needs and interests of followers, objectives to be achieved and tasks to be performed); Stogdill further states that different leadership skills and traits are required in different situations.

1. Ability to perform present duties well in one’s present position.
(2) Ability to command respect and to win the confidence of others.

3 Ability to reach sound conclusions based on evidence.

4 Ability to get through to people at various levels including government officers, the management of the institution, the teachers, the students, the non-teaching staff.

5 Effective use of time in producing the necessary quantity and quality of work.

6 Ability to cope with change, to adjust to the unexpected.

7 Command of basic facts such as the mission, the goals of the institution, its short-term and long-term plans, knowledge of needs, aspirations and problems of students and teachers, who’s who in the organization, the roles and relationships between various sections/departments, their own job, roles and responsibilities and what is expected of them.

8 Relevant professional knowledge including teaching methodologies, evaluation techniques, managerial principles and theories (planning, organization, budgeting, control etc.), government rules and policies, sources of finance, rules for utilizing and obtaining grant-in-aid etc.

9 Continuing sensitivity to events. Successful managerial leaders are alert about hard information (figures and facts) as well as soft information (feelings and attitudes). Managers with this sensitivity respond appropriately to situations as they arise.
10 Proactive, purposeful response to events. Effective managers not merely respond to situations but they have specific goals to achieve, they plan carefully in advance and respond to unexpected events or emergencies.

11 Dedication to work and duties.

12 Perseverance to complete a task.

13 A sense of mission.

14 Taking responsibility for things that happen.

15 Analytical, problem-solving, decision-making skills.

16 Ability to strike a balance between subjective feelings and objective logic.

17 Social skills and abilities including interpersonal skills to communicate, delegate, negotiate, resolve conflict, persuade, sell, use and respond to authority and power.

18 Emotional maturity and resilience. Managers’ work in situations involving authority, power, conflicts, and deadlines: These involve some extent of uncertainty and ambiguity. Effective managers need to cope with these with resilience.

19 Mental agility including the ability to grasp problems quickly, think of several things at once, to switch rapidly from one situation to another, to see quickly the whole situation.
Creativity which includes the ability to come up with new processes and responses and to recognize useful approaches. It also involves the ability to encourage and accept fresh ideas from others.

Balanced learning habits and skills. This involves the ability to learn independently rather than passively depending on an expert or authority figure. Effective managers are good at concrete as well as abstract thinking, general theories and develop independent practical ideas.

Self-awareness. An effective manager must be aware of his/her abilities, feelings, strengths and weaknesses as they play a very significant role in determining managerial behaviour. Self-awareness is really the process of discovering and understanding various aspects of oneself like motivations, values, beliefs i.e., the base and the sources from which an individual derives his/her identity. An individual may be aware of himself/herself but may not have come to terms with it. i.e., may be lacking self-acceptance.

Personal Growth = Self-awareness + Self-acceptance.

Leaders build their credibility not by demonstrating their superior power, authority and competence, but by exploring emerging ideas, experimenting with new ways of behaving and working for ongoing improvement in themselves, in their employees (teaching faculty as well as non-teaching staff), in their students and in their institutions.
Effective managers are self-confident with a strong sense of themselves, persistent, controlled, verbal, diplomatic and popular. They are conscientious, venturesome in problem-solving, pursue goals vigourously and tolerate frustrations.

A good manager matures from a concern for personal goals and agenda to a commitment to common values and obligations for respect, quality and fairness. Ethical standards are a fundamental basis of leadership.

Effective leaders express their ideas, hopes and fears, and act consistently with their intentions.

Honesty, ability to face reality and open discussion of the situation and prospects are the foundations for credibility and trustworthiness.

Leaders need to develop productive, co-operative relationship with their employees so as to have a constructive impact.

Managers with high need for power, especially when combined with low affiliation needs and the ability to channel and control power needs are effective. Such managers are interested in influencing other people, do not try to do it all themselves or hide in their offices, are not overly concerned about being liked, are able to confront conflict, make tough decisions and insist on the same high standards for everyone. They control how they express their power needs and channel them into mutual goal accomplishment.
On the other hand, managers with high achievement needs are not necessarily effective leaders as they want to do things better themselves and do not empower others. Also, having strong affiliation needs can interfere with ‘leading’ because such people are not much interested in establishing productive, give-and-take relationships but emphasize more on maintaining harmony and relationship at any cost. They help individuals achieve their personal agenda even at the expense of the team or institution and make exceptions others see as unfair. Rather than use conflicts to solve problems and urge people to become more effective, they want to get along and not cause upsetting waves.

31 A strong sense of self-esteem, internal pride and achievement.

Role of a Teacher-Manager

Pre service education of prospective teachers places a heavy emphasis on instructional skills of teachers. However, in reality, though imparting instruction to learners is an important obligation of teachers, they are required to discharge many other responsibilities and are expected to play diverse roles. In this section, we will make an attempt to understand these duties, responsibilities and roles of a teacher.

According to Armstrong and Savage (1994), the following is a comprehensive list of a teacher’s roles:

1 The Instructional Role.
2 The Counselling Role.

3 The Curriculum Development Role.

Each of these roles places a heavy demand on teachers. While trying to strike a balance among different roles and responsibilities, teachers often themselves are pressed for time. A better understanding of these roles is expected to facilitate a teacher’s work performance, reduce general levels of anxiety and enhance their abilities to discharge multiple responsibilities confidently.

Let us now look at each role of a teacher in detail.

**The Instructional Role**

Providing instruction is the most significant duty of a teacher that defines his/her identity. The instructional role of a teacher is the most important because schools were set up by societies to fulfill the instructional function during the process of evolution of various societal institutions. However, the manner of performing this role and the purposes served by it from teacher to teacher. Some teachers and curricular programmes emphasize transmission of content-matter while others emphasize on preparing students as democratic, productive, responsible citizens. Some a high priority on developing creativity and problem-solving skills among students whereas others focus on enabling students to adjust themselves in a given society at the same time training them to bring about social change without major negative consequences. Very often, teachers’ instructional processes are a combination of many of these priorities.
and emphases. In any case, some of the significant instructional practices which are common to a large majority of teachers include:

(a) Diagnosing students;
(b) Developing objectives;
(c) Choosing and implementing instructional approaches and strategies;
(d) Evaluating students’ progress.

(a) *Diagnosing Students:* Classes comprise of diverse student groups in terms of their intellectual capacity, physical stamina, attitudes, motivations, home background, religious background and socio-economic status. Diagnosis for instructional purposes refers to those teacher actions that seek information about individual students. This is aimed at designing instructional plans to suit students’ needs and enhance students’ chances of successful learning. Diagnosing students is also aimed at finding out about students’ interests and level of enthusiasm which can be effectively used for introducing new topics. Diagnostic information also helps teachers to identify learning problems of specific students such as their level of previous knowledge, computational abilities, learning styles or exceptionalities, visual, speech or physical impairment.

(b) *Developing Objectives:* Instructional objectives specify expected student behaviour as a result of exposure to learning experiences and instructional process. Objectives guide teachers in making decisions
about learning resources and instructional strategies to be used. Instructional objectives clarify teachers’ expectations of student behaviour. They help in assessing the effectiveness of instruction.

(c) Choosing and Implementing Instructional Approaches and Strategies:

An effective instructional programme requires planning and implementing classroom activities. According to Hunter and Russell (1977), planning and implementation of instructional approaches need to focus on the following aspects:

- Anticipatory set (teacher actions designed to focus students’ attention on the instruction to follow);
- Objective and purpose;
- Instructional input (actions taken to convey relevant content to students);
- Guided practice (monitoring students’ work)
- Independent practice (without teacher’s monitoring)

(d) Evaluating Students’ Progress: This is one of the most important responsibilities of a teacher. It helps in ascertaining effectiveness of the teaching-learning process. Evaluation requires proper maintenance of records which form the basis for marks and promotions. Evaluation should not be only on the basis of paper-pencil tests but also on the basis of performance test. It should include performance on projects and assignments also. Selection of evaluation procedures depend on
The Counselling Role

Teaching is considered to be a ‘helping profession’. Teachers’ work involves intense interactions with students and hence, in order to be an effective teacher, he/she should be able to develop and maintain good interpersonal relations skills. These skills are essentially important in performing the counselling role.

In India, very few schools have a professional counsellor on their staff. Even if a school has a professional counsellor, he/she cannot deal with a large number of students appropriately. Moreover, individual students usually get very well acquainted with their teachers and feel comfortable discussing their problems with them. Teachers are often approached by students (and sometimes parents) who want to share their personal concerns with teachers. This necessitates that through pre-service education, prospective teachers need to be prepared to help students who seek their advice. They should be able to identify students who need the help of a professional counsellor. However, this does not mean that a teacher should develop close friendship with every student that comes to him/her for help. Students look up to their teacher as a mature, knowledgeable adult who would be able to help them.

In order to perform the role of a counsellor, a teacher must pay attention to the following:
(i) Do not misinterpret a call for help as an invitation to personal friendship.

(ii) Listen carefully to what another person is saying and attempt to see the world through that person’s eye (empathy).

(iii) Help students to identify critical features of problems.

(iv) Assist them in working out solutions.

(v) Show respect for the individual who is talking to you.

In order to perform the role of a counsellor well, a teacher must possess the following qualities:

(a) Maturity-psychological and social.

(b) A feeling of personal security.

(c) A positive self-concept.

(d) Confidence.

(e) Ability to solve one’s own problems.

(3) The Management Role

Very often, teachers do not like to perform this role and complain that a lot of their time is wasted on routine paper work which could be utilized more fruitfully for academic work including preparation of lessons and guiding students.
The Curriculum Development Role

Instruction refers to procedures followed to transmit content-matter that has been selected and organized. On the other hand, curriculum refers to a general plan or framework for selecting and organizing content. At the institutional level, teams of individual teachers can work together to design teaching-learning experiences, modes of instruction, selecting instructional materials and deciding evaluation procedures and techniques. Besides, individual teachers can plan individual units of work and lessons in their own classrooms. This kind of curriculum planning allows teachers scope to match learning experiences with the needs of students.

An effective teacher possesses several qualities. On the careful analysis of the literature available in this area as well as research studies, some characteristics of effective teachers identified. These are as follows:

Professional and Academic Qualities

(a) In-depth knowledge of the subject-matter to be taught.
(b) Knowledge of psychology including knowledge about students’ needs, interest, aptitudes, problems during adolescence, laws of learning, theories of learning, learning style and so on.
(c) Knowledge of pedagogy i.e., teaching strategies and methodologies appropriate, knowledge of choosing an appropriate methodology suitable for different types of content-matter.
(h) A favourable attitude towards the teaching profession, commitment to teaching and the institution.
(i) Knowledge of the aims and objectives of the institution as well of education.

(j) Ability to adapt oneself to different situations.

(k) Appropriate classroom management skills.

(l) Ability to win the confidence of students.

(m) Skill of giving feedback properly.

(n) Skill of withholding negative expectations of students’ performance and expressing positive expectations appropriately.

(o) Ability to admit lack of knowledge and motivation to rectify such weaknesses by additional professional reading.

**Personal Qualities**

(a) Ability to handle conflicts constructively.

(b) Empathy.

(c) Honesty.

(d) Punctuality.

(e) Orderliness.

(f) Intellectual honesty.

(g) Integrity.

(h) Moral values.

(i) Positive mental health.

(j) Adjustment — social, emotional, educational, health-related home-related.
(k)  Adequate self-concept.
(1)  Pleasing manners.
(m)  Neat, clean and pleasing personal appearance including grace.
(n)  Enthusiasm, motivation, perseverance and hardwork.
(o)  Open-mindedness, flexibility, initiative.
(p)  Innovative-proneness.
(q)  Authenticity-being openly and honestly what you are.
(r)  Ability to convey encouragement to students.
(s)  Awareness of one’s strengths and weaknesses.
(t)  Democratic attitude.
(u)  Ability to manage stress and time.
(v)  Ability to lead others.
(w)  Impartiality, objectivity.

**Intellectual Qualities**

(a)  Intelligence, alertness, common sense.
(b)  Board base knowledge.
(c)  Good memory.
(d)  Willingness to experiment with new ideas.
(e)  Ability and willingness to improve classroom conditions through action research.
Emotional Qualities

(a) Emotional stability and resilience.
(b) Optimism.
(c) Assertiveness.

Planning

A plan is a statement of the intended means for achieving desired results. Plan is an action statement created by planning, a process of thinking before taking action. Because a plan describes an intended course of action, should answer the questions of ‘What’, ‘How’, ‘Where’, ‘When’, and ‘Who’.

Fundamentals of Planning

Planning is the conscious determination of a future course of action to achieve the desired results. Rather than leaving future events to chance; planning makes them happen in a certain recognized manner.

Definition and Characteristics of Planning

Planning is formally defined as a process of setting objectives and determining what should be done to accomplish them. It is a decision-making activity through which managers’ act to ensure the future success and effectiveness of their institutions and departments/sections, as well as themselves.
Planning sketches a complete mental picture of things yet to happen in the school/college through the process of looking ahead. It involves the choosing of a course of action from all the available alternatives so as to achieve predetermined objectives with the greatest economy and certainty. The proposed course of action is charted out in great details with the help of complex chain of plans, policies, procedures, programmes and budgets focused on the objectives of the institution.

As such, planning has the following characteristics:

1. **Anticipatory in Nature**: Through planning, managers decide what do and how to do before it must actually be done.

2. **Primacy**: The managerial function of planning usually precedes all other functions. Obviously, without setting goals to be reached and the lines action to be followed, there is nothing to organize, to direct or to control the institution. However, planning is not isolated from other managerial functions.

3. **Precision**: Planning must be precise concerning its meaning, scope, nature. It must be intelligible and meaningful in terms of expected results. It must be realistic and based on SWOT analysis for the institution.
Objectives of Planning

Following are the objectives of planning:

1. Planning leads to more effective and faster achievements in any institution. It helps an institution in achieving the results through an active and forward-thinking rather than reactive and passive posture.

2. It focuses managers’ and teachers’ attention on objectives that can generate results. It gives a performance-oriented sense of direction to the institution.

3. Planning minimizes costs of performance, both in terms of time and money. It also reduces or eliminates negative consequences of the process of education.

4. It helps educational managers in setting priorities and focus their energies on the most important problems first.

5. Planning contributes to efficacy of other managerial functions.

6. It helps managers emphasize the strengths of an institution and minimizes or overcomes weaknesses.

7. It provides a basis for control in an institution. Planning expresses the goals and targets in specific terms and thus supplies the standard of subsequent work performance.
Elements of Planning

Planning, in order to be complete and thorough, must provide for the following elements:

Objectives: Objectives are basic plans which determine the end results of the projected actions of an institution. Objectives provide the foundation on which the structure of plans can be built. To guide and unify efforts towards the end result, objectives stand steadfastly over all institutional operations. Crystallization of objectives requires creative thinking and foresight. Some of the general objectives of schools and colleges could be as follows

(i) All round development of students.

(ii) Survival and growth of the institution.

(iii) Enhancing the prestige of the institution

(iv) Institutional development.

(v) Providing extension activities for the benefit of the larger society.

(vi) Providing the society with productive, enlightened citizens.

(vii) Developing various academic disciplines through research (relevant for higher education institutions).

(viii) Identifying and implementing educational innovations.
Strategies: According to Koontz and O’Donnell, strategy is increasingly being used as a term to cover the overall general plan of an enterprise, or a major portion of it, or a major project within it. It has been also defined by others as a unified, comprehensive and integrated plan designed to ensure that the objectives of an enterprise are achieved.

Objectives are elaborated by strategies that become action commitments through which the mission of an organization is fulfilled. Strategies determine the basic long-term goals of an institution and help to adopt a course of action along with the allocation of resources required for accomplishing such goals. They are designed by the top management of an institution and come to be as a result of strategic planning.

Koontz And O'Donnell Have Classified Strategies Into Two Types:

(i) Grand Strategies: A grand strategy is the process of deciding organizational objectives or changes in such objectives and on the resources used to attain such objectives and policies that govern acquisition, use and disposition of such resources. It is planning of a broad programme giving an overall direction to other more detailed programmes of the enterprise.

(ii) Competitive Strategies: A competitive strategy refers to interpretative planning made in the light of the plans of a competitor. An educational manager’s task is to match the
strengths and weaknesses of an institution and its students with external opportunities and strengths and on this basis, select one of the several strategic alternatives.

The Process

As a process planning involves deciding in advance of action

- What is to be done?
- When it is to be done?
- Where it is to be done?
- By whom it is to be done?
- How it is to be done?

Contemporary ideas about the nature of administration, both within and out of education, places in a central position. Decision making is the key activity of a manager and lies at the core of planning. Decision making is the process of choosing from among several alternatives.

*According to McFarland, a decision is an act of choice wherein an executive forms a conclusion about what must be done in a given situation.*

*According to Terry, decision-making is the selection based on some criteria from two or more possible alternatives.*

Decisions may involve allocating resources and making commitment and therefore determine the success of an organization. It is a continuous and
dynamic process. Decision making involves past, present and future. Here past refers to the period during which the problem emerged, information was collected and the need for a decision was perceived. In the present, alternatives are identified and choice is made. Decision will be implemented and reviewed in future.

In the field of education, decision making could be in the following areas:

- Curriculum revision.
- Starting a new course.
- Public relations.
- Student Evaluation.
- Co-curricular activities.

Factors Influencing Decision-Making

Decision-making is a dynamic and complex process influenced by factors within and outside the institution some of which are as follows:

1. **Organizational Policies**: Top management lays down the basic policies of the institution to guide the activities of the members of the institution. Usually, decisions have to be taken within the framework of organizational policies.

2. **Government Policies**: The government lays down many policies such as admission policies, syllabus, and recruitment of teachers and so on. An institution has to take decisions within the framework of these policies.
Managerial Values: These refer to the beliefs, biases, prejudices and opinions of managers. Managerial values guide their judgement and choice of an alternative, institutional objectives and priorities as well as desired outcomes of a decision.

Time Availability: The time available to a decision-maker for taking a decision has an important bearing on the quality of a decision. Lack of time may force a manager to take a decision without adequate information and analysis.

Propensity for Risk: A manager’s personality and past experiences influence his propensity to take risks while making a decision.

Other Factors: Several other factors such as the quality of staff, parental and student demands, availability of space and finances, educational practices etc. influence the decision-making process.

Problem Solving

Before discussing different methods of problem-solving, it is necessary to understand the meaning of the term ‘problem’. A problem is any matter or question involving uncertainty, doubt or difficulty. It can mean a question posed for discussion or solution (D’Souza, 1989). Problems are often seen as deviations from standards, something that requires correction. In other words, they may have a negative connotation. However, for an optimistic person, a
problem is an opportunity to improve situations, remove deficiencies and change for the better. Thus, it can also have a positive connotation. Problem-solving is a general term used for the process of analyzing situations and arriving at solutions including implementation and evaluation. Decision-making is a part of problem-solving.

**Techniques of Problem Solving**

Some of the techniques which facilitate problem-solving are as follows:

(a) *Brain-storming*: This technique was made popular in the 1950s and is mainly used for generating ideas during the process of decision-making. It is aimed at solving problems that are new to the institution and have major consequences. Brain-storming is a technique wherein the group convenes specifically to generate ideas and alternatives. Ideas are presented and clarified with brief explanation by the members. Each idea is recorded on a flip chart in front of all members. However, no idea is evaluated even if the ideas seem risky or impossible to implement. In the next session, the alternatives are evaluated. The aim of brain-storming is to produce totally new ideas and solutions by stimulating the creativity of group members and encouraging them to build on the contributions of others.
Principles of brain-storming are:

1  Defer evaluation during the phase of producing ideas, especially, negative or critical evaluation.

2  Quantity begets quality. The more ideas are generated, the higher the probability of hitting upon some new, brilliant ones.

3  The more fantastic the ideas, the better. A fantastic idea here is one which does not seem to be practical at all. But it serves the important function of demolishing conventional patterns of thinking. Sometimes such impracticable ideas trigger other novel and useful ideas.

4  Hitch-hike on previously expressed ideas. There is no reason to feel ashamed in building on others’ ideas or one’s own earlier ideas.

(b)  *The Delphi Technique:* This technique was originally developed by Rand Corporation as a method of systematically collecting judgments of experts for use in developing forecasts. It is designed for groups that do not meet face-to-face. The manager who wants the inputs of a group is the central figure in the process that develops a questionnaire which is relatively simple in nature containing straightforward questions that deal with issues, trends, demands, opinions etc. Through such a questionnaire, the manager gathers data, summarizes the responses and reports back to the experts with another questionnaire. This cycle may be repeated as many times as required to generate necessary
information. This technique is useful when experts are physically dispersed, anonymity is desired or the participants are known to have problems in communicating with each other due to extreme differences of opinions. This technique also avoids the intimidation problems that may arise in face-to-face decision-making but at the same time it eliminates the fruitful results of direct interaction among group members.

(c) The Nominal Group Technique: This is a means of improving group decision-making. Whereas brain-storming is used mainly for generating ideas and alternatives, this technique may be used in other phases of decision-making such as identification of the problem and selecting appropriate criteria for evaluating alternatives. Here, the issue is presented to the group and each individual writes a list of ideas but no discussion is allowed among group members. After a five-to-ten minute period of generating ideas, individual members, by turns report their ideas to the group. The ideas are reported on a flip chart and members are encouraged to build on other people’s ideas and add to the list. After presenting all the ideas, the members discuss them and continue to build on them. This can be done by mail, telephone or computer but if done in a face-to-face meeting, members can develop a group feeling and use interpersonal relations with other members so that they put in their best in developing their lists. After the discussion, members privately rank the ideas or express their preferences or vote for ideas. Therefore, the
group may discuss the results and the ideas. This technique helps in overcoming the negative effects of power and status differences among group members, it can be used to explore problems, to generate alternatives or evaluate them. However, it has a structured nature which restricts creativity.

The following questions can be useful in problem-solving, whatever technique one may use for problem solving:

1. What can we add to the inputs or processes to improve them?
2. What can we eliminate or delete from inputs or processes so as to avoid damaging them?
3. How can we alter inputs/processes/outputs?
4. Can we rearrange various components of the system?
5. Are there any new uses of the resources?
6. Are there any new methodologies of teaching and/or evaluation?
7. Are there any alternative ways of attaining the goals?

**Motivational Skills**

We often find in our work-settings that some people work better than others in spite of having similar abilities, qualifications or experience. Questions that arise then are: What makes people work? Why some people put in more efforts than others? As managers, how do we get people to perform at higher rates and at the same time maintain satisfaction? The answer to these questions is motivation.
Nature of Motivation

The word motivation is derived from the Latin word ‘movere’ which means ‘to move’. Motivation, however, is not a simple concept. Steers and Porter (1991) define motivation as a set of forces that causes people to engage in one behaviour rather than some alternative behaviour. For example, we often find students studying for the entire night rather than sleeping/resting/attending a gathering.

However, apart from this, there are several other definitions of motivation which are given below.

Zedeck and Blood (1974) defined motivation as a predisposition to act in a specific goal-directed way.

On the other hand, according to Gellerman (1963), motivation refers to steering one’s actions towards certain goals and committing a certain part of one’s energies to reach them.

It is also defined as the immediate influences on the direction, vigour and persistence of action (Atkinson, 1964).

One of the older definitions of motivation was provided by Jones (1955) according to whom, motivation refers to how behaviour gets started, is energized, is sustained, is directed, is stopped and what kind of subjective reaction is present in the organism while all this is going on.
On the basis of the preceding definitions we may say that motivation is characterized by the following features:

(a) Motivation is an internal feeling which energizes people and drives them towards specific behaviour.

(b) It produces goal-directed behaviour.

(c) Forces within an individual and the surrounding external environments influence the behaviour of an individual, the intensity of the drive and the direction of their energy.

(d) Motivation can be positive leading to satisfactory performance or it can be negative leading to poor performance.

(e) It is an intangible concept or process. We may observe individuals’ behaviour and infer whether they are motivated or not but it is not possible to ascertain the exact reason behind their behaviour.

(f) Many of the needs of individuals keep changing over a period of time.

(g) People satisfy their needs in different ways.

(h) Behaviour is concerned with ‘what’ people do whereas motivation is concerned with ‘why’ they do it.

(i) Motivation and job satisfaction are not synonymous concepts though they may be associated with each other.
Managers strive to motivate employees for better performance in terms of making them put in more efforts, being punctual and regular in coming to the school/college and to positively contribute to institutional effectiveness.

This implies that to be an effective teacher, one must possess the competencies, knowledge, skills to teach (ability), must want to teach effectively (motivation) and must have the necessary books, teaching aids, space, other resources etc. to teach (environment).

A deficiency in any of these influences teacher performance adversely. A manager must make efforts to ensure that employees get all the three. If a teacher does not have the ability to teach, he/she may be trained and sent for staff development programmes. If he/she lacks the infrastructural facilities, an educational manager can take steps to provide them. However, if motivation is lacking, the manager faces a very complex situation and has to determine what will make the teacher work harder.

How to Motivate Learners

There are some general ways in which learners could be motivated. These are as follows:

1. Recognize the individuality of each learner.

2. Make them feel important.

Preach by Practicing it.

Show confidence in your Learners

Encourage participation in the classroom

Make your learners feel important.

Balance criticism with constructive suggestions and offer help.

**Curriculum Management**

Some people call it the accumulated tradition of organized knowledge contained in school/college subjects. Others view it as the modes of thinking and inquiring about the phenomena of our world. It is also considered to be ‘the accumulated experiences of the human race’.

*Definitions:* There are several definitions of the term curriculum some of which are described here.

In its broadest sense, it includes the complete environment of the institution incorporating all the courses, activities, readings and associations furnished to the students in the institution. According to Doll, the curriculum of an institution is the formal and informal content and process by which learners gain knowledge and understanding, develop skills and alter attitudes, appreciations and values under the auspices of that institution. In another definition, curriculum is defined as a plan for providing sets of learning
opportunities to achieve broad goals and related specific objectives for an identifiable population served by a single unit or institution.

Thus, a curriculum is characterized by the following features:

1. It is intended or anticipatory in nature.

2. It includes plans and sub-plans for the teaching-learning processes.

3. It includes guided, pie-selected learning experiences to which students need to be exposed.

4. It focuses on aims and objectives as well as the outcomes of being educated.

5. It incorporates a system of achieving educational production including curriculum design and planning, implementation and evaluation.

6. It is always meant for an identifiable population served by a single institution.

The term ‘curriculum’ refers to all planned activity involving students and teachers, teaching approaches and methods.

**Elements of a Curriculum**

A curriculum has five major components:

1. A framework of assumptions about the learner and the society such as learners’ capacity and ability, aptitudes and potential for learning,
motivation, needs, interests and values as well as society’s orientation to nurturing or using the individual gainfully.

2 Aims and objectives (i.e., why education should be provided and towards what direction).

3 Content or subject-matter with selection of what is to be taught and learnt, scope of the subject-matter and its sequence.

4 Modes of transaction which deals with the process of teaching- learning and includes methodology of teaching, learning experiences both within the institution and outside, learning environments, teachers’ material as well as students’ material.

5 Evaluation methods and techniques for students.

Curricula differ from each other on the basis of the extent of emphasis given to each of these elements, the extent and manner of linking these elements with each other and the style of decision-making pertaining to each of these elements. For example, one institution places more emphasis on the intellectual development of students whereas another institution emphasizes developing ideal, democratic citizens. The selection of subject-matter will, therefore, differ in these two institutions with the first institution incorporating programmes and activities aimed at developing rationality and thinking. Thus, both these institutions would believe in different theories of learning and teaching thereby differing in the nature and sequence of subject-matter and learning experiences.
Foundations of Curriculum

There are four major foundations of a curriculum described as follows:

(a) Philosophical Foundations

Philosophy of education performs three functions in determining curriculum:

(i) It justifies the inclusion of certain fields of knowledge in the curriculum such as literature, languages, sciences, logic, mathematics, social studies and so on.

(ii) It is on the basis of philosophical consideration of secularism that the Indian constitution does not allow religious instruction as a compulsory subject in educational institution. Thus, it provides a basis for justifying the exclusion of certain subjects from the curriculum.

(iii) It helps in the choice of specific content to be covered in each subject. For example, whether regional, national or international history should be taught and if so, at which level.

The Indian society is pluralistic and multi-cultural with co-existence of differentiated societies and differing ideologies. This gives rise to different preferences and interests of different groups in society thereby leading to varied curricula. However, the dominant groups dictate their own ideology in determining the curriculum. On the other hand, assertive groups in the society
raise questions about the validity of the dominant group’s ideological dictation concerning curricula.

An institution following the traditional philosophy, will assert the following dictums concerning its curriculum:

1. Certain subjects (such as logic) have more capacity to train the mind as compared to other subjects (such as languages).

2. Education is equivalent to imparting instruction.

3. Imparting knowledge and inculcating discipline among students is necessary so that they learn how to exercise their freedom.

4. Basically all people are the same and therefore they need the same curriculum.

5. Good citizens can be created through intellectual development.

6. Human beings should learn to accept and manage their existing environment.

As opposed to this an institution following radical, progressive philosophy will assert the following dictums concerning its curriculum:

1. All subjects have the potential to develop intellect.

2. Education implies creative self-learning.
Students will learn to exercise freedom through direct experiences in democratic living.

Individuals differ markedly from each other in terms of their needs, interests, environments and ability and therefore, require widely differentiated curricula.

Productive and functional citizens can be created by developing morals and useful skills in students.

Human beings should learn how to modify and to improve the environment around them.

Thus, our perceptions of what is good, proper, desirable and important will decide the kind of curriculum that we offer to our students. Our fundamental beliefs, premises or values as outlined earlier are conditioned by upbringing and by the group to which we belong. However, the responsibility of reconciling the different values held by different teachers, students or industrialists (employers) lies with the principal of the institution.

(B) Psychological Foundations

While planning a curriculum, students’ needs (for kind of activities, need for sleep and rest, for developing independence etc), their characteristics (muscular co-ordination, motor skills, age, etc.), individual differences in ability and aptitudes, interests should be kept in mind since the curriculum is ultimately meant for students. Other learner characteristics that need to be considered are
their maturity in thinking, tendency for hero-worship, search for their own roles, identity crisis, rationality in behaviour, mood-swings, systematization of problem-solving, narcissist tendencies and so on. These characteristics in turn can determine their needs such as desire to read and enjoy romantic literature, clubs for different subjects, reading biographies and autobiographies of great men and women, co-curricular activities, independent activities, activity-oriented teaching-learning, need for regularity in work, uniformity and impartiality as well as fairness in rules and punishments opportunity to learn to be a good leader as well as a good follower.

(C) Historical Foundations

The past history of a country or region also influences the curriculum. Some examples of the historical basis of curriculum are as follows:

(a) The university education in India was initiated by the British and therefore, English is predominantly the medium of instruction today in most parts of the country in higher education.

(b) The British wanted clerks from the local population for administrative duties of the routine type. Hence, they founded system of education in India to prepare clerks. Today, after half a century of independence, we have, by and large, a system education that produces clerks.

(c) From the days of the ancient Gurukul system, teachers are expected to perform their duties without any monetary expectations. Thus, even in
recent times of technological advances, teaching is not considered a profession in its true sense but a kind of ‘social service’ that the teachers are expected to perform.

(D) Social Foundations

The cultural environments of a country and the prevailing social norms, morals, values, etc. also have a major impact on curriculum. Some examples of this which are relevant in the Indian context are:

(a) Unduly high emphasis on cognitive development at the cost developing skills for manual work.

(b) We add new subjects in the syllabus at intervals but eliminate old ones with great difficulty.

(c) Very often at the higher education level, though there are lists of optional/elective subjects, students’ in reality has restrictions regarding choice of subjects.

Managing the Curriculum

Managing the curriculum implies the application of management functions and principles to curriculum. As a process, it incorporates three main stages:

(A) Planning.

(B) Operating.
(A) Planning

Planning a curriculum implies working out the educational philosophy of the institution. This stage is essentially that of policymaking wherein the purposes of the institution, its aims, goals, objectives and the means of bringing them to reality are identified.

This makes it necessary for us to first understand the terms aims, goals and objectives; determine their interrelationships and their overall relationship to the means and ends of the institution.

Aims: An aim can be broadly defined as a general statement which gives shape and direction to detailed intentions for the future. An aim is the starting point, an ideal, a destination to be reached and an aspiration. It provides the institution with the ‘vision’. To that extent, aims are unreal and hence they need to be clarified and redefined as and when required on the basis of subsequent actions. Aims provide us with the goals and objectives and guide us in selecting teaching-learning process, co-curricular activities and methods of evaluation.

For example, following are some of the educational aims:

1. To inculcate an interest in the subject of science and develop scientific attitude in students.
2. To build and maintain self confidence among students.
3. To develop rational thinking among students.
In other words, aims represent (a) a general statement of a value, (b) a direction in which energy and efforts should be concentrated in order to accomplish predetermined long-term intentions and (c) a suggestion that circumstances necessitate some changes.

**Goals**: Goals are also sometimes known as general objectives and are more explicit in nature. They are identified in the wider context of the aims. A goal describes the actual destination itself and is therefore more real and concrete as compared to aims. They are focused on activities rather than being visionary in nature. A goal is more precise and detailed.

**Objectives**: The goals express the strategy while objectives tactical in nature. They are highly explicit and operational as well quantifiable and time-bound. They explicitly and clearly describe what student will think, feel or act at the end of a learning experience. The basic school of thought behind this technique of describing activities in observable and quantifiable terms is behaviourism and therefore, these are usual referred to as behavioural objectives.

While planning a curriculum, an attempt should be made to answer the following questions by involving all the stakeholders: teachers, students, market, and community:

1. What are the aims, goals and objectives of the institution? What values does it emphasize?

2. How do we prioritize our aims?
3 What social, cultural, economic, ideological and technical changes do we anticipate in future?

4 What are their implications for the education?

5 What are the opportunities and threats? How do we focus on and benefit from opportunities while minimizing the threats?

6 How do we adapt the curriculum to the changing internal and external environment?

7 What kind of resources we have and need further to fulfill the expectations held? How do we mobilize further resources?

8 What should be our plan of action?
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