Educational Leadership and Management

Course Code 8605

B.Ed 1 ½ year
B.Ed 2 ½ year

Department of Early Childhood Education and Elementary Teacher Education

ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY ISLAMABAD
Educational Leadership and Management

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DEPARTMENT OF EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION & ELEMENTARY TEACHER EDUCATION
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY, ISLAMABAD
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FORWARD

Education is a process of learning and learning is a permanent change in behaviour. Behaviour consists of feeling, knowing, thinking and acting. The change of behaviour is brought through knowledge, attitude and skills. The system of education is devised to inculcate the philosophy, social norms and skills for economic activities into the students to create a progressive society. Education is considered as the most effective change agent.

Education can play its role only effectively if it is managed properly. The leadership and management of education can ensure its fruitfulness. Philosophy, psychology and sociology of education bring desired change if education is managed and supervised properly. The importance of this course is more than many others because the effective change is initiated from the managers to the teachers and then to the students. If the managers, administrators and supervisor are well versed in their functions, the desired change can be made more easily.

It is established fact that administrator is an important agent for running the education system effectively. So administrator either a supervisor or planner must be need mastery and skills in his field and profession. For this purpose the existing course of educational management and supervision is the best effort of teachers’ education department for meeting, observing and coping the administrating, managing and supervising and planning requirement and maxims.

So, I congratulate the course writers and reviewers for their professional input in development of this course, particularly Dr. Naveed Sultana, the course coordinator.

Dean Faculty of Education
Prof. Dr. Shahid Siddiqui
Vice-Chancellor
COURSE INTRODUCTION

It has become the dire need for society that everyone must have a specialization in every field of life due to rapid expansion of knowledge. Education modifies the behaviour of a person, thus education can perform this duty well if the system of education runs effectively. For making, developing and establishing the education system administration, management and supervision to play an important role as well as in all other aspects of society. In Pakistan the existing system of educational management and supervision is considered as defective system which does not cope the national, and local level needs of education system. There are so many reasons. One reason is that we cannot yet established a firm administrative structure for education system. It is always uncertain and wavering. So it is the need of our educational institution to prepare those personnel at higher level who are highly skilled professional trained and capable in their field particularly in school management and leadership. So the present course of educational management and supervision observes and envisages the promotion of educational leadership management and supervision.

The primary purpose of the educational leadership management and supervision is the development and improvement of knowledge, understanding and skill in leadership, administration management and supervision. It focuses on important elements of educational management supervision.

The effort has been made in this course of highlight all important features of educational management and supervision. For this purpose, Unit 1 highlights the importance, principles and approaches of educational administration as well as Islamic model of administration, Unit 2 describes the concept of school management. Unit 3 highlights the concept, kinds, purposes techniques of supervision and qualities and role of supervisor. Unit 4 describes the educational planning. Unit 5 highlights the concepts purpose, factors of school discipline. Similarly student classification criteria and it psychological factors are also involved in this unit, Unit 6 explains the management resources and Unit 7 describes school record. Unit 8 highlights the administrative and supervisory structure in
Pakistan. Unit 9 describes the concept, importance and effective role of evaluation in improving the management system. System of evaluation and criteria is also discussed.

We wish to express our indebtedness to the writers and reviewers of this course who put their ideas and efforts in the preparation of this course. We all are thankful the worthy Vice-Chancellor, Prof. Dr. Shahid Siddiqui whose commitment to quality education and encouraging attitude enable the course development teach to accomplish the task in more congenial environment. Although the utmost efforts have been made by the course-coordinator and other unit writers. Hence, mad made things always possess the chance of mistake so any criticism and suggestion for the improvement and revision of next volume will be welcomed.

Dr. Naveed Sultana
Course coordinator
UNIT-1

CONCEPT OF ADMINISTRATION

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Introduction

The word ‘administration’, as the Latin root ‘minister’ suggests, means services, i.e., worked dedicated to the good of others. The main objective of administration, therefore, is to secure for an individual or society, or the nation, such environment which may lead to their fullest growth and development.

Today more than five thousand men and women are entrusted with the responsibility of administering education in the country. While majority of them are of professional background, a few have been natured in the school of experience. The total look towards educational administration has undergone rapid changes during the recent years.

Objectives

After studying this Unit you will be able:

1. To describe the meaning, nature, importance and scope of educational administration.
2. To apply the principles of administration in concerned field.
3. To discuss the approaches to educational management and administration.
4. To relate Islamic concept of administration
5. to describe the principles and a dynamics of Islamic administration model.
1.1 Educational Administration Meaning and Nature

Administration is a machinery through which any organization or institution can be managed. It is a mean set up for a smooth and efficient working of educational structure. Educational administration is the direction, control and management of all matters pertaining to school affairs. direction is the leadership within the community and the school system. Control and management are the means for realization of purposes defined in educational planning. Education is in the control of the state as certain controls are at the state level in the form of constitutional provisions, enactments and also as executive activities. Management designates a broad function, which the responsibilities related to the school, pupils, teachers and other affairs related to the school.

Russel T. Gregg defines, “Educational administration is the process of utilizing appropriate materials in such a way as to promote effectively the development of human qualities. It is concerned not only with the development of children and youth but also with the growth of adults and particularly with the growth of school personnel.

Good’s Dictionary of Education defines educational administration as, “All those techniques and procedures employed in operating the educational organization in accordance with established policies.”

Educational administration is concerned with the dealing and also coordinating the activities of groups of people. It is the dynamic side of education. Educational philosophy sets the goal; educational psychology explains the principles of teaching and educational administration deals with the educational practices. It is planning, directing controlling, executing and evaluating the educative process.

The scope of educational administration is very vast. It includes every thesis regarding the efficient functioning of the educational institutions, securing the greatest benefits to the greatest number through an adoption of practical measures. It interprets and clarifies the functions and the activities educational programme in fruitful relationship and also harmonises their mutual action. It ensures sound educational planning, good direction and efficient and systematic execution.

A good administration is one, which exhibits human activity at its best. The ingredients of good administration are:

1. Associated performance-Human beings work in close collaboration and there is sharing of responsibilities.
2. Organized purpose-well-defined purposes are achieved through sharing of responsibilities.

3. Creativity-through dynamic approach. The group proceeds towards it goal.

4. Achievement – the feeling of achievement makes an administrator to take more efforts to achieve perfection. Administration also involves different kinds of activities to achieve its purpose and to perform the functions related to it.

a) Importance of Educational Administration

The purpose of educational administration is to enable an organization or an institution to carry out its functions with maximum efficiency. It also enables the right pupils to receive the right education and from the right teachers at a cost which should be within the means of state, and which will enable the pupils to profit from their learning. The basic purpose is to bring students and teachers together under such conditions which will successfully promote the end of the education. The major purposes are:

i) To frame well-defined policies and programmes so that teaching, learning situation results in the growth and development of human beings.

ii) To make use of appropriate materials to bring about the effective development of human qualities.

iii) To execute the programmes and activities of the organization so that its objectives may be achieved.

iv) To assure the growth of children and adults and all the people involved in the management.

The other important purposes are:

1. Achievement of Goals

Educational Administration is not a goal in itself rather it is the means to achieve goals. It must serve the aims of education. If education is a tool for social transformation, it must inculcate and generate a sense of identification and a sense of one’s fellow beings. Educational Administration is concerned with human and material resources. The human elements are pupils, parents, teachers and other employees in general at different levels. On the material side, there are money buildings, equipments and instructional supplies. Beyond these two elements are
ideas, curricula, courses of study, methods, principles, laws and regulations, community needs, and so on. The integration of these parts as a whole is a challenge for the Administrator; rather these should be effectively used to achieve the goals of education.

2. **Economy**
The administrative setup should check that human material resource should be economically used to achieve maximum benefits. Wastage of any, resource should be avoided. Education in the developing countries is consistently administered poorly. It involves extraordinarily high monetary cost and lacks in planning and coordination. For the most efficient mobilization of a country resource, it is very important that the plans for the development of economy and for developing human resources should be coordinated.

3. **Conservation of Resources**
From the standpoint of economic development three factors are of basic importance i.e. natural resources, physical capital and human resources. Natural resources are not only determining factor in economic development. Investment is directly related to economic development but varies greatly in its effectiveness. The problem is not only to bring about an increase in the share of natural produce, but also to bring about a more desirable allocation of investment. To make full use of capital investment, a qualified managerial, engineering and labour force is essential for selection, operation and maintenance of such investments. Therefore, to bring about development using education, it is desirable to conserve the three types of resources.

4. **Optimum use of Resources**
These resources should be used in such a way that one should get the maximum benefit out of them for good and efficient administration.

b) **Scope of Educational Administration**

Fayol considered administration as a way to plan, to organize, to command, to co-ordinate and to control education.

Planning is an intellectual activity, which is performed on the basis of facts and principles. It plans its activities in such a way that the objectives for which it has come into existence can be achieved.

To organize the means of arrangements, by which interrelationship along with order for people, materials, procedure, knowledge and the work can be done.
Command or to direction involves the execution of plans and decisions and makes the staff do their work.

Coordination requires harmonizing in a unified manner all the elements involved in the programme. It seeks the cooperation of all who are involved in the administration.

By control we can see that everything is carried out in accordance with the rules, which have been laid down in the instructions, in other words, it is evaluations.

Fayol’s idea was further developed by Gulick and Urwick. The formula of the functions of administration was referred to as POSDCORB, involving.

**Planning:**
The establishment of the formal structure of authority through which work subdivisions are arranged, defined and coordinated for defined objectives.

**Organizing:**
The establishment of the formal structure of authority through which work subdivisions are arranged, defined and coordinated for defined objectives.

**Staffing:**
The personnel function of bringing in and training the staff and maintaining favourable conditions for work.

**Directing:**
It is a continuous task of making decisions and also deciding on specific and general orders and instructions and serving as the teacher of enterprise.

**Coordinating:**
It is the important aspect of inter-relating the various parts of the work.

**Reporting:**
Keeping the those records of who are answerable to executive and also to inform him about what is going on, and keeping himself and his subordinate informed through records research and inspection.

**Budgeting:**
It is the financial planning, accounting and control.
**Planning:**
It involves the identification and classification of objectives and scope of operation. It also investigates to reveal the condition which is affecting the achievement of objectives.

**Organizing:**
Organization means taking those steps by which, the people who are involved in administration remain in cooperative manner with each other and are prepared to contribute their best to the joint activity of their talents and their energies are optimally utilized.

**Decision Making:**
It is the art of executive decision to be taken on pertinent questions which are not pre-mature and which can be effective and can be put into action.

**Stimulating:**
A successful administrator makes all efforts to provide stimulation to the member of the organization in order to get their cooperation spontaneously to achieve the goals. He avoids the exercise of authority. He does not give specific direction but helps them to attain the highest level of creativity.

**Coordinating:**
It is the bringing up of appropriate relationships between people and the thing which are necessary for the organization to achieve the objectives and involves the allotment of duties and responsibilities also help the organization of all activities of the individuals.

**Communicating:**
It is process by which direct-information, ideas, explanations and questions are transmitted from person to person or from group to group. There are three channels of communication process:

1. **Upward Communication** is from teachers to the principals to district officials and to directorate etc.
2. **Horizontal Communication**, which runs along the same level of workers and enables the colleagues to be conversant with activities of the organization. There is no situation of subordination or superiority.
3. **Downward Communication**, where the flow of communication ideas, suggestions and commands, are from senior officers towards juniors.
Evaluating:
In this process whatever activities are performed, are put to test in order to find out the extent by which they provided success in the accomplishment of set goals. It is done to find out the weak spots and to make improvement in future by overcoming the deficiencies. Evaluation is done through cooperative studies, surveys, testing programmes, opinion polls, etc.

The administrative set-up should also see that elasticity and dynamism are introduced in the working of the system. Education administration cannot be rigid and static. Experimentation, trial and errors have to be allowed freely in the administration of education. Freedom is the very soul of education. Educational administration should enjoy the freedom to frame aims and ideals and put them into practice. There should be a change in the attitude of administrators who should cultivate openness of mind and a spirit of enquiry rather than a rule of the thumb approach, which tried to stick to, established practices even though they are meaningless. The practice of holding periodic reviews at least every three to five years is an important administrative practice to discard the old and introduce new practices, Inter-state contact should be built up and comparative analysis of different state practices should be encouraged. The evolution of the techniques of the detailed programming of the planned projects and by giving training in them should be the responsibility of the national Institute of Educational Planners and Administrators. The officer-oriented system where most of the work will be done by the officers at their own level should be practiced.

1.2 Approaches to Educational Management and Administration

In one sense, administration is one of the most ancient factors of all human endeavours. The Egyptians organized and administered vast complex enterprises that required sophisticated planning, complex organizations, skilled leadership and detailed coordination, at least two thousand years before the birth of Christ. Similarly, the Chinese are known to have had highly systematic, large scale systems at about same time as the pyramids were built, which used many of the management concepts, which are still in use today. Nearer to us in time and better known to most of us are the ideas and concepts that underlay the establishment of the reputed civil services of Europe and Great Britain in the nineteenth century. Two key nations provided the essential rationale for civil services.

1. The idea that administration is an activity that can be studied and taught separately from the content of what is being administered.
2. The belief that decisions about the policies and purposes of government belong to the realm of political action but that these decisions are best
implemented by civil servants whose jobs are not dependent on the whims of politicians and who are free to develop good administrative procedures.

In the United States in the nineteenth century, the term administration was used in the context of the government and the idea it represented gave rise to the growth of public administration, although civil service in America tended to connote a system which is designed to ensure honesty and fairness rather than the expertise associated with the European and British systems.

Industrial revolution brought about a change in the concept of general administration, which, in turn, reflected in educational management and administration.

Fredrick W. Taylor developed what later became known as his four principles of scientific management. They were:

1. Eliminate the guesswork of rule of thumb. Try to find out the approaches in deciding how each worker has to do a job by adopting scientific measurements, to break the job into a series of small, related tasks.
2. Use more scientific, systematic methods for selection of workers and training them for specific jobs.
3. Establish the concept that there is a clear division of responsibility between management and workers, as management has to do the goal setting, planning and supervision and workers executing the required tasks.
4. Establish the discipline in which management sets the objectives and the workers cooperate in achieving them. These became enormously popular not only in industry, but also in the management of all kinds of organization, including the family.

At the same time that Taylor’s ideas and their application were having such enormous impact on American life; a French industrialist was working out some powerful ideas of his own. Unlike Taylor, who tended to view workers as the extensions of factory machinery, Fayol focused his attention on the role of manager rather than the worker. He clearly separated the process of administration from other operations in the organization, such as production, and emphasized on the common elements of the process of administration of different organizations.

Fayol believed that a trained administrative group was essential for improving the operations of organizations, which were becoming increasingly complex. He
defined administration in terms of five functions: planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating, and controlling.

A German sociologist, Max Weber, produced some of the most useful, durable, and brilliant works on administrative system: it seemed promising at that time and since from that time has proved indispensable: bureaucracy. According to Weber, the bureaucratic apparatus should be very impersonal, minimizing irrational, personal, and emotional factors and thus leaving bureaucratic personnel free to work with a minimum of friction or confusion. This, he concluded, would result in expert and impartial service to the organization’s clients.

Since the concept of scientific management called for the scientific study of jobs to the performed, professors of educational administration undertook to describe and analyze what role was played by school superintendents on the job. As the study of problems of organization, management, and administration became established more and more firm, the principle of scientific management received increased attention, also faced challenges from scholars and practitioners.

Luther Gulick and Lyndall Urwick stand out among many scholars who attempted to synthesize what is now known as the classical formulation of principles, which would be useful in developing good functional organizations. They advocated that elements of the organization could be grouped and related according to function, geographic location, or similar criteria.

The work of May Parker Follett was unique in the development of management thought. Her ideas were rooted in the classical traditions of organizational theory but matured in such a way that she, in effect, bridged the gap between scientific management and the early industrial psychologists. Her ideas were instrumental in modifying the trend toward rigidly structuralist views in classical management theory and provided a rationale that was helpful in ushering the human relations movement which pioneered conceptualizing about what today is called contingency theory. Follett, first, viewed management as a social process and second, saw it inextricably enmeshed in the particular situation. She did not see authority as flowing from top of the organization’s hierarchy to be parcelled out among those in lower levels. In 1932, she sought the summaries her views by developing four principles of sound administration. The first two were coordinated by direct contact of responsible people and coordination in early stages. The third was coordinated as the reciprocal relating of all the factors in the situation and, finally, coordination as a continuing process which recognized that management is an ever changing dynamic process in response to emergency.
situations, sharp contrast to traditional, static, classic views that sought to codify universal principles of action.

In the time when the principles of scientific management were applied to industry with greater care, a need to be more precise about the, effect of human factors on production efficiency was felt. Elton Mayo along with other investigators made available to the administrators the five concepts: Morale, group dynamics democratic supervision, personal relations and behavioral concept of motivation. These human relations, particularly the group dynamics movement attracted social and behavioural scientists, who had already been studying the phenomena whether human behaviour of individuals is interacting with one another in groups.

Robert Bales was the first man to document that successful groups tend to have people in them who always play two key roles: It is necessary for someone to keep the group focused in accomplishing its task and at the same time, it is necessary for every successful group to have someone to see that the group is paying attention for maintaining productive human relations within the group. These two dimensions of group behaviour-task orientation and maintenance orientation have proved to be of lasting value in understanding the dynamics of group functioning.

Leadership was of great interest for those concerned with organizations and social scientists did not take too long in realizing that, unlike the classical view, leadership is not something that “great people” or individuals with formal legal authority do to their subordinates, but rather, is a processor which involved dynamic interaction with subordinates.

Classical or bureaucratic concepts of organizations are sometimes said to focusing on organizations without people. There is such great emphasis on formal organizational structure and high rational logic control that people are often viewed as those who can fit into the structure on the organization’s terms. Human relationship concepts, on the other hand, are often said to be deep within the organization. Because management/administrative science always an effective performance for goal seeking, and formal organization as its central focus. Organizational behaviour is also closely linked with that of science also. Management and administration necessarily must bear the responsibility for establishing internal management of the organizations so as to achieve maximum effectiveness.

A new concept of acceptance developed among students of educational administration, which recognized the dynamic interrelationships between the
structural characteristics of the organization and the personal characteristics of the individual. Using his insight, students of organization began to conceptualize organizations such as school system and schools’ social system. Unlike informal human social systems, the school systems and schools may be classified as follows:

a) They are specifically goal-oriented.
b) The work to be done so as to achieve goals is divided into subtasks and assigned as official duties to established positions in the organizations.
c) These positions are arranged hierarchically in the formal organization and authority relationships are clearly established.
d) General and impersonal organizational rules govern, to a large extent, what people do in their official capacity and also, to a large extent, shape and delimit the interpersonal interactions of people in the organizations.

In the years 1955-1970, there was a great outpouring of theorizing and research in educational administration which explored public school systems and schools. Denial Griffith’s initiated landmark work on decision-making in educational administration. Research in the field of educational administration revealed the importance of behavioural perspectives, that is, the Human Resources Management (HRM). Here the educational organizations are characterized not by their order, rationality and system inheritance in classical thinking, but by ambiguity and uncertainty in their fast changing environments, unclear and conflicting goals, weak technology, fluid participation and loose coupling of important activities and organizational units. However, non-instructional activities of educational organization, such as financial accounting, pupil accounting and the transportation system, are commonly managed by using bureaucratic perspectives and techniques. Thus, HRM schools and other educational organizations are understood to be dual organizational systems.

**Conclusion**

Educational administration becomes as essential as education: it is the practical side of education, which has a scientific basis. The contribution of administration:

1. To implement the policies and other decisions of the legislative body.
2. To clarify and pursue the predetermined objectives, directions and priorities of the enterprise.
3. To assemble and insure the prudent use of resources.
4. To help increase the productivity of all employed personnel.
5. To unify and coordinate human efforts and material resource use.
6. To monitor progress towards the realization of objectives.
7. To create desirable organizational climate and professional working relationships within the organization.
8. To appraise the quality and effectiveness of strategies selected and personnel employed to pursue various objectives.
9. To help project the image of the institution and its personnel as effective, productive and dynamic entities.
10. To report to the legislative body and the people on the stewardship of authority and responsibilities.

1.3 Basic Principles of Educational Administration

a) Principle of Democratic Leadership
Leadership is derived not from status or power under the law but from the situation by showing ability to deal with the problems. The supervisor, as a leader, does not impose his whims but arrives at certain conclusions through group thinking and cooperative decision-making. “It means a sharing responsibility for achieving a successful outcome rather than throwing the weight of authority behind a wrong judgment”.

In this principle there is a fact that teacher should be involved in full, fair and frank discussion based upon a mutual recognition of the personal worth of the other person. Such a discussion must reach specific conclusions and concrete proposals, set down in writing so that the teachers and the supervisor can check progress from time to time.

b) Principle of Co-operation
Co-operation implies:
   i. Participation in an activity to attain a certain goal, and
   ii. A sense of responsibility on the part of the teacher that he is a co-worker, not a slave. It assumes that the best solution of any problem is not known to any single person but it can be known through mutual help and discussion. Even if the supervisor knows a better method of teaching a unit or organizing a class of pupils, he does not hand it down to the teacher dogmatically. He simply discussed the problem with the teacher, thinks with him of the various possible solutions, helps him to make a choice and encourage him to implement the decision which they have mutually arrived at. Such a cooperative effort raised teacher’s morale encourages creativity and develops a sense of responsibility on his part. It also develops a climate in which teachers tend to change.
c) Principle of Scientific method
This principle focuses attention upon getting the facts, upon analyzing the situation, as it exists and upon drawing objective conclusions. The supervisor should use the scientific method in making decisions as well as in determining needs, examining resources, planning procedures and evaluating results.

d) Principle of Coordination
This principle assumes that a school or a group of schools is so such organized that all teachers work as coordinated parts rather than individuals. It, however, does not mean that the individuals should lose their identities. There is need for coordinating instructional work and other activities in a certain subject through all the schools classes as well as in various subjects in the same classes. Without such an effort on the part of the supervisor the main purpose of education, i.e. balanced development of child’s personality cannot be achieved.

Another important implication of this principle is that school and community efforts to provide formal and non-formal learning experiences to the children, who should also have the same focus and direction. Supervision must play an important role in coordinating school and community efforts as well.

e) Principle of Flexibility
this principle implies that rules, procedures and standards should be adjustable to meet the requirements changing conditions. Not only that each individual is different from the other but the same individual may reach a goal with different ways in similar situations and at different times. The supervisor must recognize and respect individual differences in teachers, as should the later do in respect of children. He should also adjust supervisory activities according to the individual needs of teachers.

The principles of flexibility do not mean lowering the standards; it simply means an adjustment of an arrangement or method so as to create a more favourable environment for an individual’s growth and improvement. It also means that the teacher should be provided with a variety of instructional aids and materials, that the standards and the procedures should be so modified as to fit different schools and communities (in urban and rural areas), and that supervisor must be fully aware of the personal and professional problems of every teacher to be able to provide individual guidance.

f) Principle of Planning
Successful accomplishment of the objectives of an organization implies planning. Planning involves both deciding what to do and determining how this is to be
done i.e. identification of the objectives and laying out of the alternatives for the achievements of the objectives. Effective supervision, too, depends, for its success, on careful planning. Planning is a cooperative enterprise. Besides clear vision of goals and foresight of consequences, planning must be based on the thinking of the persons concerned, their needs and aspirations.

To quote Ayer, “a supervisor without a plan has no point of departure and no destination” some of the reasons given by him for supervisory planning are that:

1. The supervisor should have thought the situation, analyzed it selected for his attention the weak spots new needs;
2. He has conceived before-hand professional activities directed to the achievement of certain definite objectives.
3. He has provided for the coordination of the work of all; and
4. He has developed a basis for evaluation

**g) Principle of Evaluation**

Evaluation is one of the basic functions of supervision. It is more than testing pupils or rating teachers. It aims at the improvement of persons, and products involved. It is a process of making judgment by which more planning for improvement is possible. To be effective the supervisor must be able to evaluate school situations as well as his own role in the professional growth of teachers. He should have developed evaluative criteria with the cooperation of teachers to assess teaching, learning and supervision.

### 1.4 Meaning and Spirit of Islamic Administration

The Holy Quran is the real basis of Islamic life and its actual legislation is very limited. Muslims are free to legislate as needs arise, in the spirit of social justice. The few laws in the Holy Quran are often permissive and give large latitudes to suit any change in circumstances. Qamarudin Khan, Professor of Islamic History, Karachi University, is of the opinion that “the Holy Quran does not aim to create a state but to create a society”. So whatever clearly stated laws given by Allah (SW.T) and His messenger about life and society. No one is allowed to deviate from them even by a hair’s breath. Calling the Prophet Muhammad (S.A.W) the ideal philosopher – king, who surpasses in both theory and practice the qualities which Plato sought in his ideal, are found from a famous Hadith of the Prophet Muhammad (S.A.W) as the founder and theoretician of administration of Islamic state had a unique position as its executive head. In fact he was a legislator (through divine revelation as well his personal pronouncements and practice all of which acquired a sacred character for the Muslims), executive as well as a jurist.
He was not answerable to any one as for as the revealed commands were concerned. But, in the absence of divine revelations, it was his wont to consult his companions. In fact he was command by Allah (S.W.T) to do so. The Holy Quran commands the Prophet “And consult them (i.e. those around you) in (important) matters.

So the two essential and primary ingredients of the Islamic administration theory are the Ummah and the Shari’ah. These concepts are clearly elaborated in the Holy Quran. Prophet Muhammad (S.A.W) was himself the focal point of these two concepts. Therefore, with the death of the Prophet, the Prophecy came to an end. Thus there was created a gap between the Shariah and the Ummah. The new link was created by the Ijma of the community in the form of the institution of the Khilafah which constitutes the third element of Islamic political theory. The fourth element would be the concept of Dar al-Islam and the Mumin living therein.

The question arises that Islam favours the theocracy or democracy administrative setup. Mulana Maududi says, the Islamic theocracy does not mean a rule by any priestly class but it means common Muslims wielding reigns of power. But the Muslims have to wield this power in keeping with the Book of Allah (S.W.T) and Sunnah, of His Prophet. Maududi prefers to call the Islamic form of government as “theo-democracy”. In this form of government Muslims have been allowed a limited popular sovereignty under the paramountcy of Allah (S.W.T).

For knowing the Islamic concept of administration, the Islamic state in Medina is the great example to turn to if one is to resolve the various problems of the modern Islamic world. According to this view the Islamic state in Medina was governed pursuant to the divine precepts of Muhammad (S.A.W). Take, as an example, to the following quotation from Imam Khomeini.

“The most noble Messenger (Peace and Blessings be Upon Him) headed the executive and administrative institutions of Muslims society. In addition to conveying revelation and expounding and interpreting the articles of faith and the ordinances and institutions of Islam, he undertook the implementation of law and the establishment of the ordinance of Islam, thereby bringing into being the Islamic state. He did not content himself with the promulgation of law, rather he implemented it at the same time, cutting off hands and administering lashing and stoning. After the most noble Messenger, his successor had the same duty and function”.

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Overall to know the Islamic concept of administration a letter of Hazrat Umar the second caliph of Islam, wrote to the governor of Kufa, Abu Musa Ashari on the principles of justice. He wrote: administration of justice is a necessary duty. Treat people equally be it in private audience or public sitting in matters of justice so that the weak should not despair of your justice and the strong should not hope for favour. It is for the plaintiff to produce proof and it is for the defendant to deny on oath. Compromise is permissible provided it does not violate what has been permitted or prohibited (by Shariah). If you have passed any judgment yesterday there would be nothing wrong in reversing it today on second thought in the interest of justice. If it is not there in the Quran or Hadith contemplate over it deeply taking into account examples. Similar cases and drawing analogies. Fix a time limit for the plaintiff to produce proof justice be done to him if the produces proof or else, his case be demised.

1.5 **Fundamental Principles of Islamic Administration**

An Islamic administration is based on the sovereignty of Allah (S.W.T):

According to Islamic constitutional theory Absolute sovereignty over the entire universe belongs to Allah (S.W.T) but since Man has been appointed Allah’s (S.W.T) representative (Khalifa) on earth, earthly sovereignty vests in him as a sacred trust from Allah (S.W.T). So, Muslim administrator must follow the following principles for governing the state which is known as Islamic state.

1. The Islamic administration will preserve and defend the law of Allah derived from Quran and Sunnah.
2. The Ijma of the past is not binding upon the people. All state functioners have to dedicate themselves to defending the divine law. The head of the state should always be a Muslim.
3. All subject, Muslim and non-Muslims, shall be guaranteed equal civil rights.
4. Men and women shall enjoy the same fundamental rights women can hold property in their own name.
5. The Chief executive will be elected by the people and govern through consultation.
6. Islam seeks to set up a just society and therefore, attaches the highest importance to justice, equity and fair dealing. So two important constitutional principles are founded on this:
   i. That everyone is equal before the law and enjoys equal opportunities.
   ii. That in an Islamic State even the head of the state can be sued not only as private individual but also in respect of his public acts.
7. Non-Muslims will be guaranteed full protection of life, property and liberty in lieu of a reasonable protection tax/Jizya.

8. Only a democratic form of government is prescribed by Islam. The Quran states: And those who respond to their Lord and keep up prayer, and their rule is to take counsel among themselves. The Quran instructs even the Prophet to seek advice: Therefore, forgive and ask pardon for them, and consult them in the affairs.

9. The state should maintain an equitable distribution of wealth. Concentration of wealth in a few hands should not be allowed.

10. The state should strive to achieve equality of human beings. Adequate opportunities should be provided for employment, education and other welfare benefits.

11. Maximum freedom should be available to the citizens:

   The Quran offers the following fundamental rights to the citizens of an Islamic state which must be observed by Muslim administrator;

   a. Equality of all citizens before the law as well as equality of status and opportunity
   b. Freedom of religion
   c. The right to life
   d. The right to property
   e. No one is to suffer for the wrong of others
   f. Freedom of person
   g. Freedom of opinion
   h. Freedom of movement
   i. Freedom of association
   j. The right to privacy
   k. The right to secure basic necessities of life
   l. The right to reputation
   m. The right to a hearing
   n. The right to a decision in accordance with proper judicial procedure.

12. Last but not least, comes the concept of accountability. Authority or power to rule, according to Islam, is a trust – ‘Amanat’ – of the people and not the birthright of anyone. So the concept of trust automatically brings in that of accountability, because a trustee is in law liable to account. Under the Islamic system this liability extends to rendering account not only to the people who appoint him but also to Allah as it is the also Quranic injunction.
1.6 Dynamics of Islamic Model

The Islamic concept of polity cannot be disengaged from certain conceptions of society, which Islam upheld. The Islamic state is a culmination of a great social process of shift from polytheism to monotheism, from rule by custom to rule by law, from natural relationship based on blood analogous to it to a moral and spiritual association, from natural monarchy to power delegated by Allah (S.W.T). In Arabic terminology, it meant a movement away from shirk to Towhid from Jahallya to Shariah from Asabiyya to Taqwa and from Mulk to Wilaya. “For an orthodox Muslim society, history was the process by which the society of religious ignorance, directed to worldly ends, held together by natural solidarity and ruled by kings, was replaced by the ideal Muslim society. The central issue was however, the embodiment of the will of Allah (S.W.T) as revealed in Quran, in history, society and state.

1.6.1 The Structure of Islamic Model

i. Sovereignty of Allah (S.W.T)
   In an Islamic state, sovereignty belongs on to Allah (S.W.T) this means that the injunctions given in the Quran will be the only source for deriving the legal and constitutional formula of the state. An Islamic state can neither be a monarch, nor theocracy nor a secular democracy. It is a based on ‘controlled democracy’ which means that the Quranic injunctions form the absolute, unalterable supreme law of the land and the people exercise their freedoms within the limits imposed by the Quran.

ii. The Sunnah and Hadith
   It is called the tradition of the Prophet is the second and undoubtly a secondary, source from which the Islamic law are drawn. Sunnah literally means a way, rule or manner of acting. In its original sense, therefore, Sunnah indicates the doings and Hadith the sayings of the Holy Prophet (PBUH) but in effect both cover same ground and are applicable to his actions, practices and sayings; Hadith being the narration and record of the Sunnah: but containing, in addition, various Prophlical and historical elements of Islam. As the Holy Quran generally deals with the broad principles of or essentials of Islam the details are generally to be supplied by the Sunnah of the Holy Prophet.

iii. Ijtihad
   While keeping in view the typical conventional beliefs about the Sharia being a complete code of life. Asad (1961) argues forcefuly for greater
scope for free legislation. He asserts that the actual Sharia includes a small number of laws based on the Quran Sunnah. The rest are laws resulting from the Ijtihad of every age. Such laws based on the independent reasoning of earlier Muslim scholars have no sacrosanct value and can therefore, be changed and replaced. Every generation has the right to exercise Ijtihad in the temporal areas. So Ijtihad is the third source from which the laws are drawn. The following Hadith is regarded as the basis of Ijtihad in Islam:

“On being appointed Governor of Yemen. Muadh Bin Jabal was asked by the Holy Prophet as the rule by which he would adjudicate. He replied “by the law of the Quran”. “But if you do not find any direction in the Quran. How would you decide”, asked the Prophet. He replied, “I will apply the Hadith and Sunnah”. “But if you do not find any guidance in the Hadith as well?” He was again asked, “I will then exercise my judgment and act on that, “came the reply. The Prophet raised his hands and said, “Praise be to Allah who guides His messenger as he pleases.” This Hadith show not only that the Holy Prophet approved of the exercise of judgment but also that his companions were well aware of the principles and that Ijtihad was freely restored by his followers, when necessary, even in the Prophet” lifetime.

iv. Ijma
The fourth source of Islamic Law is Ijma, which carries the double significance of composing and settling a thing which has seen unsettled and hence determining and resolving upon an affair, and of agreeing or uniting in opinion. In the terminology of the Muslim jurists, Ijma means a consensus of the Mujtahids, or an agreement of the Muslim jurists, of a particular age on a point of law. Ijma, however, is not an independent source of law; it is only Ijtihad on a wider basis and like Ijtihad, it is always open to revision.

1.6.2 Duties of Islamic Administrator
An administrator of the Islamic state must keep in view and be a follower of above discussed sources of law. He must also posses following duties:

1. Dispensation of justice and disposal of all litigations in accordance with Shariah and thus putting the strong and weak on the same pedestal.
2. Maintenance of law and order to make it possible for the people to lead peaceful life and proceed in their economic activities freely, and travel in the land without fear.
3. Enforcement of the criminal code of the Quran so that people do not violate the prohibitions of Allah (S.W.T); this is in fact is subsumed in the first duty itself to enforce Shari’ah.

4. Defence of the frontiers against foreign invasions to guarantee the security of life and property to Muslims and non-Muslims both in the Islamic State.

5. Organization and prosecution of religious war against those who oppose the call of Islam or refuse to enter the protection of the Islamic state as non-Muslim subject as the leader is bound by the covenant of Allah (S.W.T) to establish the supremacy of Islam over all other religions and faiths.
1.7 Activities

1. Keeping in view the fundamental principles of Islamic administration and then compare these with your school head’s roles or deeds. Explore and enlist how much he/she follows those principles.

2. Discuss the different approaches with school principal. And ask which approach he does like, and why. Then enlist his views about that approach.

3. Discuss the dynamics of Islamic model with your administrator. And ask him about those causes which hinder for observing those dynamics.

1.8 Exercise

1. Explain the concept of education administration.

2. Discuss different approaches of educational administration and explore which approach is to be used by our administrator.

3. Discuss the fundamental principles of Islamic administration. And give reasons. Why do not our administrators follow these principles?

4. Discuss the importance of dynamics of Islamic administration model for improving the existing role of our administrator.
Bibliography


CONCEPT OF EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

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Introduction

This unit deals with the concept of school management. The study of school management has vital importance because we know that organised activities are essential for the survival of any organization. It is therefore, necessary to understand the following main concepts of school management.

1. Concept and meaning of management
2. Basic elements/functions of management
3. Basic components of management process
4. Principles of school management
5. Aspects of school management
   i. Management of school plant
   ii. Management of curricular and co-curricular activities
   iii. Management of human resources
   iv. Management of financial resources

Objectives

It is hoped that the study of this unit will enable the students to:
1. Differentiate whether management is science or an art;
2. Define the term management;
3. Relate that how many functions are involved in management and how are they inter-related;
4. How many levels and components of management;
5. Appreciate and understand the principles and aspects of school management.
1.1 Meaning of Basic Elements of Management

The term management has two meanings;
1. Management as a group of functional people
2. Management as performance/process/activity

1. Management as a Group of Functional People
The term management refers to the personnel in an organization who have the right and responsibility to make decisions and run the enterprise efficiently within the policies defined in this way. The primary purpose of management is to make possible the accomplishment of above state objectives with the human material resources available to them. Usually the management of a company, organization or institution is described as “Board of Directors,” “Council” or “Board of Governors”.

2. Management as Function/Process/Activity
The term management is also used to refer to the functions or activity of managing resources, tasks and other persons in order to achieve the defined objectives. Thus defined management refers to human activities related to planning, organizing, directing, coordinating, communicating and controlling.

Relationship among Organization, Administration and Management
The term “Organization” “Administration” and “Management” are frequently synonymously rather erroneously used.

Organization refers to the form of the enterprise or institution and the the arrangement of the human and material resources functioning in a manner to achieve the objectives of the enterprise. It represents two or more than two people respectively specializing in functions of each performs, working together towards a common goal as governed by formal rules of behavior.

Administration is concerned with the determination of corporate policy and the overall coordination of production, distribution and finance.

Management refers to execution of policy within the limits which are established by administration and the employment of the organization as required.

Relationship: Sheldon states, “Organization is the formation of an effective machine; management, of an effective executive; administration, of an effective direction. Administration defines the goal; management strives towards it.
Organization is the machine of management in its achievement of the ends determined by administration.”

**Basic Elements/Functions of Management Process**
The management specialists have attempted to analyze the management process into its elements. However, their view in the classifications of the elements of management differs. Some of the modes are given below:

**Fayol role in Defining Management Functions/Elements**
Henry Fayol, the French industrialist, was instrumental in defining the functions of management, in a paper originally published in 1916 and later published in English in 1949. His work has had a great deal of influence on modern management theories and it is noteworthy that most authors utilize his concepts of the functions if management with little or no change. They include planning, organization (both men and material), commanding (that is, telling subordinates what to do), coordinating and controlling. Most modern writers include stuffing in this listing, although it may easily be considered part of the organizing process. “Commanding” is somewhat more euphemistically termed “directing” in modern parlance, while “coordination” is often deemed part of the process of “controlling”. Basically control is achieved with the following steps:

a) Establishing standards of performance  
b) Communicating these standards to those involved  
c) Providing them with the concerned machines, tools, equipment, materials and financial resources which are necessary to achieve the production.  
d) Comparing actual performance against planned performance and analyzing variations.  
e) Where variations occur, providing corrections for them.

If all the above steps are carried out successfully, then coordination has achieved.

1. Fayol in 1957 presented the following elements of management  
   Planning Organization Commanding  
   Coordinating Controlling (POCCC)  

2. Newman and summers in 1981 presented the following elements of management:  
   Planning Organizing Staffing  
   Leading Controlling Measuring (POSLOCM)
3. Koontz and O’Donnel in 1964 arrived at the following elements of management.

Planning       Organizing       Staffing
Directing      Control          (POSDC)

4. Dale in 1965 suggested the following stages of management:

Planning       Organizing       Staffing
Directing      Innovation       Representation (POSDIR)

5. Luther and Gulick in 1961 suggested the most popular model is POSDCORB, representing the following seven management professions:

Planning       Organizing       Staffing
Directing      Coordinating (CO)     Reporting     Budgeting

According to the point of view of planners and managers in education, the management process can be briefly described as follows:

1. Planning
2. Organizing
3. Staffing
4. Controlling

1. **Planning:**
   As Robbins stated, “Planning gives directions, improves continuity of actions and reduces overlapping and wasteful activities. Through the formulation of objectives, policies, procedures, rules and other type of guides for the direction is provided for organizational members.

2. **Organizing:**
   Once the goals and strategies have been formulated, organizing helps make things happen as planned. Organizing is an operational function which involved the coordinated efforts of the entire organization.

3. **Staffing:**
   This is the process of finding the right person for each job. It involves matching individual qualifications and experiences with job specifications. Staffing Functions, compensation (salaries and allowances/leave bonuses), transfers, resignation, retirements, terminations, pensions, etc.

4. **Directing:**
   This is the motivational function. It tries to obtain a high level of production from employees through motivation and guidance.
5. **Coordinating:**
In modern business, functionalization and division of labour inevitably tend to create a variety of problems in every area of management. It is the task of the top management to unify and coordinate the work and the interests of the individuals who constitute an organization. Of equal concern with results is the process by which results are secured. Merely issuing commands is not sufficient to qualify one as effective leaders; rather it is a matter of having power with people, rather than over them. It is energizing force in an organization, which governs collaboration and collective progress towards the goals.

6. **Innovating:**
This is the creative function of management. Changing times, technology, resources and conditions require new approaches. Therefore, finding new and better ways to do the job, handling the staffing, getting additional money, improving performance are only some of the creative (innovative) functions of management.

7. **Controlling:**
The control function monitors the achievement of goals and compares actual results with those projected in planning as well as the performance of past periods. Controlling is directly related to the plans and performances standards established by other managerial functions. There are several other functions which are sometimes included under management function. These include: Decision making Communication, Coordination, Human Relations, leadership, Problem solving, etc.

8. **Budgeting:**
Budgeting is a mean of coordinating the combined efforts of an entire organization into a plan of action which is based upon past performances and governed by a rational judgment of factors that will influence the operation of the organization in the future. It is not just a mere control and forecasting. The overall objectives of the budgeting are planning, coordinating and controlling.

9. **Decision Making:**
This is the most important responsibility of a manager at all levels. Almost all aspects of the management process involve decision making of one type or the other. There are many theories on decision making and there are several classifications about decision making. The process of decision making involves five components: (a) recognizing the problems; (b) defining and analyzing the
problem; (c) evaluating the alternative solutions; (d) choosing the most favorable solution; and (e) implementing the approach chosen. The five art of the process of management decision making demands the decision must be workable and should be the point where they must be made.

10. **Human Relation:**
This refers to management process concerned with treating the workers and colleagues first as human beings (with different values, aspirations, interpersonal relations, etc.)

11. **Reporting/Communication:**
Communication is at the heart of management process. In order that decision, leadership, motivation, etc. be effective, there must be good communication. The manager must be able to communicate well with subordinates and encourage the feedback from them. The communication process also involves the exchange of signals or messages or information between the sender (or communicator; manager or subordinate) through a medium (e.g. circular, letters, conference, telephone, notice, memos, files, etc.) to the receiver (manager or subordinate). A good communication network must be both vertical and horizontal and to and from all sides. These managers should try to remove them.

12. **Leadership:**
It should be realized that the management process is engineered by good leadership. Thousands of studies, books, etc. have focused on the leadership theories, functions, models, processes, techniques, etc. Some of these will be examined later. For now we should take the leadership process as interpersonal influence, exercised in situations through the communication process for achieving some group objectives.

13. **Problems Solving:**
This relates closely to such modern concepts as “conflicts management” “Organization Development” and in fact decision making. The classic process in problem solving include; identify, analysis, gather facts (data), setup tentative solutions (hypotheses), set of solution and implement the right solution to the problem. A good manager is not afraid of problems because he knows how to solve them.

14. **Motivation:**
The management process demands that people (worker) should be adequately and appropriately motivated where there is lack of motivation,
the entire management process will be ineffective. There are several types of motivations: Such as the use of threat (fear motivation), the use of incentives, e.g. monetary rewards/salaries, bonuses (incentive motivation) and the positive changing of the worker’s attitudes (attitude motivation).
Levels of Management
Management may be classified under three main levels: top, Middle and Lower (or supervisory) management.

i. Top Level of Management:
At the top management level relatively few technical skills are utilized. The emphasis here is on planning and conceptual activities and there is notably less effort original in relation to working with people to carry out specific activities. The greater concern is for the further rather than the present. For example major areas of activity include long range objectives and policies.

ii. Middle Level of Management:
Managers are concerned about ongoing activities as an observer and director of daily operations necessary to produce the goods or services. The middle manager typically is responsible for supervision of wage and salary systems, motivating subordinates, conducting meetings for purpose of training, control or coordination, conducting appraisals and counseling. Personnel-oriented activities are common in this group. In short, the middle managers are responsible for the day-to-day results of the long range objectives.

iii. Lower/Supervisory Management:
Lower or supervisory managers plan and put into effect day to day activities making certain plans that they should be carried out by the workers.

The above levels of management have effect on the organizational performance or functioning. We are referring to the management between and within the levels as structure. The more rigid or long the structure, the more difficulty will be of decision making, communication, coordination, motivation. On the other hand if
it is less rigid and shorter structure, the faster the decision making process will be. Though there is a chance that supervision and control may get weekend.

1.2 Concept of Management in Broader Sense

The model shown here is simply to present a clear picture of management and to reduce the usual and continuing controversy over the actual meaning of management. We shall assume thus by keeping in view that management in its broadest context covers the entire activities of planner. Administrators and supervisors in education. The figure shows the viewpoint.

A theoretical model of the levels, dimensions and functions of educational/school management in Pakistan

We can see now that we have three main levels of management (top, Middle and Lower); these three levels are involved in either more in administrative dimension of management or in supervisory management or both at different times and in different degrees. The administrative and supervisory work cover the entire process and practice or functions of management including; planning, policy making, budgeting, staffing, coordination, communication, controlling, directing, organizing, implementing, decision-making, monitoring and evaluation (supervision): You have notice that although management is present yet certain functions are done more often at certain levels companies others. For example, there are basic differences between the policy-making by the Top Management (e.g. Minister’s level) and the rules and regulations technically refers to policy, but he degree and emphasis may vary with the level at which they are made. Also planning is done at all levels. Planning at top level (Macro-planning) differs from that lower level management (min/Micro-planning). Study the model on figure above very critically and endeavor to see your position in the entire management process that to what extent you can use the model to create a general frame of reference for work rationalization.

i. **Objectives of Educational/School Management**

Aims and objectives of school management are same which are determined by the Government of Pakistan in education policies. As per National Education Policy 1979 following are the aims of education:

1. To foster in the hearts and minds of the people of Pakistan in general and the students in particular, a deep and abiding loyalty to Islam and Pakistan and living consciousness of their spiritual and ideological identity thereby cause strengthening of unity of the outlook of the people of Pakistan on the basis of justice and fair play.
2. To create awareness in every student that he, as a member of Pakistan nation is also a part of the Universal Muslim Ummah and that it is expected of him to make a fair contribution towards the welfare of fellow Muslims inhabiting the globe on the one hand and to help the spreading the message of Islam throughout the world on the other.
3. To produce citizens who are full conversant with the Pakistani movement, its ideological foundations, history and culture so that they may feel proud of their heritage and can display firm faith in the future of the country as an Islamic state.
4. To develop and inculcate in accordance with the Quran and Sunnah, the character, conduct and motivation expected of a true Muslim.
5. To provide and ensure equal educational opportunities to all citizen of Pakistan and provide minorities with adequate facilities for their cultural and
religious development enabling them to effectively participate in overall national effort.

6. To impart quality education and to develop fully according to their capacity, each individuals potentialities, through training and retraining and to develop the creative and innovative faculties of the people with a view to building their capability to effectively manage social, natural and productive forces, consistent with the value system of Islam.

7. To provide a minimum acceptable level of functional literacy and fundamental education to all citizens of the country particularly the young, irrespective of faith, caste and creed in order to enable them to participate productively in the total effort.

8. To create interest and love for learning and discipline among the youth and to ensure that every student is imbued with the realization that education continuous and a lifelong process.

9. To promote and strengthen scientific, vocational and psychological education, training and research in the country and to use this knowledge for socio-economic growth and development thereby ensuring a self-reliant and secure future for the nation.

ii. Aspects of Education/School Management and Related Issues

Followings are the major educational/school management aspects:

1. Society needs and aspirations
2. The policy and objectives
3. The resources
4. The outcomes

The issues in educational management usually concern with five major educational management aspects namely: the policy and objectives, the resources, the management as a system. We can show the critical areas that give birth to issues.
Thus we can categorize the major sources of educational issues as under:

1. **Resource Issues:** Human (students, staff). Material (funds, facilities, equipment etc.) and Constraints (policy, regulation, ideology, etc.)
2. **Process Issues:** Administrative and managerial issues (including power, curricular authority, teaching strategies, nature of programmes and overall production process in education).
3. **Output Issues:** the results of the educational process: number of successful students, retention rate, dropouts, or how for the educational system is meeting the objectives for setting it up.
4. **Societal Issues:** The social, political, cultural, economic, technological issues which affect the management of education.

For example in Pakistan one can guess the following issues:

1. **Input Issues:** (i) the issue of Islamization of education enterprise (its management and procedure); (ii) The issue of the inadequacy/under liability of the resources (e.g. funds, staff, facilities) for managing educational institutions or projects.
2. **Process Issues:** (i) The issue of curricular (their adequacy standards, development); (ii) The administrative setup in the institutions/departments to what extent do they promote or hamper effectiveness or efficiency in the education process? (iii) The methodologies adopted in the teaching (how far so they reflect acceptable qualities? (iv) Educational/examination procedures how adequate or standardize?
3. **Output Issues:** (i) How do we ensure that the output of the system are suitable enough or we over-procedures/under-producing certain categories of output?
4. **Social Issues:** (i) the political context: the matter arising from the political system that tends to affect education system; (ii) Social Issues: The issue of equal opportunity, equal distribution of or access to educational facilities; (iii) the culture: how far are they being protected, promoted, and destroyed by the education.

The three basic procedures for the treatment of the issues in educational management are:

a) Thoughtful and reflective analysis of the issues: their origin, magnitude, possible consequences and short-term/long-term implications; and the possible management strategies.
b) Through research and investigation. Such research would reveal the ramification and implication of issues and could suggest possible steps for harnessing and accommodating the issues.

c) Through discussion/workshops on the issues to highlight the implications (short/long-term implication) on management practice.

iii. Principles of School Management
A principle is a generation that is widely accepted as true system. A goal of serious thinkers in any discipline is to develop principles about the subject with which they are concerned. Herut Fayol, one of the main contributors to the evaluation of management through strongly advocated the development of management principles.

Why are Principles Useful?
Principles are useful to manager for several reasons.

First, they help manager to make more accurate decisions. To the extent that managers can apply principles in any situation and eliminate guesswork, sounder decision should result.

Second, by principles save time. If one learners principles of management in school, for example less experience is required to become an effective manager. Discussions can be made more rapidly and accurately when principles provide guidelines for action.

Third, principles enable the people to may pass no information from one generation to the next. Great waste occurs when a generation must learn through experience alone what a previous generation had already learned through its experience. To the extent that principle can be developed and applied. Thus waste can be reduced. The issue for debate in this chapter discusses the importance of experience versus that of formal education in moving ahead in management.

Management theories and practitioners are not in complete agreement as to whether management principles have been developed or, indeed, can be developed. This lack of agreement is both understandable and intellectually healthy as it helps to stimulate debate and research.

Why are there exceptions to management principles?
The point of view taken in this text is that some management principles have been discovered and more will be developed as research and contemplation about management continues. However, management principles cannot be formulated
with the same precision as physical science principles. There are exceptions to a principle which the behaviour of people rather than principles involving physics or chemistry.

**Planning Principles:**

**Principle of the Primary Objectives:** Planning should begin with a clear-cut statement of the primary goal. Without knowledge of an organization’s basic, senior manager will not make full use of the organization’s human material and financial resources.

**Principles of Adequate Alternative:** The greater the number and variety of alternatives presented to solve a problem, the greater the likelihood that the manager will make an acceptable decision. Often the manager do not think deeply enough about problem to discover all logical alternatives to its solution. There may be, for example, many alternatives for decreasing costs or increasing revenue.

**Principles of Contingencies:** “A plan should have built into it prescribed actions to cover contingencies.” In other words, management should be prepared for unexpected yet possible events.

**Organizing Principles:**

**Unity-of-Command Principle:** When an individual reports to a single supervisor, personal accountability for performance should be clear. In practice, however, people often report several supervisions. This leads to confusion, divided attention and other problems.

**Adequacy-of-Authority Principle:** “Sufficient authority to accomplish a task should be given to the person who is accountable for the result.” People often are given a goal but are not given enough power or authority to achieve it. A supervisor, for example, may be told to increase production significantly but may not be authorized to have employees work overtime.

**Scalar (Chain-of-Command) Principle:** “When the line of authority from the most senior executive flows clearly to each succeeding lower-level position, fixation of responsibility and accountability is easily understood”. Often, however, this principle is violated and some people in an organization are confused about their reporting relationships.
Staffing Principles:

**Principles of Developing a Successor:** “Each manager should train subordinate to be read to take over his or her job temporarily or permanently. While often violated, this principle is basic to effective management. Often here is no back-up person able to fill manager’s position after he or she resign, is promoted, becomes ill or terminated.

**Principle of Manager Evaluation:** “managers are best evaluated in terms of the result they achieve”. This principle is easiest way to apply when results are quantifiable.

**Principle of Management Development:** Since perfection in management is unattainable, there is always room from a manager to improve.” Thereof an organizational eliminates that encourages additional training and development should be created.

Directing Principles:

**Principles of harmony of Objective:** “A manager’s personal goals should be in harmony with the organization’s objectives”. Obviously, a manager who is determined to perform work not in direct support of an organization’s objective violated these principles.

**Principle of the Manager’s Example:** “People are inclined to follow the example set by a manager.” Implementation of this principle requires manager to ask, “Am I setting the kind of example I want the other to follow”.

**Principle of Motivation:** “Money and other financial benefits are always incomplete as a motivational force. Psychological incentives are always required to develop the highest level of motivation”. Personnel want such things as challenging work and compatible workers in addition to financial benefits.

Controlling Principles

**Principles of Standards:** “A standard should be set for all activities.” What is acceptable should be defined clearly and precisely as possible for all tasks.

**Principle of Measurement of Performance:** “Standards are useless unless actual performance is measured and compared against the standard.” Measurement may take many reforms, but regardless of the method, an activity should be evaluated.
**Principle of Corrective Action:** “When measurement of performance indicates a standard is not being met, appropriate corrective action should be taken”. Failure to correct what is wrong leads to wastage of human and other resources.

**iv. Scope and Subject Matter of School Managements**
The economical use of time, man, money and material resources to perform the different functions to schools to achieve determined objectives is called school management. School management can be divided into the following: following subject matter may be included in school management, which is called the scope in area of school management.

i. Management of School Plant  
ii. Management of Curricular and Co-curricular Activities  
iii. Management and Development of Human Resources (School Staff & Students)  
iv. Management of Financial Resources

Now we can discuss these aspects of school management in some detail.

**Management of School Plant:**
The school plant is a comprehensive term meaning building playground, furniture, equipment, library, and laboratory and so on. All the physical facilities that are require for achieving the various objectives of school constitute the school plant. The systematic application management principles for optimum utilization of school plant to achieve the objectives of education are called management of school plant.

**Management of Curricular and Co-curricular Activities:**
Different educators have defined the term of curriculum in different ways; therefore, no single definition is available in educational literature. Kerr has defined curriculum as, all the learning which is planned and guided by the school whether it is carried on in the group or individually, inside the school or outside it.

He further stated that: “The curriculum may be divided into four inter-related components, curriculum objectives, knowledge, learning experiences and curriculum evaluation”.

Keeping in view the curriculum objectives the selection and planning of knowledge, organization of learning experiences through teaching learning process and making value judgment about the achievement of curriculum
objectives in the school is called management of curricular activities has changed and all sound development of the child has been the objective of education.

There are many co-curricular activities such as games, sports, scouting, hiking, debates, essay writing, workshops, symposiums, qiril competitions, role playing, discussion, seminars, etc. which are helpful for the comprehensive development of co-curricular activities.

**Management of Human Resources:**
Human resources of the school are students, teaching staff and non-teaching staff.

No school is better than its teachers. The proper planning and organization of teaching, learning activities are only possible by seeking cooperation, willingness, involvement, fellow-feeling and devotion by the teachers, students, librarians, assistants, peons, etc. is always beneficial and helpful to achieve the objectives of education. This process of human inter-action is the main purpose of management for the development of human resources within the boundaries of the school.

**Management of Financial Resources:**
One of the main aspects of school management is utilization and development of financial resources the cooperation of community and government is essential. However, for utilization of funds proper budgeting, accounting and audit system is required. Moreover, to frame transparent policies, plans, rules and regulations, the guidance of government and the help in counseling should be made.
1.3 Activities

Activity 1: What is the major distinction between Educational management and management of Education?
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Activity 2: The minister of education on a visit to your office asks you the question: What do educational managers do? Make a list what you would give as the main issues in your answer.
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Activity 3: Give a list of posts in the Pakistan Educational system (or list of officers excluding those mentioned in educational management figure) for the following levels of management in education.

a) Top Management Officers:
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b) Middle Management Officers:
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c) Lower Management Officers:
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1.4 Exercise

Q.1 Give working definition in one sentences for each of the following terms concepts:
   i) Management: (as people)........................................................................................................
   ..................................................................................................................................................

   ii) Management: (as activities)....................................................................................................
   ..................................................................................................................................................

   iii) Middle Management:...........................................................................................................
   ..................................................................................................................................................

   iv) Board of Directors: .............................................................................................................
   ..................................................................................................................................................

Q.2 i) the management functions are establishing organizational goals and determining the manner of implementation constitutes one of the following: (please tick the one item only)
   ii) In four sentences give reasons for your answers.
   ..................................................................................................................................................
   ..................................................................................................................................................
   ..................................................................................................................................................
   ..................................................................................................................................................

Q.3 Is it logically or functionally proper to refer to a person in an organization or establishment as Managing Director? Give concrete reasons for your answer. (Not more than five reasons)
   i) .............................................................................................................................................
   ii) .............................................................................................................................................
   iii) .............................................................................................................................................
   iv) .............................................................................................................................................
   v)  ...............................................................................................................................................
Q.4 In about three sentences distinguish between Directing and Controlling?

Directing: ........................................................................................................................................
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Controlling: ........................................................................................................................................
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Q.5 Differentiate between Planning as Function and as a Process by drawing from the concepts of macro and Micro Planning?

Q.6 The manager is essentially a leader; do you agree with this statement? How does your answer related to manager’s other vital functions of Planning and Decision making in the management Process?

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UNIT-3

CONCEPT OF SUPERVISION

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Reviewed by: Dr. Col. Manzoor Arif
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**Introduction**

Inspection is a part of the administration of education. Though there is a vast difference between inspection and supervision. (It will be discriminated later). Hence they are used interchangeably. Presently the concept of inspection has to be transformed to one of a healthy supervision and guidance. Supervision is to a large extent a matter of professional relationship between supervisor and the teacher. So supervision is a dynamic process like education.

**Objectives**

After studying this unit students will be able:
1. To describe the concept of supervision
2. To relate kinds of supervision
3. To narrate nature and characteristics of supervision
4. To differentiate the administration and supervision
5. To explain the purposes and need of supervision
6. To describe the qualities and goals of supervision
7. To describe the roles of supervision

**1.1 Meaning of Supervision**

The dictionary of education defines supervision (p.400) as all efforts of designated school officials towards providing leadership to teachers and other educational workers in the improvement of instruction, involves the stimulation of professional growth and development of teachers, the selection and revision of educational objectives, materials of instruction and methods of teaching and the evaluation of instruction.”

Wiles (1955 p.399) envisages supervision as sporting assisting and sharing rather than directing. So the word “supervision” means to guide and stimulate the activities of teachers with a view to improves them in the context of their teaching as well as instruction and promoting their professional growth. Supervision is being seen as a cooperative and comprehensive activity, which improves the total teaching learning process along with its aspects.

**Difference between Inspection/Supervision**

“By supervision and inspection we mean detailed and comprehensive review of all aspects of work and life of an institution.” Adams and dicey discriminate the both” inspection, is a procedure of giving direction to and providing critical
evaluation of instruction task. “Supervision is a planned programme for the improvement of instruction.”

Keeping in view this definition both may be analyzed as:

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<td>Bureaucratic</td>
<td>Democratic</td>
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<td>Direction and Regimention</td>
<td>Well constructed suggestive and expert guidance</td>
</tr>
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<td>Improvement of Teaching</td>
<td>Improvement of learning.</td>
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So supervision can be called as a service activity that exists to help teachers to grow professionally and to do their jobs better.

1.2 **Kinds of Supervision**

There are various varieties of educational supervision each of them reflecting certain objectives and perspectives which concerns teaching, learning situation, school organization and curriculum. Hence the adoption of a particular type of supervision depends upon the educational pattern and philosophy followed by the country, the type of government, and the education and training of the education officers who are responsible for supervisory work.

Therefore Burton and Bureckner (1955, pp 5-13) presented the following types of supervision.

- Inspection
- Laissez-Faire
- Coercive
- Training and guidance
- Democratic

i) **Inspection**

Supervision in its earlier form was merely confine' to the inspection of the work of teachers and the person who was responsible for this job and popularly known as a school inspector. Inspection was used to be in authoritarian style which was intended to ascertain whether or not teachers were performing their normal duties and also to replace the unsuitable teachers with suitable ones. This term is still in vague in supervisory in many western and eastern countries.
ii) **Laissez-Faire**
The laissez-Faire type of supervision is actually not constructive supervision at all. It is a policy of letting each teacher teach as he pleases, without reference to efforts. Little effort is made to assist teachers to improve the instructional programme, or to develop any consensus among teachers philosophy practice. Precisely this style lets, the worker to make all decisions and principles but just possesses wait and see attitude. This type attributes the lower to non interference of the principal and there is just much consumption of time for accomplishing the task.

iii) **Coercive Supervision**
It is an authoritarian concept, which attributes to some authority of omniscience which is necessary to make momentous decisions. Everyone has to obey these decisions and can't object or check the validity and feasibility of such decisions. Teachers are to carry on the orders and instructions of the coercive supervisor. Such supervisors find it easy to believe that the most effective means of making teachers to work is to compel then teach scheduled subject-matter on the stereotyped methods. Because this concept is closely bound up with the curriculum and instructional philosophy, which came to permeate almost all the schools in this type of supervision, the principal or supervisor visits teachers. While teaching and defects or good points made them known. They are 'reed to follow the dictates of the supervisor and are awarded increments or prizes on the basis of his personal judgment. Such supervision does not respect the personalities of teachers and is not consistent with democracy. It violates the tenets of good mental hygiene because coercion it detrimental to the growth of originality, ingenuity and creativeness.

iv) **Training and Guidance**
It is now increasingly recognized that true learning should be based on understanding interests and active participation of learners, not on rote memorization, coercion and passive listening. Education is a process of guiding growth, “Learner’s voluntary co-operation in the learning process is of utmost significance. This change has brought to bear its impact on supervision. Instead of trying to compel teachers to adopt certain methods, emphasis is laid on teaching of teachers. Supervision assumes the role of imparting in-service education and on the job training. Thus by this teachers are motivated to do better and supervision becomes a process of teaching. Consequently, the belief prevails that supervisor has the “word” and superiority of greater knowledge and experience. As Elsbee and McNally (1964, p.150) have observed. “It is still assumed t it is the teacher's duty to
‘improve’ the pattern approved by the supervisors”. Many, authorities observe that this type of instructional supervision now dominates the educational scene.

v) **Democratic Supervision**

Democracy is not merely a political organization or procedure it is a way of life it its principles apply to all aspects of life. Democratic ideals imply belief in common man, recognition of the dignity and worth of the individual appreciation of the importance of individual differences as well as similarities and the assumption of authority by consent of the group. Applied to supervision, democratic ideals do not allow imposition of the ill of the supervisor upon teachers who on the other hand cannot go their own way without helping to achieve goal are commonly determined. Cooperation of teachers and supervisors on the problems of improving instruction is the inherent and basic concept of democratic supervision. As Adams and Dickey (p.8) have put it, “Democratic supervision builds upon the power of teachers to exercise self-direction through his participation in the determination of goals and formulation of methods and procedures for improving instructions. So the main purpose of democratic supervision is the “improvement of the total teaching learning situation. In this context S. Nath (p.4) has rightly developed the concept of “supervision through participation” and Burton and Brueckner (pp.5-12) have noted that “the improvement of teachers is not so much a supervisory function in which teacher participate as it is a teacher function in which teacher can participate as 14 is a teacher function in which supervisors co-operate.” The supervisors function is to “release and co-ordinate” not to control the creative abilities of teachers.

### 1.3 Nature and Characteristics of Supervision

The concept of inspection has to be transformed to one of a healthy supervision and guidance. Inspection days are looked upon sometimes with a degree of anxiety, tension, fear and apprehension. The academic side is not stressed. In our country it is done hastily, and is criticized as perfunctory and unsympathetic. Inspection is, frequently said to produce only frustration and dissatisfaction in teachers. So now this unproductive and unpleasant concept is being criticized and are tried to replace with the modern concept of supervision, which is the procedure of coordinating stimulating and directing the growth of teachers for making the teaching learning process effective. All human beings in the educative process-students, teachers, administrators and supervisors are individuals of worth, endowed with unique talents and capacities. The primary aim of
supervision should be rent value of each person, to the end that the potentials of all persons will be realized. The philosophy of democracy, the psychology of group dynamics interpersonal relationships professional leadership etc, have left indelible imprint on the theory and practice of modern supervision in the democratic social order, education is a dynamic force. Hence, supervision becomes dynamic in character.

1. Supervision should be democratic and co-operative in spirit and Organization.

The main purpose of the supervision should merely be to provide the effective leadership and develop co-operative working relationship, because education is also considered a co-operative and creative enterprise in which all teachers, pupils, parents and administrators participate and supervisors are their academic leaders who stimulate, guide and advise them in improvement of teaching learning process. So modern supervision must furthermore objective towards attitudes, more co-operative efforts, more constructive suggestions, greater of “we-ness” and teaching of joint goals.

2. Supervision should be established on maintenance of satisfactory interpersonal relationships.

A group’s productiveness is affected by the quality of its human relation and the supervisor must work constantly for the improvement of group cohesiveness. So supervision should maintain a high level of personal interaction. Otherwise, it would be ineffective and unproductive.

3. The supervisor is concerned with communication within a group as leadership depends on better social interaction-communication, which should be a two way process from the supervisor. Because exchange of information always helps in planning and implementation of the policies should be comprehensive in scope and it should embrace the I programme and proper articulation which is necessary the supervisory agencies. Today supervision should be improving all factors involved in teaching learning process.

4. Supervision should be creative.

Teaching is an art; Supervision is a creative work. So the purpose of supervision should be to draw out the best in teachers to ignite, their latent talents, to stimulate the initiative, to encourage their originality and self-expression. So supervision should emphasize their success and strength
make their weakness and failure as a side issues. The supervisors should always have new ideas resourcefulness and original thinking.

6. Supervision should be scientific.

The supervisor should make use of scientific methods to effect improvement in instruction. Through surveys, experiments, action researches he should make his performance more scientific and effective. He will encourage constructive and critical thinking among teachers and discourage flattering and biased opinion.

7. Supervision should be experimental and auto-critical in nature.

In contrast to autocratic and authoritarian type, the emerging concept of supervision stimulates experimentalism and self-criticism. So any aspect of the learning situation found to be ineffective or detrimental to the achievement of better situation should be dropped or modified by supervisor through leading and guiding the teachers to do their job in effective ways.

1.4 Difference between Administration and Supervision

Adams and Dickey (p.4) have rightly said that, to separate supervision and administration on the basis of function alone is a virtual impossibility. Some overlapping of supervisory and administrative functions is inevitable. As we know, supervisory service is particularly concerned with instruction and its improvement. It is directly concerned with teaching and training and with the factors included in and related to these process—the teachers, the pupil, the curriculum, the instructional materials, etc. On the other hand, administration is aimed at the same goals as supervision but not directly, Budget-making, construction of building, personal administration, and so on are all intended to improve the educational programmes. Though all these activities result in more effective learning of the pupil, it cannot be achieved immediately. In other words, administrative functions are concerned with material facilities, whereas supervisory services are concerned with improving of the learning or academic situation.

Administration must see that continuous improvement of the instructional programme by supervisory service is accomplished. Administration, therefore creates an organization for supervision which, employ, assign, direct and supervises the supervisors. Otto (p.28) has aptly said, “all of this means that supervision is an arm of administration and that the total organization for the
school system as a whole.” Similarly, many administrative problems cannot be solved wisely without the care of instruction, which is the primary concern, is supervision. Administration is responsible for providing school buildings, books, instructional supplies, selection and appointment of teachers, etc. But what kind of teachers instructional programme? What type and size of classrooms with what kind of physical facilities for what kind of instructional programme?

Hence there must be cordial and intimate working relationship between administration and supervision. Though administration and supervision are related in so many important ways. It is not difficult of differentiate the process of supervision from the process of administration. The latter in its roles of policy formation, decision-making, direction and control may not always have the teaching learning elements. Sears (p.12) in distinguishing between administration and supervision makes it crystal clear that supervision is mainly an academic or teaching function. Modern supervision has its essential functions of promoting and guiding teaching learning situations. The dynamics of supervision should be consistent with good teaching process, i.e., growth and development of the learner. On the whole, supervisory services essentially and basically are aimed at promoting and, facilitating improvement of instruction, which is the goal of school programme.

1.5 Purpose and Need of Supervision

Different educationalists have put forward different views regarding the purpose of supervision. These may be be broadly summarized as following:
1. To set up suitable goals for the educational institutions.
2. To provide professional leadership to the institutions in order to improve their working.
3. To enlarge the teacher's concept of the meaning of education.
4. To induce the newly appointed teachers into the school and into the profession.
5. To develop an understanding of the place of education in our civilization and of the special functions of education.
6. To bring about a realization of local needs and conditions.
7. To help teachers to analyse critically their own activities.
8. To ascertain the work in which each teacher is most successful and in which he is capable for growth.
9. To unify teachers into a team, all working intelligently and willing to appreciate cooperation achieve the same general goals.
10. To ascertain and bring about needed changes in the organization and administration that will facilitate an effective teaching.
11. To assist teachers in diagnosing pupils needs and to help in planning for growth and power and satisfy them.
12. To popularize the school programme, especially its success so that the public will be more understanding and sympathetically helpful.
13. To direct teachers towards unfamiliar sources of immediate aid and materials for continuing growth.
14. To share the public problems of the school so as to get suggestions for their rectification.
15. To protect teachers from unnecessary and unreasonable demands by the public on their time and energies, and to protect them from uncalled for criticisms.
16. To develop a professional awareness and concern for the profession

1.6 Qualities of an Effective Supervisor

Various attempts have been made by researchers to prepare the lists of professional qualities of a supervisors and administrators. It is expected by the supervisor to possess all conceivable attributes. It is hard to find or produce a supervisor possessing all the qualities and virtues and yet be a human being.

Before discussing some of the personal qualities that a supervisor for primary education must have, it should be stressed that these qualities are not the product of seniority or teaching experience in a school but these have to be consciously cultivated. Furthermore, these qualities are not fixed but can be reinforced or modified by study and practice.

According to swearingen (41:83-86) essential personal qualities of a supervisor, "which can be nurtured intentionally." Are under:

a) Approachability
   As supervisor who is accessible to teachers is a friendly person. But he must be able to move naturally and freely from informal talk to a deeper level of conservation. He should encourage and welcome new ideas and try them in actual situations. He must also be good listener and find time to discuss with teachers what they want to discuss individually or in groups.

b) Perceptiveness
   A high level of awareness enables a supervisor to notice significant elements in a situation, in materials and in the behaviour of others, and even in his own action. Without awareness of what is and what ought to be, the supervisor will be unable to help teachers work productively.
Perceptiveness also implies sensitivity to other people, their needs and purposes, given them respect and finding something worth in their work. It also enables the supervisor to anticipate responses and to have foresight of how events and action may look to others. Finally, it helps the supervisor to identify maladjusted teachers and their needs for assistance.

c) **Aspiration and Faith**

“Aspiration, vision and faith should characterize instructional leaders.” The supervisor should be articulate about his aspiration and faith. Unless the supervisor keeps himself abreast of new knowledge and developments and believes in what he professes, he can neither inspire other nor face the unexpected challenges.

d) ** Becomingness**

The Concept of continued growth is germane to supervision. Teachers, supervisor, Headmasters and educational administrators are all in the process of growing, or, what Gordon All port calls, “becoming,” constantly striving to become better. The supervisor must be a growing individual, always making keen and enthusiastic efforts to keep himself abreast of new knowledge, new techniques and new trends in education. Then and only then it may be hoped to play his role effectively and to serve as a living example of "becoming" process for the teachers with whom he works.

“Becomingness” also implies adaptability and flexibility in problem-solving situations, trusting new experiences, undertaking new experiments and relishing opportunities for possible growth for self and others.

e) **Imagination and Resourcefulness**

It is important that the supervisor be imaginative and resourceful. Efforts to improve instructions and human relations often fail for want of imagination and resourcefulness. Fresh preparations, seeing new uses for familiar materials and procedures, noticing previously unnoticed elements in a situation, willingness to take a calculated risk, are all characteristics of good leadership. "Persistence resilience and willingness to try with good cheer another way when a first way is blocked should be part of the standard equipment for supervision.”

The possession of these qualities, though essential, is not itself enough. The supervisor must, in addition, acquire skills and knowledge appropriate to his task.
1.7 Different Techniques of Supervision

Chandrasekaran (1994 pp. 139-140) augmented about these techniques:

- Preventive
- Corrective
- Constructive
- Creative

a) Preventive
A supervisor, should be the preventive supervisor like the headmaster or an external supervisor like the inspector, who can be sure that certain difficulties will confront every new teacher in school he/she can anticipate the teacher's difficulties as far as possible and prevent them. This type helps the teacher to correct his fault in himself and encourages his professional ambition.

b) Corrective
The supervisor who goes into the classroom with the intention of finding what is wrong will invariable be successful in doing that. It makes him dissatisfied and the teacher unhappy. It must not be thought corrective supervision is unimportant. It is the kind most teachers want; the supervisor should be on the lookout primarily for faults but lie should make continuous efforts to see each fault in its true place in the whole process of education—some faults can be overlooked as trivial and identical. While some require immediate attention otherwise they may permanently invalidate teacher's effectiveness.

c) Constructive
Supervision should be constructive and at times, concerned with the correction of poor practice, minor or major, but it should not stop there. The healthiest procedure is to induce growth rather than to remove defects. Constructive supervision seeks a steady growth in the power to perform better the activities already well performed. Teachers become happier and stronger by healthy development than they are while suffering from pedagogic amputations. The wise supervisor will always attempt to share teacher with his vision of what good teaching really should be and in this way he will stimulate, encourage, and direct them to grow in competence to make it real.

d) Creative
Creative supervision implies that the supervision should encourage variety, originality and independent experimentation. Creative supervision differs
from constructive super on the attempt to free teachers for the largest possible contribution that they can make by their ingenuity. Which is a device for more effectively achieving the aim of education. The chief purpose of all supervision is that of liberating the teachers, freeing him from set procedure and definite prescriptions, and developing him as far as possible into a master teacher for the school system. The supervisor does not need to limit freedom while furnishing direction, advice and suggestions for a program to prove by experimentation and measurement, whatever is good.

1.8 Role of a Supervisor

The supervisor's function is to "release and co-operate rather to control the creative abilities of teachers. Therefore role of supervisor may be divided into two categories.

1. Administrative Roles
2. Academic Roles

1. Administrative Roles
Following administrative roles are to be followed by supervisor:

i. Selection and appointment of class four or supporting staff
ii. Sanction and payment of school grants
iii. Providing facilities to school
iv. Supervising the developmental tasks of school
v. Recognition and gradation of school
vi. Holding the scholarship examination and awarding scholarships
vii. Approval of the resolution of management committee
viii. Checking the accounts and records of the school
ix. Checking the safety and security of the school plant
x. Maintaining proper service conditions for teachers
xi. Checking proper distribution of work load
xii. Reporting to higher authority about the teacher promotion on the basis of their performance
xiii. Welfare of the teachers

2. Academic Roles
i. Supervision of teaching learning activities
ii. Exchanging and maintaining the educational standard
iii. Evaluating and improving the teaching learning process
iv. Orientation of teachers through in-service teaching courses
1.9 Activities

1. Prepare a chart showing main points of the supervision.

2. Discuss the purposes of supervision with any supervisor and enlist below the main points of the purposes of supervision in educational institution.

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3. Ask supervisor of your school about his/her selected techniques and kind of supervision. And inquire about that why he/she likes to use.

4. Keeping in view the roles and qualities of supervisor discussed in this unit and then compare these with existing supervisor’s deeds. Also explore how much he/she observes those roles or qualities.
1.10 Exercise

1. Discuss the meaning, nature characteristics and purpose of supervisor.

2. Differentiate the administration and supervision and functions of supervisor as well as administrator.

3. Critically examine the techniques of supervision. Also explore which techniques are mostly to be used by our supervisor and why.

4. Compare the qualities of supervisor (discussed in unit) with existing supervisor’s qualities.
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UNIT-4

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

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Introduction

Education is a central preoccupation of every nation so the educational plans can be carried out with maximum success if they are based on the changing needs of the country to compete with the other countries of the world. Educational planning is mainly the work of planners, experts, authorities or the bureaucracy which administer the education services. But professionally it should be in the hands of education leaders. Planning is a process which aims at achieving specific developmental goals of life of a country. The process includes an analysis of the present situation and forecasts for future. In the say way, educational planning should aim at development of education as well as the drawing up of state, regional, district and institutional plans. These plans should be intelligently link and match the needs and resources. Similarly, the planning process should aim surveying the requirements of training manpower in the employment market as well.

Educational planning is a continuous systematic process which involves the planning of educational system, its curriculum, instruction, its expansion, improvement, the balance of its different parts and its administrative services etc.

Objectives

After studying this unit you will be able:
1. To describe the concept, objectives and importance of education
2. To explain the approaches of education plan
3. To discuss the types, goals and process of educational planning
4. To understand the process of project planning
1.1 Definition, Aims and Objectives of Education

What is the purpose of education? What does it aim to achieve? Every Education Policy has seriously considered these questions at some stage or other. The aims of education are determined by national political, social, economic, psychological and pedagogical needs. Many of the fundamental concerns of education have persisted throughout the centuries, but in the course of time, different aspects have been stressed.

For example:

a) Educational aims were for a long time of an essentially social, patriotic and ideological nature which, emphasized the function of education as a preserver and transmitter of the cultural heritage.

b) Later, emphasis was laid on intellectual training (Primarily literacy, latterly scientific). Knowledge because an end in itself.

c) A common idea now-a-days is to link education to national development, so that training can be preparation for employment for life in its broad economic aspects, for cooperation in common endeavors, and participation in the practices of democracy.

d) Education is – increasingly being looked upon as a specific mean of changing, renewing and even of challenging the established values. The emphasis is on educability and trainability rather than on instruction as such.

In text-books as well as in government policy statements one finds elaborate lists of educational objectives formulated in different ways. They vary in both content and emphasis. Three main aims of education are, however, embodied in every list in one form or another. They are (a) the mental, emotional, spiritual and physical development of the individual and his adjustment to society; (b) the economic viability of the individual; and (c) the maintenance of the cultural identity of the society to which the individual belongs. One may classify these objectives of education into such groups as the following:-

a) Political Objectives of education
   – National integration and internationalism.
   – Equality of educational opportunity and the creation of trained manpower.

b) Economic objectives of education.
   – National development and improvement of the quality of life.
c) Social objectives of education
   – Establishing a social welfare state providing security, full employment and social justice
   – Creating a dynamic and constantly moving society

d) Pedagogical objectives of education
   – Harmonious development of the individuals personality and capacity of his intellect, his emotions and his will.
   – Better occupation of leisure.

The Education Policy Commission of the National Education Association of the United States has examined the purposes of education and developed four set of objectives:-

a) Objectives of Self Realization.

b) Objectives of Human Relationships.

c) Objectives of Economic Efficiency.

d) Objectives of Civic Responsibility.

a) The Objectives of Self-Realization

   The Inquiring Mind: The educated person has an appetite for learning.
   Speech: The educated person can speak the mother tongue clearly.
   Reading: The educated person reads the mother tongue efficiently.
   Writing: The educated person writes the mother tongue effectively.
   Number: The educated person solves problems of counting and calculating.
   Sight and Hearing: The educated person is skilled in listening and observing.
   Health Knowledge: The educated person is skilled in listening and observing.
   Health Habits: The educated person protects his own health and that of his dependents.
Recreation: The educated person is a participant and spectator in many sports and other pastimes.

Intellectual Interests: The educated person has mental resources for the use of leisure.

Aesthetic Interests: The educated person appreciates beauty.

Character: The educated person gives responsible direction to his own life.

b) The Objectives of Human Relationships

Respect for Humanity: The educated person puts human relationships first.

Friendships: The educated person enjoys a rich, sincere and varied social life.

Cooperation: The educated person can work and play with others.

Courtesy: The educated person observes the amenities of social behaviour.

Appreciation of the Home: The educated person appreciates the family as a social institution.

Conservation of the Home: The educated person conserves family ideals.

Homemaking: The educated person is skilled in homemaking.

Democracy in the home: The educated person maintains democratic family relationships.

c) The Objectives of Economic Efficiency

Work: The educated producer knows the satisfaction of good workmanship.

Occupational Information: The educated producer understands the requirement and opportunities for various jobs.

Occupational Choice: The educated producer has selected his occupation.
Occupational Efficiency: The educated producer succeeds in his chosen vocation.

Occupational Adjustment: The educated producer maintains and improves his efficiency.

Occupational Appreciation: The educated producer appreciates the social value of his work.

Personal Economics: The educated consumer plans the economics of his own life.

Consumer Judgment: The educated consumer develops standards for guiding his expenditures.

Efficiency in Buying: The educated consumer is an informed and skilful buyer.

Consumer Protection: The educated consumer takes appropriate measures to safeguard his interests.

d) The Objectives of Civic Responsibility

Social Justice: The educated citizen is sensitive to the disparities of human circumstances.

Social Activity: The educated citizen acts to correct unsatisfactory conditions.

Social Understanding: The educated citizen seeks to understand social structures and standing processes.

Critical Judgment: The educated citizen has defenses against propaganda.

Tolerance: The educated citizen respects honest differences of opinion.

Conservation: The educated citizen has a regard for the nation’s resources.
Social Application of Science: The educated citizen measures scientific advance by its contribution to the general welfare.

World Citizenship: The educated citizen is a cooperating member of the world community.

Law Observance: The educated citizen respects the law.

Economic Literacy: The educated citizen is economically literate.

Political Citizenship: The educated citizen accepts his civic duties.

Devotion to Democracy: The Educated citizen acts with loyalty to democratic ideals.

Individual items in the tabulation will need amendment in respect of certain countries or regions. The socio-economic approaches and value systems embodied in them would be very different from those applicable to a country in the Asian Region. Each culture has its own concept of an “educated person”. Its objectives of education are founded on the concept.

One could summarize the various objectives of education in terms of three domains or areas:

i) Cognitive: concerned with knowledge and thinking
ii) Affective: concerned with attitudes, feelings and emotions
iii) Psycho motor: concerned with the coordination of muscular movement.

Whatever the emphasis may be, a particular culture at a particular time lays on any of them, the principal goal in education is to achieve a balanced development of the individual in all three areas. The educators’ concern is with the development of the total personality. Hence there is need to identify, on a working basis, a comprehensive set of national objectives of education which is an important prerequisite to educational planning.

The comprehensiveness of objectives, which education is expected to achieve, has brought about three major changes in our concept of education.

a) Education cannot be confined to one particular stage in human life. The nature and range of objectives demand that it should be a lifelong pursuit. Achievement of these goals must range from the cradle to grave.
Note: The concept of a learning society as enunciated by the UNESCO International Commission for Education in its report: “Learning to Be”.

b) The school or other formal educational institutions are not the only means available to provide education to achieve these objectives. In fact, these institutions are not efficient enough for some of the objectives. Alternatives to schools and educational institutions have to be evolved.

c) Studying, divorced from working, is not the only (or even the most effective) way of learning. Working is as much or even more effective as a method of learning. Education must, therefore, combine study and work at every level right through life in order to ensure optimum learning opportunities.

1.2 Approaches to Education Planning

Educational planning till recently has been undertaken as a separate exercise having no substantial links with planning in other socio-economic sectors. First linkages took place in financial context since it was found necessary to reconcile expenditure on education with outlays in other sectors. Educationists found themselves forced to demonstrate that education was not only a consumption commodity rather it has presented an investment or pre-investment which is vital for economic development. The economists on their part began to take interest in education and conducted basic studies on the economic role of education. Such studies attempted to quantify the contributions of educated manpower to increases in national incomes and productivity.

The first indication of a link between education and economy was a result of attempts to match training facilities to the forecasts of manpower requirement of various sectors of economy. Later, more comprehensive approaches were evolved to adopt education to general development. Education plans were thought out and prepared in conjunction with other planning activities. Some of the most familiar approaches are briefly described. Planners have developed formal methodologies for planning. The three most common methodologies are (i) The Social Demand Approach; (ii) The Manpower Requirements Approach; and (iii) The Rate of Returns Approach.

i) The Social Demand Methodology
This aims at planning education to meet the demands of the society for education. It views education as something good in itself and required by every individual. If this methodology is adopted, education institutions and facilities will be located wherever they are needed. Societies where this
approach is used are mostly; those which aim at social equality or culture or the spread of an ideology; and those (especially political leaders) who have respect for public demands. The Social Demand Approach requires a rational method of location and distribution of educational facilities so that they will respect the population distribution (by numbers, age, sex, geographical densities, etc.). Thus this methodology emphasizes equitable distribution mostly by universalization of some levels of education. The problem with this methodology is that it easily gives rise to over-expansion, poor facilities, irrelevant curricular and consequently poor quality (falling standards).

ii) The Manpower Requirement Methodology
This approach focuses on the objective of using education for producing the required manpower for development. This approach adopts several methods to forecast or project the numbers, types, levels and distribution of manpower so that educational plans, content and programmes should focus on those identified manpower needs. Some of the methods used include (a) The Employers’ Opinion Method (by which employers furnish data on their manpower needs for the future, as these figures are used to project the manpower requirements by levels, skills, etc.) (b) the Incremental Labour Output Ratio (ILOR) Method, by this method a fixed relationship is assumed to exist between the increment of a certain category of labour (e.g. High, or Middle Level) and the growth of output of an economic sector or national income, (c) The International Comparison Method: which involves using data or equations based on other developed and developing countries to forecast the manpower requirements in another country by processes of Analogy, or the Harbison’s Rule of Thumb (e.g. that an increase of 1% in normal output should be accompanied by an increase of 2% in the Senior, and 3% in the International Manpower): (d) the Density Ratio Method (an estimation of stable ratios between different categories of manpower).

iii) The Rate of Returns Methodology
This method attempts to determine the private and public costs of education of various types and various levels with the projected benefits or returns (using cost-benefit analysis) to such education. This methodology takes the view that education is essentially an investment, which like other investments should be capable of yielding some profits over time, after discounting or adjusting for unemployment, wastage ability variables, and labour force participation. The problem with this methodology is that most of the effects or benefits of education (e.g. changes in values, attitudes and other ‘spill-over effects) are not amenable to precise computation.
In most of the developing countries, the tendency has been to adopt different methods at different times and for different levels depending on the imperative needs of society.

Thus many such countries may be said to be using synthetic approach (which implies a methodology that takes a bit of each of the above methodologies. For example, Primary and Middle School Education.

iv) **Unit Costs**
   Average, total, unit costs, etc.

v) **Equality and Disparity Issues**
   Access to Educational System by age, sex, geographical distribution, spatial dispersal, etc.

vi) **Organizational Structures**
   Communication flows along-with distribution of power, authority and functions.

vii) **Demographic Factors**
    Age, sex, geographical distribution, population dynamics, migrations.

viii) **Political Factors**
    Political commitments, policy and administrative support.

ix) **External Efficiency:**
    Relevance, responsiveness

x) **Occupational Needs**
    Present and future which should be according to various levels of education and different sectors of economy.

1.3 **Types and Goals of Educational Planning**

a) **What is Educational Planning?**
   Educational Planning, like general Planning is a process of preparing a set of decision about the education enterprise in such a way that the goals and purposes of education will be sufficiently realized in future with the available resources. Educational planning is not a panacea for all the actual or imagined ills of the educational system. It focuses on the application of rational systematic analysis of
the educational production function (past and present) with a view to suggesting (deciding) what actions or measures would make the production of education more efficient and effective while considering the nature of the goals of the society and the students, the available resources, and the time or period in view:

“Educational Planning is a continuous process of obtaining and analyzing facts and, from empirical base, of providing information to decision makers on how well the education system is accomplishing its goals in particular, on how the cost effectiveness of education programmes and specific projects can be improved.”

The major interests of Educational Planning include the following:

1. **Preparation of Alternatives Decisions**
The decisions are primarily aimed at helping policy makers and executors (that in authority) to make rational choices and should take steps that could be more effective for education.

2. **Goals and Objectives**
This means what we desire as outputs or results from the educational process, which ultimately becomes the most fundamental area of all the subject matters.

3. **Programmes and Services**
How we can organize various patterns of learning activities and the supportive services to such activities.

4. **Human Resources**
How we can help and improve their performance, their interaction, their specialization, their behaviour, their competence, their growth and their satisfaction.

5. **Physical Resources**
How we utilize facilities available, or plan their pattern of distribution, or how extensive should we get and what utility value do the resources possess especially with relation to other physical resources.

6. **Finance**
How do we cost our expenditure and how we can plan for revenue (availability and optimal use) which shape in large measure the character of how we utilize human and physical resources of the education system?
7. **Governmental Structure**
   How do we organize and manage the operation and control of educational programmes and activities in response to the political conditions, provisions and creed.

8. **The Social Context**
   What sources and social elements must we consider in the educational system, which in reality is only a miniature social system that includes various elements of the entire social system of the nation or community?

Therefore, educational plans are best seen as adjuncts of the overall national plans. Planning whether national, local or institutional is an attempt to influence the future by taking logical, predetermined action in the present through designing alternative methods, strategies and approaches to assist organization in accomplishing desired objectives. Specifically, the focus of education planning include: to formulate simplicity or explicit a system-wise philosophy, goals and objectives for the system and for the requirements; to examine alternatives in the establishment of priorities, provide for communication and information retrieval, analyze the resources, evaluate the attainment of objectives and should view these in terms of the future. Contingent on adequate educational plans are the factors of time, cost and the abilities of the planners.

As we know, education is a process that take time, for a child who starts his education today can be apply for entrance into secondary education in 5-year time. After another 5-year he may want to enter college. And 14-years after starting his education he will start looking for a job. Because of the long time periods involved in the process of education, the educational planner and administrator has to be looking ahead, he has to plan so that within the appropriate time the facilities will be available to provide the child the right type of education. It can be said that education is in a crisis: quality is low, content is irrelevant, money is unavailable, graduates cannot find work. Plans and programmes have to be designed to solve their problems.

Planning is a conscious effort to influence future development, but planning is not absolutely necessary, as if there is not planning people would still ask for universities to accommodate the etc. if we left education to itself it would still expand and grow planning intends to intervene in this natural growth process and to change its speed or direction.
b) **Types of Educational Planning**

1. **Imperative or Centralized Planning**
   The planning which is done at the federal level or by the central body like planning commission of the government is called imperative planning. The targets and resources for the completion of plans are allocating by the federal government. The implementers are the provincial authority.

2. **Indicative Planning or Local Level Planning**
   This type of planning is done at the local level or at the grass root level of the society. Local people determine priorities. They prepare projects with the help of experts. Funds are allocated for the completion of local projects by the government. Pakistan has started this type of planning with the help of district Nazims of the concerned areas.

3. **Sect Oral Planning**
   In this type of planning projects are prepared by each sector separately. Funds are allocated to the secretary of the department for the implementation of the projects. Here at a time all the departments/Ministries are busy to complete the developmental activities. There is a lesser cooperation among the departments. Every department determines its own priorities. The developmental works are scattered all over the country. This type of planning covers all areas of the country. The pace of development is slow in this type of planning.

4. **Integrated Planning**
   In this type of planning a pilot area is selected for development. All the departments concentrate on the development of that specific area. They prepare projects according to the needs of the area. All the projects have approved funds which are provided at the same time to all the agencies responsible for implementation. In this way the development of that area is ensured with all the facilities. However, there is a weakness in this type of planning, the needy areas are ignored and their turn comes after a long time.
1.4 The Process of Plan Formulation

**Broad Objectives and Targets Setting:** The initial step in plan formulation is that of determining broad objectives and targets. The socio-economic objectives, thus, determined, indicate the direction in which the economy is planned to move. The various objectives which a plan normally claims to achieve include: increase in per capita income, high level of employment, increase in national income, price stability, rapid industrialization, removal of inequalities, equilibrium in the balance of payments, removal of regional disparities, diversification of the economy, and the provision of social services (or basic needs) such as health, education, housing water and sanitation. Not always are these entire objectives consistent. Some of these may be mutually exclusive. The basic idea of planning is to achieve these objectives with an optimum degree of consistency.

The identification of broad goals and objectives in plan is followed by the spelling out of general physical targets for the various sectors of the economy. This ultimately becomes the basis for determining the shape and size of annual plans.

**Survey Current Economic Conditions:** The next step is to take stock of existing conditions in the context of plan perspective. Such a survey enables the identification of areas where more concentrated efforts are needed for the overall growth of the economy.

**Strategy:** The setting of broad goals and objectives/targets and the review of current economic conditions help in identifying the strategy to be adopted to ensure the successful implementation of a plan. Thus, the strategy refers to the specific method or methods to achieve the plan objectives and targets. It also reveals the crucial areas, ‘which if not properly tackled as envisaged in a plan, may lead to its failure. For instance, one of the strategies of the Fifth Five Year plan is the need to focus on rapid development of agriculture based on an efficient utilization of resources in terms of (a) land, manpower and water resources, of (b) expanded and more intensive use of modern inputs, and of (c) the creation of permanent institutions in this vital sector of the economy.

**Determination of Plan Size:** Once the broad objectives targets and strategy have been identified, the next step is to fix the size of a plan so as to arrive at the total investment outlay. For this purpose, planners use the capital – output ratio or the capital coefficient as a tool. This ratio determines the capital needed to achieve a given unit of increase in the national income. For instance, if the capital-output ratio is 4:1, it will show that an investment of Rs. 4 will result in an additional income of Rs. 1.
Financing of Plan: Public and Private Sectors: Having determined the total size of a plan, the next step is to find ways and means of financing it through the public and private sectors. In a mixed economy, the distribution of total investment between public and private sectors is indicative of the efforts needed on the part of the Government and the private enterprise to crystallize the objective/targets in a plan. Thus in such economic system, the instruments of planning are:

a) Direct Public Expenditure: This refers to the expenditure incurred by the Government for development of various sectors of the economy through Annual Development Programmes.

b) Direction of Resources: The government determines the direction of resources in private sector through various policies and regulations in order to ensure the channeling of such resources in the direction indicated in a plan.

c) Sources of Financing: The resources to finance a plan are of two kinds. First, there are internal resources which, are generated within a country through taxes, duties, savings, borrowing etc. Secondly, there are external resources which are obtained from outside the country in the shape of loans, grants, foreign assistance and foreign private investment.

Sectoral Programmes: The fixing of broad physical targets for the various sectors of the economy leads to the preparation of detailed sectoral programmes on the basis of plan priorities. With a view to evolving a sound and workable plan, a proper balance among various major parts of the plan is essential. The plan should have consistency and efficiency. There should be equilibrium between the aggregate output targets and the available resources. In other words, physical targets must match the financial resources available.

Mobilization of Resources: The success of any plan depends upon the mobilization of resources both in terms of man and material. Therefore, a plan should specifically identify as to how the required resources will be mobilized to implement the plan objective and targets.

Plan Execution: Finally, the machinery to extend the plan at different levels needs to be spelt out. This would clearly indicate the handling of different development activities emanating from the plan by number of organization/agencies, mainly in the public sector.
1.5 Process of Project Planning

One of the basic objectives of development planning is to make prudent use of available scarce resources to raise the standard of living of the common man. And to obtain this objective it is essential that projects are prepared meticulously. This avoids the wastage of resources and helps scheduled implementation of projects. Thus, extreme care has to be taken at the stage of project formulation so that the viability of a project from different angles (financial, economic, social, technical, commercial, managerial etc.) may be determined. The project formulator should, therefore, ensure that the project prepared by him;

i) is the best alternative to tackle a certain problem in the presence of a number of constraints;
ii) involves least use of resources;
iii) is sound from financial, economic, technical, commercial and managerial view points; and
iv) has certain flexibility to adjust to any change which may take place during its implementation phase.

In the paragraphs to follow, different essential features of a project (which should be taken care of while preparing a project) have been thoroughly discussed.

i) **Introduction:** In the first instance, a project may contain a brief introductory note/write-up indicating its scope, importance and the weightage of the Education sector in the development plan being followed currently. There might be some identical projects having been implemented previously. Problems faced in such projects should be highlighted and possible solutions may be suggested.

ii) **Background:** A brief reference to plans and policies of the government in respect of the Education sector may be made. The idea here is to see as to how far the project is going to be an effective instrument to achieve the sectoral objectives and targets. There may be a situation when a pilot project is initiated before implementation of the actual project. Such details need to be given.

iii) **The Project Area:** The area where project is to operate may be explored fully so as to establish its suitability. For this purpose, different surveys may be undertaken to collect technical and other data whenever necessary. Following aspects of the project area may also be looked into:-
a) **Physical Resources:** This is very important from the land utilization point of view. A study may be required to examine the topography of the area, capability of the soil (for instance for agricultural production/irrigation projects), water availability etc.

b) **Population and employment:** The study of population in the project area is to identify the beneficiaries of the project. Such a study may involve analysis of the size and age structure of the population, density, its urban-rural distribution, migration trends etc.

c) **Physical Infrastructure:** Depending upon the nature of the project, the prevalent position with regard to the means of transport and communication will have a direct bearing on the operation of the project. Hence, the need for proper study of the physical infrastructure at the stage of project formulation is required.

d) **Institutions:** Presence of the supporting institutions will facilitate smooth functioning of the project. The examination of such institutions is therefore, a very crucial area of probe before the project is proposed to be located at a particular place.

iv) **Objective and Phasing of the Project:** Objectives of the project may be spelt out in specific terms. Similarly, the physical work involved may be clearly indicated with reference to its phasing and time period. This will help identify various project activities and their completion in a more logical sequence.

v) **Choice of Location, Production Process and Size:** At the stage or project formulation, factors such as location, production process, size etc. need to be studied in depth in accordance with the nature of the project. Howsoever sound a project may be, if it is not properly located, it will fail to give full result. Therefore, choice of a proper location for the project is of primary importance.

The choice of production process will mostly be governed by technical considerations. However, natural conditions and supply of factors of production will also make a lot of difference. Determination of the size of the project will be governed mainly by the volume of future demand for the produce of the project, the geographical extent of the market which in turn will depend on the taste and habits of the consumers.

vi) **Project’s Major Works and other Components:** In order to give physical shape to a project, major works and essential components have to be
indicated with maximum accuracy. These works and activities may be classified as under:

a) **Major Works:** Based on preliminary surveys and investigations (normally in case of big projects) all major works should be described in full.

b) **Ancillary Works and Buildings:** For some of the projects, staff-houses and drinking water supply tanks may have to be constructed, simultaneously. These works when connected with some major projects are known as ancillary works.

c) **Equipment:** Some equipment may also be required during the construction and operation of the project such as machinery, vehicles and other maintenance equipment which should be identified in advance for smooth running of the project.

vii) **Phasing of Works and Activities:** A project may be spread over any length of time. For this reason, project-works are split up into different phases. Generally, projects are phased out on fiscal year basis. Nevertheless, in case of big projects which involve certain loans, proper scheduling and phasing of various activities included in the project assumes greater significance for the purpose of repayment of loans. In order to facilitate smooth and timely implementation of projects, it is necessary to visualize problems which are likely to crop up during the execution phase. This would bring in more realism in the project at the very stage of its formulation.

viii) **Project Costs:** Different project costs are as under:

a) **Capital Costs:** These cover all the expenditures on physical assets. They include the costs of (1) major works (2) ancillary works and buildings (3) equipment and items of costs associated with support services and (4) contingencies.

b) **Recurrent Costs:** The expenditures on goods and services needed to operate and maintain a project constitute the recurrent costs. The items included in such costs are salaries and wages of project employees, costs of essential inputs needed for operating the main works of the project (fuel, electricity etc.) expenses on repair and maintenance of capital items.

c) **Local and Foreign Currency Costs:** In some cases a part of the capital and recurrent costs of the project is in the form of foreign currency, a very scare factor in a country like ours. For financing arrangements as well as for sound economic analysis, it is essential to show separately the local and foreign currency components of capital and recurrent costs.
d) **Phasing of Costs:** The capital and recurrent costs of the project may be phased on an annual basis. Such phasing will depend entirely on the scheduling of major construction works and on the annual rate of progress of project operation until output reaches its maximum potential. The phasing of costs in an essential aspect of project preparation as it indicates the annual financial requirement of a project to be met during its entire life.

viii) **Financing of the Project:** There could be various sources to finance a project. In brief these sources are:-

a) Government Sources
   i) Grant
   ii) Loan
   iii) Investment
   iv) Direct Government Expenditure

b) Sponsoring Agency’s Own Fund

c) Private Investment

d) Local Body Services

e) Non-Government Borrowing

ix) **Organization and Management:** For this purpose, through analysis of requirement (both at the implementation and the subsequent stages) in terms of skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled manpower is essential. Along with this, the position with regard to the availability of the requisite manpower also needs to be examined. Such an analysis will reveal as to what steps are needed to meet the project requirements in terms of different types of manpower.
1.6 Activities

1. Keeping in view the types and purpose of educational planning, enlist the roles of existing District Nazim.

2. Consult anyone who knows planning and then write down at least four steps of plan formulation.

3. Prepare a project on field trip by using the steps involved in process of project preparation and discuss it with your colleagues.

1.7 Exercise

1. Discuss the educational planning and its approaches. How far these approaches are to be followed in Pakistan?

2. Explain the types of planning with examples and with reference to Pakistan.

3. Differentiate the plan and project and the process of both.
Bibliography


UNIT-5

SCHOOL DISCIPLINE & CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

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Introduction

School discipline has two main goals, (1) ensure the safety of staff and students, and (2) create an environment conducive to learning. Serious student misconduct involving violent or criminal behavior defeats these goals and often makes headlines in the process. However, the commonest discipline problems involve non-criminal student behavior (Moles 1989).

These less dramatic problems may not threaten personal safety, but they still negatively affect the learning environment. Disruptions interrupt lessons for all students, and disruptive students lose even more learning time. For example, Gottfredson and others (1989) calculate that in six middle schools in Charleston, South Carolina, students lost 7,932 instructional days 44 years! To in-school and out-of-school suspension in a single academic year.

It is important to keep the ultimate goal in mind while working to improve school discipline. As education researcher Daniel Duke (1989) points out, “the goal of good behavior is necessary, but not sufficient to ensure academic growth.” Effective school discipline strategies seek to encourage responsible behavior and to provide all students with a satisfying school experience as well as to discourage misconduct.

Objectives

After successful completion of this unit, you will be able to;
1. Define meanings of school discipline, classroom management and student classification;
2. Appreciate the needs and importance of positive school discipline;
3. Plan student classification at secondary level;
4. Enlist common patterns of students’ classification in elementary and secondary school level of Pakistan;
5. Indicate the principles of classroom management.
1.1 Meaning and Purpose School Discipline

The word “discipline” is derived from the Latin root “disciples” meaning a pupil or disciple. Naturally, the problem of discipline was taken to consist in bringing the conduct of the pupils into conformity with ideas and standards of the master. The teacher’s personality was always regarded as noble and beneficent and the pupils had to develop the virtue of docility and plasticity so that the teacher might impress his personality on them and mould them in his own image. This was the conception of the relationship between pupil and teacher everywhere, far more so in the East than in the West.

The modern conception of discipline is a very broad and inclusive one. It does not recognized difference between mental and moral behaviour for the purpose of control, no, in fact, for any other purpose. “The much and commonly lamented separation in schools between, intellectual and moral training, between the acquiring of information and growth of character, says Dewey, “is simply on expression of the failure to conceive and construct the school as a social institution, having social life and value within itself.” Every experience–intellectual, moral, civic and physical has a value from the point of view of a pupil’s development as a member of society; and, conversely, the pupil’s social experiences have an effect on his personal development. In fact, the individual mind is conceived of “as a function of social life–as not capable of operating by itself but as requiring continual stimulus from social agencies and finding its nutrition in social purpose.”

The modern view of discipline, for which we are indebted to Dewey, demands the same unity in the educative process and educative material as we find in real life, which is social through and through. The school must be a social organism, in which social situations should be provided to stimulate and direct the impulses of the pupils in the pursuit of common purposes through cooperative or shared activity. “Out of doing things that are to produce results, and out of doing these in social things that are to produce results, and out of doing these social and cooperative ways, there is born a discipline of its own kind and type.

The whole of the pupil’s life in the school – all his intellectual, social moral and physical activities, so far as they are carried out in cooperation with others and are directed towards the realization of certain purposes – is disciplinary.

The essential purpose of school discipline is the development in the pupils of attitudes, habits and ideals of conduct through the medium of the social life of the school, organized on a cooperative basis and inspired by the higher ethical teachings of religion.
The purpose of discipline is to help in individual to acquire knowledge, habits, interests and ideals which conduce to the well-being of himself, his fellow and society as a whole. If this purpose is to be realized the school should be reconstructed on the lines of a democratic society in which membership implies the right of full and the free individual development and conscious pursuit of common ends in a cooperative spirit, each member contributing to the common good in accordance with his special gifts. Life in a school thus organized becomes similar to, and continuous with, life in a democratic society, and discipline becomes co-extensive with the whole of school life.

Hints:

- Discipline gives children a feeling of security by telling them what they may and may not do.
- By helping children to avoid frequent feelings of guilt and shame for misbehaviour—feelings that inevitably lead to unhappiness and poor adjustment—discipline enables children to live according to standards approved by the social group and thus, to win social approval.
- Through discipline, children learn to behave in a way that leads to praise that they, interpret as indications of love and acceptance—essentials to successful adjustment and happiness.
- Developmentally appropriate discipline serves as ego-bolstering motivation, which encourages children to accomplish what is required of them.
- Discipline helps children to develop a conscience the “internalized voice” that guides them in making their own decision and controlling their own behaviour.

1.2 Factors Effecting School Discipline

At present indiscipline in our educational institutions is a serious problem. It extends from the secondary school to the universities. In society, itself we find several manifestations of indiscipline and it is the wonder that these have serious repercussion on the educational institutions as well. The following may be some of the important causes of indiscipline in our school.

1. Lack of Leadership in Teacher

Today teachers do not enjoy the same respect in society which they did in the past. Consequently students also do not show due respect to their teachers. Some teachers get involved in a cesspool of politics and self-interest, and lose their ideals and they do not show any interest in the development of the students. Very often these teachers excite the students
and use them as tool of private tuition’s the prestige of the teacher in society has gone down. There miserable economic conditions add to this. Due to all these reasons, the teachers have lost originality in thinking. As a result, they are incapable of giving guidance to students in the various situations of life. So it is no wonder to find indiscipline among the students.

2. **The Current Education System**
The current system of education is being criticized at all times. Hence, the students have begun to feel that the education which is being given to them is not good. As a result they have no regard for this education. They consider it merely as a means of getting some employment. The prime aim of the present day educational system has become the securing of a good division at annual examinations and the students do not desist from adopting any means to achieve these objectives. This also a cause of indiscipline.

3. **Lack of Sustaining Ideal in the Students**
At present the condition of our society is pitiable. Many people because of their self-interest have started attaching greater importance to the ends rather that to the means to achieve them. The social values are undergoing rapid changes, as such the individual errs in fixing his moral standard. This has shaken the very foundation of our society. Today the individual is not sure about the security of his life and property. Therefore, there is a lack of healthy ideal among the students. Hence indiscipline is increasing among them.

4. **Economic Difficulties**
Our economic conditions have deteriorated to a deplorable degree. The population has increased unemployment is a national problem. The students are always haunted by the fear that their future is dark. So they cannot chalk out their path of duty and on occasions they behave in an undisciplined manner.

From the above discussion we may conclude that the responsibility for indiscipline does not rest only with the school, but also with the home, the society and the government. Hence for its eradication the cooperation of all the concerned is necessary. On the basis of the causes mentioned above some suggestions are given below to solve the problem of indiscipline.

i) **School Discipline and Guidance Programme**
Every adult who cares for children has responsibility to guide, correct and socialize children toward appropriate behaviors. These adult actions often are
called child guidance and discipline. Positive guidance and discipline are crucial because they promote children’s self-control, teach children responsibility and help children make thoughtful choices. The more effective adult caregivers are at encouraging appropriate child behavior, the less time and effort adults will spend correcting children’s misbehavior. Family specialists are agree that using physical force, threats and put-downs can interfere with a child’s health development. For example, there is evidence that spanking can have negative effects on children.

Family specialists also agree that a perfect formula that answers to all questions about discipline does not exist. Children are unique and so are the families in which they live. A discipline strategy that might work with one child may not work with another.

Effective guidance and discipline focus on the development of the child. They also preserve the child’s self-esteem and dignity. Actions that insult or belittle are likely to cause children to view their parents and other caregivers negatively, which can inhibit learning and can teach the child to be unkind to others. However, actions that acknowledge the child’s efforts and progress, no matter how slow or small, are likely to encourage healthy development.

Teaching children self-discipline is a demanding task. It requires patience, thoughtful attention, cooperation and a good understanding of the child. It also requires knowledge of one’s own strengths and struggles with disciplinary issues. Unfortunately, the only preparation for most parents in their own experience of being parented. Such past experiences may not always be helpful in raising today’s children.

ii)  Proactive Strategies
Children misbehavior is impossible to prevent completely. Children usually curious and endlessly creative, are likely to do things parents and other caregivers have not expected. However, there are many positive steps teachers and educational institution can take to help prevent misbehavior.

- Set clear, consistent rules
- Make certain the environment is safe and worry free
- Show interest in the child’s activities
- Provide appropriate and engaging playthings
- Encourage self-control by providing meaningful choices
- Focus on the desired behaviour, rather than the one to be avoided
- Build children’s image of themselves as trustworthy, responsible and cooperative
- Expect the best from the child
- Give clear directions, one at a time
- Say “Yes” whenever possible
Notice and pay attention to children when they do things right
Take action before a situation gets out of control
Encourage children often and generously
Set a good example
Help children see how their actions affect others

iii) Possible Reasons Children Misbehave
If parents and teachers understand why their children misbehave, they can be more successful at reducing behavior problems. Listed here are some of the possible reasons why children misbehave.

- They want to test whether caregivers will enforce rules
- They experience different sets of expectations between school and home
- They do not understand the rules, or are held to expectations that are beyond their developmental levels
- They want to assert themselves and their independence
- They feel ill, bored, hungry or sleepy
- They lack accurate information and prior experience
- They have been previously “rewarded” for their misbehavior with adult attention
- They copy the actions of their parents

iv) Positive Discipline Techniques
True misbehavior occurs when a student chooses to behave inappropriately. Before you take action ask yourself the following questions:

- Is the student really doing something wrong? Is there a real problem, or are you just tired and out of patience?
  - If there is no real problem, release your stress away from the child.
  - If there is a problem, go to the next question.
- Think for a moment! Is your student actually capable of doing what you expect?
  - If you are not being realistic, re-evaluate your expectations.
  - If your expectations are fair, go to the next question.
- Did you student know at the time that he or she was doing something wrong?
  - If your student did not realize something wrong, help her understanding what you expect why and how she can do that. Offer to help.
  - If your student knew what he was doing was wrong and he intentionally disregarded a reasonable expectation, your child misbehaved.

If the behavior was an accident, like wetting her pants while sleeping, which is not a misbehavior. If the behavior was not an accident, ask your student to tell you the reasons she has for doing what she did. If the child is old enough, ask her how she might solve the problem or correct the situation. By using a problem-
solving approach, children can develop skills in thinking through a situation and development possible solutions.

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<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
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<td>Take a few minute to reflect on your own childhood years evaluate the ways your parents and teachers disciplined you. Which practices would you thank them for, and which would you like to do differently?</td>
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### 1.3 Meaning of Classroom and its Management

Education is as old as society itself. Even the ancient savage had to learn about the environment for his survival. To gratify man’s basic desire and need of seeking knowledge in a formal and systematic way many philosophers and educators endeavoured in their own styles. Class rooms were used as appropriate arena for teaching-learning activities. In the past education had been limited to the elite class of the society, but in the recent past with the rapid development in all spheres of life need for mass education arose which resulted in the emergence of large classes. Teaching in normal classes did not provide much problem to the teachers but the large classes certainly hampered the smooth functioning of educational activities.

Teaching in large classes is a worldwide phenomenon especially in the developing countries. Large size classes make the use of certain teaching materials and methods difficult if not impossible. In certain cases the students feel the content of some of their course meaningless and inappropriate due to the large size of the class. The teachers also feel helpless to impart proper teaching in such classes. Normally they go into these classes just to pass away the time without bothering much about the need and interest of their students. However, the teachers of all types at all levels agree that large classes are causing big hindrance in teaching. Hence need from management of large classes arose.

The term management of large classes is often misunderstood with maintaining discipline in the large classes. Management of large classes in instructional perspective means the complex set of plans and actions that the teacher uses to ensure that the learning in the classroom is effective and efficient. The concept of management of large classes is broader than that of discipline, which often can notes a central goal of keeping students quiet and in their seats. There is nothing wrong with having students quite and in their seats, but that should ot be the teacher’s central goal. Effective classroom teachers place discipline in its proper perspective in the total instructional scene. Management also involves teaching students in such ways and means that they can manage their own behaviour in
classroom settings and by establishing learning situations that will allow them to do this. It is in this sense that management is broader than discipline and encompasses the teacher’s overall educational goals. By implementing management plans, the teacher not only hopes to increase students learning but also help students develop ways and means to understand and direct their own behaviour. The concept of management in this context is hard to differentiate from the concept of instruction, and the two are closely related in theory and practice. Good classroom managers are often good teachers. They always create the classroom environment so as to maximize the student’s learning opportunities, thus reducing the problems of classroom management.

Management of classes always demands such strategies, methods and measures which should facilitate productive work in teaching-learning process. Education department, school administration and the teacher himself have to show their concern and involvement. This problem needs to be considered as part of pedagogic life and worthy of investigation. Peter Hubbard, Director of the language Research and Development Centre at Mexico University has made the remarks about the research worthiness of language learning in large classes as’ “the large classes phenomenon is not researched because most researcher react by saying (a) it is not theoretically interesting; and (b) it is insoluble.” The only solution generally thought is to avoid large classes as the management of large classes is not simple but complex”.

i) Principles of Classroom Management

Principle # 1: Assess, clarify and communicate needs and expectation
Students and teacher needs, right, and expectations should be openly discussed on the first day of class and reviewed periodically as a preventive measure.

- **Student needs/rights/expectations**: Student’s basic needs include survival, belonging, power, fun and freedom. They expect the teacher to facilitate that learning by setting limits on disruptive student behaviour.
- **Teacher needs/rights/expectations**: A teacher needs the full attention of each student. He has the right to establish optimal learning environments. He may expect behaviour with contributes to optimal student growth.
- **Further expectations of the student**: The student is expected to come prepared to class with appropriate class materials and a willingness to learn. The students are expected to behave respectfully to the teacher and to other students. Furthermore, the student is expected to accept the consequences of misbehaviour.
Further expectations of the teacher: The teacher is expected to consider interesting curricula which meet the students’ needs (listed above), to provide stimulating and useful lessons, and to always ask the students to be the best that they can be. Furthermore, the teacher is expected to use teaching practices which are likely to motivate students to engage in worthwhile learning activities.

Principle # 2: Create a warm and nurturing classroom climate
The classroom should be a place where a student feels welcome and at home. Students need to feel safe and accepted, so ridicule and sarcasm are not allowed. Mutual respect and the Golden Rule is the key for maintaining this climate.

- Physical environment: The classroom should be clean and pleasantly decorated with students creations, yet free from distracting stimuli. The desks should be arranged to allow students to work cooperatively as well as allowing the teacher to circulate freely and efficiently.
- Treatment of students: Each student deserves to be treated with dignity and respect. Students should be personally greeted at the door. They should be given as much personal attention as possible during and outside of class.
- Esprit de corps: Although there are many causes of Esprit de corps, a teacher’s enthusiasm, level of concern for the students, and class involvement all can affect the level of class togetherness. This force can benefit cooperative learning exercises and make the curricula seem much more enjoyable.

Principle # 3: Democratically develop a set of rules and consequences
Teachers and students must create together the, discipline plans including rules with clear and effective consequences. The rules should be agreed upon and understood by everyone in the class. It should be understood that when rules are broken, consequences will be applied fairly and consistently.

- Jointly develop class rules based on expectations and needs: The teacher solicits help to develop a set of classroom rules and responsibilities. The ideal list would be short and reflect the concepts of mutual respect and personal responsibility.
- Discuss logical consequences: Logical consequences are the results which consistently follow certain behaviour. They are explained in advance and agreed by the students. It is hoped that by understanding the consequences of disruptive behaviour, that students will make better choices. Consequences should be related to the misbehaviour so the students can see the connection. For example, if you choose not to work on your assignment, you will stay after school until it is finished.
• **Display the rules and consequences prominently:** Once the class has developed is list of rules, they should be displayed as a reminder to those who may wish to break them. This gives the teacher something to point out at when requesting certain behaviour.

**Principle # 4: Develop a daily routine, yet remain flexible**
Student will often misbehave if they don’t know exactly what should do and when. Teacher can avoid this dilemma by installing class routines and procedures, which can allow the student to begin and complete work expeditiously.

• **Every minute counts:** As part of an effective routine, it is the best for students to begin work immediately after the bell rings. Fun problems or interesting reflection topics can be put on the overhead projector to meaningfully occupy the student until attendance is taken. The activity could lead directly into the day’s lesson.

• **Providing assistance:** Once the lesson has been presented, the teacher is free to answer individual student questions. During this time, the teacher must be aware of what is happening in all areas of the classroom. Therefore, it is important to give “efficient help” to the students. This type of help may also reduce the number of cases of the “dependency syndrome” — students asking questions without actually needing help.

• **Managing assignment collection:** Each class has its own basket for daily assignments. At the end of the hour, on the way out of class, students drop off their completed assignments for grading.

• **Restructure or reschedule:** It is understood that lesson plans can be affected by conditions beyond the control of the teacher. There may be cases where class activities must be restructured or rescheduled to accommodate the changed conditions. It is possible, with some ingenuity, to make the situation a learning experience, beneficial to all.

**Principle # 5: Make learning more attractive and fun for the students**
Schools exist for the students, and not for the teachers. It is important for the teacher to expand every effort necessary to make the curriculum relevant, the lessons interesting, and the activities enjoyable. The result will be an engaged and active participant in the learning process.

• **Genuine incentive:** Students respond well to the participation of preferred group activities, referred to as genuine incentives. It is possible to get an entire class on task if the incentive is available to all students, and attractive to the entire group so as to merit extra effort. The incentive should be both stimulating to the students and educationally valuable.
• **Active student involvement:** The teacher can make learning more attractive by giving a coherent and smoothly paced lesson presentation. Getting the lesson going, keeping it going with smooth transitions, avoiding abrupt changes that interfere with student activity, and postponing satiation are important in maintaining positive student behaviour associated with being on task.

• **Focus on student needs:** Lesson topics should be relevant to the students if at all possible. Teaching strategies should be congruent with student learning styles. The teacher should help the students develop learning goals which are real, attainable and a source of pride. Activities should be fun for the students.

**Principle # 6: Deal with misbehavior, quickly consistently and respectfully**

Misbehavior is a disruption to my effectiveness as an educator. The time spent dealing with misbehaving would be better spent for teaching others. Therefore, misbehavior will be dealt with quickly and consistently with class defined consequences.

• **Non-verbal communication:** Body language, facial expressions, gestures, eye contact and physical proximity all can be effective in promoting self-control by the student. It is important that a teacher is aware enough to be able to recognize when misbehaviour may occur, and to have non-verbal methods to prevent escalation. Kounie refers to this level of awareness as “Wittiness”.

• **Reminders/requests:** It is possible that a verbal reminder of the classroom rules and consequences will be all that is necessary to stop student misbehaviour.

• **Redirecting behaviour:** Upon an act of misbehaviour teacher may describe the action to the student and suggest an acceptable alternative action. The student usually only has to be reminded of what he is supposed to be doing. For example, “Instead of reading that newspaper, I would like you to work on your homework for the next five minutes. You can read the paper later”.

• **Dealing with attention-seeking students:** If the teacher ignores an attention seeking student, the misbehaviour usually escalate to a level which eventually cannot be ignored. Therefore, it is best if the teacher can redirect the student’s behaviour and attempt to give the student attention when he is not demanding it. This method encourages students to seek motivation from within, instead of depending on attention from without.

• **Avoid power struggles:** It is important that the authority figure in the classroom (the teacher) not engage in power struggles with students. It is
best to redirect a power-seeking student’s behaviour by offering some position of responsibility or decision making.

- **Address the behaviour not the character of the student:** The teacher has the power to build or destroy student self concept and personal relationships. Good communication addresses the situation directly, letting the student decide whether their behaviour is consistent with what they expect of themselves.

- **Invoking consequences:** To be effective, consequences must be applied consistently. They should never be harmful physically or psychologically to the student. When they are invoked, the student should understand that he has chosen them by misbehaving.

- **Prevent escalation:** Sometimes students are unwilling to listen to the teacher. At this point, a teacher can help prevent misbehaviour from escalating by talking (and listening) with the student privately, and rationally discuss the problem behaviour. The privacy enhances the possibility for a constructive discussion. Confrontation with an unwilling student could make the teacher appear weak in front of the class.

**Principle # 7: When all else fails, respectfully remove the student from the class**

Continued disruptions will not be tolerated in my classroom. They are detrimental to all students will become active and effective learners. Therefore, such students will be respectfully removed from class, and dealt with unconventionally.

- **Insubordination rule:** This rule states: “If a student does not accept the consequence for breaking a class rule, then he or she will not be allowed to remain in the class until the consequence is accepted.” This rule should be made clear to the students from the first day, and should be strictly enforced with the administration approval of course.

- **Conference:** A teacher may request a one-on-one conference with the student to discuss a specific behaviour problem. The goal of this conference is to gain insight so that helpful guidance may be provided. For more serious behavioural matters, the teacher may also request a conference with the student’s parent or guardian with the same purpose.

- **Behavioural plan:** This plan is for students who do not respond to conventional discipline. The plan can be written in contract form, and should include expected behaviours for the student, positive recognition for compliance, and consequence for failing. The plan should address one or two significant problems at a time, and should used the consequences which differ from the previously failed ones used by the rest of the class.
ii) **Techniques for Better Classroom Discipline**

Here are eleven techniques that teacher can use in his classroom that will help him to achieve effective group management and control. They have been adapted from an article called: “A Primer on Classroom Discipline: Principles Old and new” by Thomas r. McDaniel; Phi Delta Kappan, May 195.

**Focusing:** Be sure you have the attention of everyone in your classroom before you start your lesson. Don’t attempt to teach over the chatter of students who are not paying attention. Inexperienced teachers sometimes think that by beginning their lesson, the class will settle down. The children will see that things are underway now and it is time to go to work. Sometimes this works, but the children are also going to think that you are willing to compete with them. You don’t mind talking while they talk. You are willing to speak louder so that they can finish their conversation when after you have started the lesson. They get the idea that you accept their inattention and that it is permissible to talk while you are presenting a lesson. The focusing techniques means that you will demand their attention before you begin. That you will wait and not start until everyone has settled down. Experienced teachers know that silence on their part is very effective. They will punctuate their waiting by extending it 5 to 10 seconds after the classroom is completely quiet. Then they begin their lesson using a quieter voice than normal. A soft spoken teacher often has a calmer, quieter classroom than one with a stronger voice. Her students sit still in order to hear what she says.

**Direct Instruction:** Uncertainty increases the level of excitement in the classroom. The technique of direct instruction is to begin each class by telling the students exactly what will be happening. The teacher outlines what he and the students will be doing this period. He may set time limits for some tasks. An effective way to marry this technique with the first one is to include time at the end of the period for students to do activities of their choosing. The teacher may finish the description of the hour’s activities with “and I think we will have some time at the end of the period for you to chat with your friends, go to the library, or catch upon on work for other classes.” The teacher is more willing to wait for class attention when he know there is extra time to meet his goals and objectives. The students soon realize that the more time the teacher waits for their attention, the less free time they have at the end of the hour.

**Monitoring:** The key to this principle is to circulate. Get up and get around the room, while your students are working, make the rounds. Check on their progress, an effective teacher will make a pass through the whole room about two minutes after the students have started a written assignment. She checks that each student has started, that the children are on the correct page, and that everyone has put
their name on their papers. The delay is important. She wants her students to have a problem or two finished so she can check that answers are correctly labeled or in complete sentences. She provides individualized instruction as needed. Students who are not yet quite on task will be quick to get going as they see her approach. This that were distracted or slow to get started can be nudged along. The teacher does not interrupt the class or try to make general announcements unless she notices that several students have difficulty with the same thing. The teacher uses a quiet voice and her students appreciate her personal and positive attention.

**Modeling:** McDaniel tells us of a saying that goes: “Values are caught, not taught.” Teacher who are courteous, prompt, enthusiastic, in control, patient and organized provide examples for their students through then own behaviour. The “do as I say, not as I do” teachers send mixed messages that confuse students and invite misbehavior. If you want student to use quiet voices in our classroom while they work, you too will use a quiet voice as you move through the room helping youngsters.

**Non-Verbal Cuing:** A standard item in the classroom of the fifties was the clerk’s bell. A shiny nickel bell sat on the teacher’s desk. With one tap of the button on top he had everyone’s attention. Teachers have shown a lot of ingenuity over the years in making use of non-verbal cues in the classroom. Some flip light switch. Others keep clickers in their pockets. Non-verbal cues can also be facial expressions, body posture, and hand signals. Care should be given in choosing the types of cues you use in your classroom. Take time to explain what you want the student to do when you use your cues.

**Environmental Control:** A classroom can be warm cheery place. Students enjoy an environment that changes periodically. Study centers with pictures and colour invite enthusiasm for your subject. Young people like to know about you and your interests. Include personal items in your classroom. A family picture or a few items from a hoppity or collection on your desk will trigger personal conversations with your students. As they get to know you better, you will see fewer problems with discipline. Just as you may want to enrich your classroom, there are times when you may want to impoverish it as well. You may need a quiet corner with few distractions. Some student will get caught up in visual exploration. For them, the splash and the colour is a siren that pulls them off task. They may need more vanilla and less rocky-road. Have a place you can steer this youngster to. Let him get his work some first then come back to explore to explore and enjoy the rest of the room.
Low-Profile Intervention: Most students are sent to the principal’s office as a result of confrontational escalation. The teacher has called them on lesser offense, but in the moments that follow, the student and the teacher are swept up in a verbal maelstrom. Much of this can be avoided when the teacher’s intervention is quiet and calm. An effective teacher will not care that the student is not rewarded for misbehavior by becoming the focus of attention. She monitors the activity in her classroom, moving around the room. She anticipates problems before they occur. Her approach to a misbehaving student is inconspicuous. Others in the class are not distracted. While lecturing to her class, this teacher makes effective use of name dropping. If she sees a student talking or off task, she simply drops the youngster’s name into her dialog in a natural way “And you see, David, we carry the one to the tens column”. David hears his name and is drawn back on task. The rest of the class does not seem to notice.

Assertive Discipline: This is traditional limit setting authoritarianism. When executed as presented by Lee Canter (who has made this form a discipline one of the most widely known and practiced) it will include a good mix of praise. This is high profile discipline. The teacher is the boss and no child has the right to interfere with the learning of any student. Clear rules are laid out and consistently enforced.

Assertive I-Messages: A component of assertive discipline, these I-Messages are statements that the teacher uses when confronting a student who is misbehaving. They are intended to be clear descriptions of what the student is suppose to do. The teacher who makes good use of this technique will focus the child’s attention first and foremost on the behavior he wants, not on the misbehavior. “I want you to…” or “I need you to…” Or “I expect you to…” The inexperienced teacher may incorrectly try: “I want you to stop…” Only to discover that this usually triggers confrontation and denial. The focus is on the misbehavior and the student is quick to report: “I was not doing anything” or “It wasn’t my fault…” or “Since when is there a rule against…” And escalation has begun.

Humanistic I-Messages: These I-Messages are expressions of our feeling. Thomas Gordon, creator of Teacher effectiveness Training (TE), tells us to structure these messages in three parts. First, a description of the child’s behaviour “When you talk while I talk…” Second, the effect this behaviour has on the teacher. “…I have to stop my teaching…” An third, the feeling that it generates in the teacher. “…Which frustrates me.” A teacher, distracted by a student who was constantly talking while he tried to teach, once made this powerful expression of feelings: “I cannot imagine what I have done to you that I do not deserve the respect from you that I get from the others in this class. I feel
as though I have somehow offended you and now you are unwilling to show me respect.” The student did not talk during his lectures again for many weeks.

**Positive Discipline:** Use classroom rules that describe the behaviours you want instead of listing things the students cannot do. Instead of “no-running in the room, “move through the building in an orderly manner.” Instead of “no-fighting, use “settle conflicts appropriately.” Instead of “no-gum chewing”, use “leave gum at home.” Refer to your rules as expectations. Let your students know this is how you expect them to behave in your classroom. Make ample use of praise. When you see good behaviour acknowledges it. This can be done verbally, of course, but it doesn’t have to be. A nod, a smile or a “Thumbs up” will reinforce the behaviour.

### 1.4 Criteria for Student Classification

#### i) History *(Some Plans of Students Classification)*

Since the purpose of school is to serve the needs of pupils, a major responsibility of the administrator is to organize the school and classify pupils to facilitate the achievement of this purpose. Even before schools were divided into grades, this adjustment problem was present. Dividing schools into grades helped solve some problems related to textbooks, facilities, materials, and methods, but at the same time, another problem was created. This new problem is the “lock step” system. The “lock step” system, including what is known as “grade standard”, has made it very difficult to meet the needs of individual pupils. Too often administrators have been content to make the individual try to adjust to the school – that is, to the teachers, methods of instruction, courses, grades and standards of a particular grade or subject-instead of adjusting the school to the pupil. Individual differences of pupils within any age group, subject class, or grade, make it necessary for the administration to provide some means for respecting those differences. Many innovations in curriculum, teaching method, and organization have been tried. A few of these will be discussed here.

**Winnetka Plan:** Around 1920, a plan of individual instruction for elementary school children within a grade was inaugurated at Winnetka, Illinois. The curriculum for each grade was divided into two parts – the common essentials and the group activities. The common essentials – the knowledge and the skills considered necessary for all pupils – were divided into units or “goals”. Assignment sheet, work sheets, diagnostic practice tests, and final tests were provided for each unit. Each child worked at his own rate for the mastery of each unit. When the individual had mastered the unit, he proceeded to the next unit of work. Group activities were designed as part of the pupil’s work each day and
centered around arts and crafts, music, physical education, and the like, with no standardized goals to be met. These group activities were to give socializing and creative experiences which the child did not get in working with the common essentials.

**Unit Plan:** Another means of individualizing classroom work is the unit plan of teaching. The units of work are organized around a comprehensive and significant aspect of our environment of science, of art, or of conduct. The unit plan is a teaching procedure and requires no changes in school organization. There have been many adaptation of the unit method, such as the project, activity and problem assignments. These methods are distinct departures from the traditional subject-matter recitation type of teaching. The unit method of teaching has had great influences in the elementary and secondary schools by focusing attention upon the organization of the subject matter for the purpose of meeting the needs of individual pupils. The unit method has also had influence upon the curriculum being offered in many schools. Effort has been made continually to change the curriculum in the schools to meet the needs of all youth.

**Techniques of Instruction:** Adjustment of the instructional programme of meet the needs of the individual are possible not only through a changed curriculum but also through techniques of instruction. The following suggestions relate to instruction for meeting individual needs:

1. Develop units on life problems rather than on abstract subject matter problems.
2. Teach to focus on the satisfaction of needs recognized by the learners.
3. Provide adequate counseling and guidance services.
4. Utilize more fully teaching resources such as films, radio, television, teaching machines and the local community environment.
5. Use a wide variety of printed materials.

These suggestions, if followed, would certainly improve the quality of instruction and help solve many adjustment problems. The school would come nearer to meeting the needs of the individual by assisting him in the solution of this problem.

**Summer School:** Many school districts operate summer schools as a means of adjusting the schools to the pupils. These schools, however, are operated primarily for students who have failed or for those who wish to make additional credits in order to complete high school in three years. Some elementary and high school pupils attend summer school because they have not measured up to the standard of the particular grade or subject. How well children succeed in summer school after having done poorly in the regular term is a question. Some educators
doubt the advisability of sending pupils to summer school because of failure in the regular term. Most summer schools emphasize such subjects are music, art, sports and games, but in the last few years there has been a pronounced trend toward the inclusion of more academic subjects, such as mathematics, science and foreign languages.

**Grouping:** Grouping students by some means other than chronological age has been of interest to many educational leaders for the past three decades. It is rather unusual to find a professional book which does not have a treatise on homogeneous grouping. In most cases, homogeneous grouping has meant grouping pupils according to mental ability or achievement in subject matter. Mental ability has usually been determined by group tests or teachers’ judgment and achievement by standardized or teacher made tests and / or teachers’ judgments. In the final analysis, all these factors depend to a great extent upon subject-matter achievement. If subject-matter achievement is the complete goal of education, grouping according to achievement and ability may make mass instruction easier. Many teachers prefer homogeneous ability grouping because they believe instruction can be carried on more efficiently.

Arguments for homogeneous grouping usually include the following:
1. Homogeneous groups are usually taught by the same methods as are heterogeneous groups.
2. Grouping saves the teachers’ time and energy.
3. More subject matter is covered in the same period of time.
4. Poor students are not discouraged.
5. Specially trained teachers can be employed for poorer pupils.
6. A homogeneous group can be taught as an individual.
7. The Brighter pupils are encouraged.
8. Loafing on the part of superior pupils is reduced or eliminated.

There certainly are arguments against homogeneous grouping. Among such arguments are the following:
1. No basis for grouping has been developed which is sufficiently objective.
2. Unwholesome competition may be engendered.
3. People are not strictly groped in their life occupations according to ability.
4. Status distinctions, characteristic of a class society, may be fostered.
5. Groups cannot be formed which are homogeneous in each curriculum area because abilities of a single student vary from subject to subject.
6. No practical way has been found to group on the basis of special ability.
7. Grouping according to ability often causes jealousy and resentment on the part of the pupils and parents.
Non-graded elementary School: the non-graded elementary school is a movement which is slowly gaining supporters. This plan of classifying students is attributed to the results of the child study movement, which revealed that children differ in many ways, and to studies revealing the negative effects of non-promotion upon pupil achievement and adjustment. A non-graded elementary school classifies pupils according to levels rather than according to grade numbers. The levels are usually based on reading ability and usually consist of ten to twelve levels in the first three grades. The pupil progresses through the levels at his own rate without the usual stigma of lack of promotion or failure. A pupil may complete the three years of work in two years or may take as long as four years. This plan has been used much more extensively in the primary grades than in the intermediate grades.

The non-graded elementary school offers three major organizational advantages in classifying students: (1) A unit span of years that is adaptable to the lags and sports normally accompanying the development of child; (2) progress level that permit a child to pick up after an absence from school at the point where he previously left off (3) a time range that permits children of approximately the same chronological age to remain together while progressing at different academic rates suited to individual capacities.

ii) General Criteria for Student Classification
Grouping has been feature of schools in all countries. In earlier times, a typical small community had about enough people of school age to fill one classroom. The teacher handled all ages and all subjects as well as janitorial duties. When the student population grew too large for one teacher a second was hired and the students were divided between them. Age was the common selection factor. All students six through twelve years of age were assigned to one teacher, all those from twelve up were assigned to the other. As the population grew, so did the number of classroom groups. Grouping on the basis of age usually made no signed to the first grade, seven year olds to the second, and so on. If there was too many six years olds for one teacher, two first grades were established.

The major purpose of grouping is individualization. Students are grouped so that the range of individual differences, academic and social characteristics, the teacher has to contend with in narrowed. Age was used originally as the only selection factor because it does correlate with social characteristics and was all that was available to indicate academic characteristics until the introduction of standardized achievement testing in the early twentieth century. Age continues to be the major selection factor.
When selection factors other than age came into use, it became necessary to differentiate between two types of grouping, one based entirely on age. The term heterogeneous grouping (better meaning different) came into use when the absence of a grouping pattern based on anything other than age was referred to. When all six year old students were assigned randomly to the two first-grade classrooms in a school, the classrooms are said to be grouped heterogeneously. Students of widely varying academic abilities are found in each classroom.

The term homogeneous grouping (homo meaning same) came into use when grouping based on something other than age, or in addition to age, was referred to. When six-year-old students were assigned to the two first-grade classrooms on the basis of their performance on reading-readiness tests, the classrooms were said to be grouped homogeneously. All students below a certain readiness score were assigned to one classroom and all above that score to the other classroom. A narrow range of academic abilities was thus exhibited in each classroom. The grouping patterns discussed in this section are, in most cases, homogeneous because they are based on factors other than age alone.

### iii) Common Patterns

**Ungraded Grouping:** Grade levels are abandoned. The early one-teacher schools were ungraded because they contained students of all grade levels in one classroom. Contemporary ungraded-grouping patterns usually distinguish between lower elementary and upper elementary, ungraded primary and ungraded intermediate. Students are assigned to an ungraded primary for at least their first three years of schooling. They are promoted to the intermediate group on the basis of age, social maturity, academic ability, or some combination of three factors. A school might have three or more ungraded primary classrooms. The teacher in a primary classroom might stay with the same group of students for the entire three years, thus assuring that the teacher becomes well acquainted with students.

**Inter-Classroom Subject Grouping:** Students are grouped according to the subject they are studying. This is the most common grouping pattern in junior and senior high schools. It is used in elementary schools when teachers trade for different subjects, such as when the two fourth-grade teachers agree that one will reach reading to both classes while the other teaches all the mathematics. During a two-hour period, teacher A has reading Class A for the first hour and reading with Class B for the second hour. Teacher B follows the opposite schedule for mathematics. The pattern is also followed when special teachers are hired to teach all the music, art and physical education.
Inter-Classroom Ability Grouping: Students are assigned to classrooms according to their performance on intelligence and achievement tests. For example, students might be assigned to one of the two sixth-grade classrooms on the basis of their scores on a general achievement test. All those scoring grade level or higher are assigned to one classroom while all those scoring from grade level or below are assigned to another. A high school might use placement tests to assign students to different English and Mathematics courses, or even to totally different tracks. The assignment to ability groups may be for the entire day or only for special subjects, as when the disabled readers or gifted students are pulled from their classes for instruction by special teachers. The term homogeneous grouping is sometimes used to refer to this grouping pattern.

Split-Day Grouping: Students are assigned to a split-day schedule as a means of reducing class size for critical subjects. It is commonly used for reading in the primary grades. For example, half of the class comes to school at 8:30 p.m. and receives reading instruction until 9:30 a.m. when the second half of the class arrives. At 1:30 p.m. the first half of the class leaves school, and reading instruction is provided the second half from 1:30 p.m. Until 2:30 p.m. then they go home. By having only half of the class present during reading instruction, the teacher can provide more individual help.

Intra-Classroom Ability Grouping: Within the classroom, students are grouped on the basis of ability. The pattern is most common in reading where student are given a reading achievement test and then assigned to one of three groups according to their performance—“high group,” “middle group,” and a “low group”. This grouping pattern has been used at all grade levels from kindergarten through high school.

Special Ability Grouping: Students are assigned for short periods and, on the basis of their ability, to a special teacher. For half an hour each day a remedial reading teacher might work with students below a certain reading level and an enrichment teacher might work with students above a certain level. Remedial programs for disadvantaged students may use a number of intellectual, academic and social factors in selection as might enrichment programs for gifted students.

Intra-Classroom Individualized Grouping: Instruction in the classroom is provided for one student at a time. Regarding programs called “individualized reading” (Veatch 1966) follow this pattern. The pattern has become more popular in the last ten years because of the availability of published, self-instructional materials. The best use of a continuous-progress selecting students into individual group varies widely and sometimes none is used; students just work alone.
1.5 Psychological Factors of Classification

**Basis of Classification:** The simplest and the crudest basis of classification is the age of children. In countries where elementary education is compulsory and children join the school at a certain prescribed age, instruction is graded on age basis and each class has generally children of the same age. Pupils being promoted from year to year, age is generally an index of a pupil’s educational standing.

**Chronological Age:** But age by itself is a very unreliable basis of classification. A boy of twelve years, for instance, might be duller than a child of six and among children of the same age. Psychological investigations have disclosed, there are as great variations in educability and ability as between a normal boy of fifteen and one of five. Of late, psychologists, teachers and administrators have all concentrated their attack upon age as the simple criterion of the ability of pupils to cope with each level of work; and they have condemned the mass movement of pupils from class to class at the end of the year, called the lock-step promotion. Chronological age is certainly considered, but only as a starting point for an investigation as to the mental and educational standing of a pupil, before he is put into any particular class. By itself, age-school work or can do in future.

Often we come across pupils who are older than their class-fellows but have a less ability in school subjects than their age would warrant. Statistical investigations in USA as to be actual distribution of pupils by ages among the elementary and high-school classes have shown a very wide range; in one class (sixth grade), for instance, in a single State the chronological age varied from 9 years to 17 years, the average being 11-12 years. Similar investigations in Pakistan will show perhaps a wider range of distribution. These wide differences in the ages of pupils in the same class have existed ever since the beginning of school systems. But, before what is called the Scientific Movement in Education’s started about a generation age there was little awareness of their educational implications, until attention was focused upon the problem of retardation in school by Leonard P. Ayres’ famous study Lugged in our Schools.

**Retarded Children:** It is a notorious face that a very large percentage of pupils are retarded in their educational progress, having usually stagnated in a class for two or three years. The longer a child remains in a class, the less is the hope of his future progress. Stagnation occurs to much larger extent in rural areas than in urban; and in some cases, in rural areas, children remain in the same class for as many as six or seven years. Realizing their inferiority to younger children, retarded pupils lose self-respect and self-confidence. They are also generally
neglected by the teacher. Being unable to show themselves off in studies the attempt, by way of compensation to express their feeling of self-assertion in undesirable ways, resulting in breaches of school order and discipline. They set a bad example to other children and are a constant threat to the tone of the class and the school. Further, poor parents cannot afford to keep their children at school indefinitely even if education is free. Such children having become old enough to bring little more grist to the family mill are withdrawn from the school, particularly in rural areas before they have progressed in their studies sufficiently far. Thus stagnation leads to the other veil of “wastage”. It is not desirable either in the interest of such over-age children or that of others that they should stay in any class for more than two years. Some authorities recommend that over-age pupils should be either sent away from the school to assist their parents in earning a living, or (unless they are hopelessly unfit) promoted to the higher class where they may find pupils of their own age and regain self-respect and self-confidence, and so develop a sense of responsibility. This course s reported to have yielded satisfactory results in certain places, and such pupils are said to have improved in their educational standing. But, apart from home or other environmental conditions, retardation of pupils is due to lack of adjustment between the school-work and the individual pupil. Ample evidence is available to support the conclusion that individuals grouped together on the basis of age for the purpose of collective instruction differ from one another in a number of single traits and in all combinations of traits. The recommendation to promote a pupil to a class made up of other children of nearly his own age, while it could be adopted in a qualified manner in primary schools where differentiation of abilities does not clearly manifest itself, it has no application to secondary schools.

**General Intelligence:** Instead of chronological age, mental age is now adopted in several countries as the basis of classification. In America, intelligence” tests, especially group-tests which are easy to administer and to score, have been used for some years past to classify pupils so that those of the same general intelligence or ability may be brought together in one class. In many cases, division of classes into section, wherever this is necessitated by numbers, is based on the results of these tests; and transfer to pupils to special schools for the sub-normal and super-normal is arranged on the same basis. The adoption of this basis has been found to have worked satisfactorily as it enables the school staff to place together pupils who will progress in their work at equal rates and will be more or less alike in achievement at the end of the periods of schooling. Intelligence tests are specially useful in classification to primary school, where past achievement in school subjects is of comparatively little account as compared to capacity to do school work. The usual method of assessing ability at this stage by a simple test in what are regarded as the basic subjects might yield misleading results. Retardation
might be due to prolonged absence from school through illness, to unfavourable home conditions of lack of opportunities for education, rather than to any inherent mental defects in the child, and retardation at this stage can be easily made good if there is mental ability and proper motivation for work. It should be noted in this connection that for children under ten or eleven years of age individual tests are more suitable than group-tests, but they should be applied by those who have had some training in psychological testing.

The “intelligence quotients” or “mental ages” discovered by the application of “intelligence” tests are, however, for the guidance of the head-teacher only, who has to admit and assign pupils to the proper classes. They should not be published to the whole staff of the school and in no case should they be made known to the pupils concerned or their follows. Nothing is so demoralizing as to be told that one’s intelligence is below normal.

But for grades of education beyond primary intelligence tests alone do not furnish an adequate basis for classification. A certain minimum of knowledge in the school subjects, in addition to general ability, is an indispensable condition of satisfactory work. An intelligent pupil will make satisfactory progress in acquiring knowledge or skill if his initial acquired equipment has been adequate; otherwise his ignorance will be a great handicap in his future progress. It will be difficult for him to recover the lost ground in school achievements. Then again, certain moral qualities, such as application, conscientiousness, and regularity, are necessary if intelligence is to be put to proper use. An intelligent sluggard makes less progress in school than one with average general ability who does his work conscientiously. Experiences points to be desirability of classifying pupils in primary schools mainly by capacity rather than by attainment, and in higher grades of schools by both attainment and general intelligence.

**Attainment in School Subjects:** Another method employed is to put into the same class pupils who have given evidence of satisfactory attainments in all, or at least the more important, subjects of the school course. When pupils are examined in all the subjects, weakness in any one unimportant subject is often condoned. This is the traditional method of classification and promotion; and it rests on the theory that what the pupils have achieved in the past ensures future achievement in the same field. In the generality of cases, the basic subjects of the curriculum are considered; and attainment in these subjects determines classification and promotion. It is recommended that headmasters of primary school should use standardized tests in the fundamental subjects, such as reading, writing and the simpler processes of arithmetic. But as the attainments of young children are very low, scholastic tests should be used as only supplementary to tests of
“intelligence”. But in the secondary grade of education wider data have to be replied upon; and some methods of discovering and assessing special abilities and aptitudes, which emerge during this stage of education have also to be devised so as to realize effectively the aim of enabling pupils to develop their special abilities, together with general abilities, up to the required standard.

**Multiple and Composite Basis:** there are, theoretically speaking, several other bases of classification, such as the social maturity of children, their physiological growth and their moral and emotional qualities to industry, perseverance, ambition and interest. The National Survey of Secondary Education in the USA found sixteen different bases of grouping (in addition to chronological age) used in 280 schools. But none of these, taken singly, gives any high correlation with educational achievement; in other words, no single basis furnishes any aid or guidance in classifying pupils to form homogeneous groups for the purpose of instruction.

In view of the inadequacy of any one basis for classification of pupils multiple bases are often employed as a check against one another. There are the chronological age of the pupils, their past record as expressed in school marks, their general intelligence in terms of their intelligence Quotients, and their scholastic achievements as determined by objective tests. Pupils are ranked on the basis of each of these criteria, and then divided according to the rank into two three or more groups according to the number of sections of a class in the school. When, however, it is found that there is wide variation in the rank of pupil according to the several bases employed, the teacher’s judgment decides the final placement of the pupil. There is also another method of classification, called the composite method, which employs a number of criteria such as physiological development, general intelligence, achievement in school subject, social maturity, industry, application, chronological age, etc. Tests are applied in respect of all these traits, and the raw scores reduced to a composite score, by statistical methods, on the same scale.
1.6 Activities

1. Interview with any head of an educational institution of your area. Record his concept of discipline.

2. Arrange a discussion session of your college and suggest some techniques for better classroom management in your school/college.

3. Suppose there is a need for student classification in your institution. Arrange a meeting of your staff and develop a strategy for student classification.

4. Imagine you have just been employed as school head Teacher. How would you go about establishing and promoting school discipline? Discuss your strategies with your classmates.
1.7 Exercise

1. What steps should be taken for rooting out indiscipline in our educational institution.

2. Guidance programme and discipline are crucial because they promote children’s self-confidence. Explain.

3. What is the meaning and purpose of school discipline? Also highlight those factors which are effecting school discipline in our country.

4. What is your understanding of classroom management after reading this unit?

5. Enlist any five principles of classroom management.

6. Trace the history of student classification then write some plans of student classification.

7. Distinguish Winneteka plan from unit plan of student classification.

8. Trace and discuss some patterns of student classification among the elementary and secondary school of Pakistan.
Bibliography


UNIT-6

MANAGEMENT OF RESOURCES

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Introduction

Education deals with all round development of a person and it is rightly said that a sound mind develops in a sound body. For this purpose some physical resources play an important role and these are considered as most important objectives, methods, curriculum and examination. These resources are observed as the supporting services of educational components which are fulfilled in educational institutions. So administrators, principals, heads or supervisors should not ignore the management of these resources. School plant, hostel, dispensary, library, A.V. aids, instructional materials are important and about these aspects the principals must understand the steps involved. He must facilitate his school with these facilities. He must be aware whether adequate facilities are provided in school to meet the goals and objectives of the school. Because the physical facilities and learning resources contribute to the achievement of the school’s purposes and objectives. For managing the resources of school budget is necessary factor. So the principal must manage the school resources according to allocated budget of the school. For this purpose educational financing and budgeting throw light on how we can achieve our maximum targets within our available resources.

Objectives

After studying this unit students will be able:
1. To understand the importance of physical aspect of school.
2. To describe the learning resources.
3. To understand the educational financing.
4. To define the budget and its role.
1.1 Physical Aspect (School Building and Hostel etc.)

It has been repeated several times that education is concerned not merely with the mind of the pupil but also with his body. This fact imposes on the school certain duties, which are both negative and positive. On the negative side, it must be seen that nothing about the school is against the laws of health. On the positive side, the school must do everything in order to instill into the minds of the children knowledge of the laws of health. To begin with, it may be stated that schoolwork must be done under hygienic conditions. For this purpose school plant is considered more significant not only as physical aspect but it is the pace interpretation of the school curriculum finds its physical expression in construction and arrangements of the school plant. The size, proportions, and relations of learning spaces influence the type and quality of instruction. The school site and school building are part of the broad concept known as the school plant. Overall, the site of the school, the building, the lighting and ventilation, the school furniture and equipment, the curriculum and the time-table known as physical aspects of schools should all be arranged as not to interfere with the health of the pupils, but to promote it. Hence the education administrator must demonstrate leadership and management expertise in procuring and protecting educational resources as well as providing and propelling curriculum and instructional objectives and programme.

a) The School Building

In the construction of school buildings not only there is need that good material should be used, but expert advice should be sought with regard to the present and future needs of the school, so that a perfectly planned and well-constructed building may be the result. The educational effect of good building cannot be gainsaid. A simple, dignified and artistic building, suggestive of the purpose for which it is intended, is a very desirable thing from many points of view. Its beauty and associations help to make the scholars proud of their connection with the school, and it exercises a lasting influence upon the neighborhood. In a certain measure it is a concrete manifestation of the ideals for which the school stands. It is a permanent material expression of spiritual things.

One of the well-known canons of architecture is that the exterior of the building should suggest and reflect the character of the interior, and the interior should of course be planned for and adapted to the work proposed to be done in it. First and foremost, the building must be planned in conformity with hygienic laws. The child's easy, susceptibility to injury from a noxious environment demands that this should be the primary consideration. The building should be so situated that the sun can reach all the classrooms without filtering through the foliage and without
being obstructed by house tops. The air must be able to play round it freely, and the natural drainage must be effected without saturating the sub-soil with moisture. It is well to have the building in a comparatively quiet and pleasant environment so that the work may not be disturbed by unfavourable factors.

The interior should be planned in such a way to give material aid to the work of organization and assist in every way the production of the best educational results. All this, however, should not be taken as a mean that we should have a rigidly uniform standard in school buildings. Since education is always progressive, changes in method and procedure continue to demand the construction and alteration of the buildings in conformity with those changes. The character of the building too must to some extent, be determined by the number of children to be accommodated and by the special aims of their training. Just as there is no finality in the standard of school buildings. The shape of the building must be such as to be economical and adapted to the utilization of all available space. It should present a good appearance and provide adequate ventilation all through. Whether an H, E, T, L, I or U type of building is to be constructed depends upon several factors, such as the size and shape of the site, the possibility of future additions, and the imagination of the architect.

The building must generally consist of enough ordinary classrooms, special rooms for special subjects such as history, geography, mathematics, science, and manual work, cookery, etc., study hall, library, office room, teacher's room and the lavatory are of course essential.

The science laboratory must be located in a place that will cause the minimum amount of inconvenience to the rest of the school owing the fumes and odorous; and the staircase, if any, should be in a place which causes the minimum amount of disturbance to the work.

Ordinary classrooms should not at all be of the same size. Some should be capable of accommodating from 40 to 50; others from 30 to 40 and still others from 15 to 20 pupils. Approximately, half the number of rooms should be provided with blackboards on three sides. For the elementary section it is better to provide a children's rest room; and care must be taken to see that all the rooms for younger children are on the ground floor if the building has also a first floor.

In rural areas, the following suggestions may be adopted;
1. The school building may be erected in a healthful but inexpensive fashion. Locating school in rented is not only harmful but also often uneconomical. Simple buildings can be put up without great cost. Often the villagers can be
persuaded to help in the erection and repairs. Buildings of the open-air type are also desirable.

2. The school building may be utilized more fully than at present. This can be done by such means as conducting adult night schools meetings and lecturers on matters of public concern. The more such community purposes are served the better will be for the schools, provided, of course, the children's interests should not be neglected. It would be good also if homes for teachers could be provided in the immediate neighborhood.

3. About two or three acres of land may be provided for bigger schools so as to facilitate demonstration work, particularly in agricultural areas.

Buildings are a tribute not only for the creativeness of architect who employ-variety of material and construction techniques, but also for the many school superintendents and consultants who devoted much time to school-planning and design. The significant trend in school plant planning and construction are:

1. Planning the school building from the inside out. The present-day concept of school building as the physical expression of the curriculum calls for the preparation of educational specification prior to the creation of working drawings and physical specifications of the building.

2. The team approach to planning. No longer is planning the domain solely of the school board and the architect, with the superintendents acting as an informed bystander. Teachers who use the building and laypersons who help pay for it are involved in advisory committees.

3. Increased size and more specialized design of instructional spaces. Classrooms now are larger and are specially designed for the function which is to be performed within them. The typical elementary school classroom of 1920s and 1930s measured 600 to 750 feet; today, the size is 900 square feet or more. The use of laboratory and activity methods of instruction has resulted in larger general-purpose and special-purpose classrooms at the junior and senior high school level as well.

4. Flexibility in design. Buildings are long-lasting structure and the educational programmes may change several times during the physical lifetime of building. Planning for change demand special consideration of such things as classroom areas that are square, end walls and partitions that can be moved readily, and building design which should facilitates expansion of the structure in many different directions.

5. Concern for shape and form of the building. The relative merits of one story and multiple story structures are still debated. The consensus seems to be that in most cases one-story building costs from 3 to 5 percent than a multiple story structure. However, sonic schools, particularly secondary
schools, are so large that they are unmanageable on one floor. Also, the amount of lands available and needed for recreational and instructional purposes may dictate whether a single or multiple-story structure is used. Nevertheless the trend appears clearly in favour of the single-story structure for both elementary and secondary schools.

6. **Use of larger sites.** The minimums recommended by the Council of Educational Facilities Planners are accepted. Today longer an elementary school is built on a half school built on a half-block or block area, and no longer a secondary school is constructed on a crowded downtown site. The elementary school with 5 to 10 acres and the secondary school with 30 to 40 acres are no longer unusual.

7. **Concept of the building as more than a collection of classrooms.** All classrooms are no longer all the same, but they vary in area and design in accordance with the instruction carried on in them. Highly specialized spaces such as auditoriums, gymnasiums, swimming pools, shops and laboratories are considered as integral part of secondary schools.

8. **Concern with quality as well as quantity of lighting.** The importance of a "balanced visual environment" is now almost universally recognized, however, implementation lags far behind. Contributions of the Council of Educational Facilities Planners cannot be overlooked in this field.

9. **Concern with thermal environment (temperature, humidity and air flow) and research to determine conditions most conducive to human comfort for learning.** This includes adequate heating and ventilation in winter and air-conditioning in summer. Air-conditioned schools are now commonplace in all regions of the country not specifically in the South.

10. **Use of variety of materials and techniques of construction.** Bricks and wood are no longer the basic and only construction materials that are needed. Glass (in various forms, such as glass block, plain, plate glass, tinted glass) is used extensively. Steel and other metal panels for curtain walls are replacing solid masonry exteriors. New materials are being coupled with new techniques of construction.

11. **Concern for aesthetics.** Treatment of masses within the structure as well as blending building design and site has enhanced the appearance of much school structure. The beauty of a school is a tribute to the artistry of the architect who is able to blend educational demands, structural requirements, and building materials into an aesthetically pleasing structure.

12. **Use of carpeting.** Carpeting in libraries, classrooms, cafeterias and administrative suits became common during the 1960s and widely accepted thereafter.

13. **Improved design of components.** The establishment of the School Construction Systems Development (SCSD) in the early 1960s by 011,
Educational Facilities Laboratories led to improved design for various components used in school construction.

Construction of new facilities in the Core City, where the land values are usually high, calls for novel approaches. Some solutions include the high-rise apartment structures and the incorporation of instructional centers in large downtown office buildings.

b) The Site of the School

"Every school medical officer having good experience should be aware that school sites are selected in this country without giving proper importance to the site of the sanitary and health conditions. In some cases these disadvantages are remediable, but in others they may be permanent, and may even render the school unfit for use. Modern methods of building have overcome many of the natural disadvantages of certain sites, particularly with regard to dampness and other atmospheric conditions; even so, it should be remembered that it is far better to select a site, which has no obvious defect rather to try to remove its defects afterwards i.e. Prevention is better than cure. In choosing a school site in a city or town, care must be taken to see that it should be within the reach of public park or playground games. In all cases, the cost of building and upkeep is as much important matter for consideration just as general convenience and accessibility. Accessibility should include not only nearness and ease of approach from several directions, but also availability of transport. The site chosen for school must permit classes being held in playground when necessary. Other important points for careful examination in selecting a site are:

1. The surroundings,
2. The conditions as to natural drainage and ordinary level of the ground water,
3. The nature of soil and sub soil
4. The aspect and elevation

Therefore, the functional concept of the school plant emphasizes the effect of plant facilities on educational experiences provided and educational methods and employed rather than on material used in construction, an educational facility may be perceived as a controlled environment that enhances the teaching-learning process while it protects the physical well being of occupants. Caudill suggested that school planning starts with, the pupil, ends with the pupil and that the building should be designed to satisfy the pupil's physical and emotional needs. Physical needs are met by insuring a safe structure, adequate sanitary facilities, a balanced visual environment, a satisfactory acoustical environment and sufficient shelter space for work and play. Emotional needs are met by creating pleasant surroundings a friendly, atmosphere and an inspiring environment. This
humanistic, pupil oriented approach to school planning and construction view and equipment as means of enhancing the pupil's learning and comfort.

c) Hostel
In a school the spirit of corporate living, unity and safe-reliance is inculcated in the students and they are made to develop their personalities in such a way that they may live happily without harming others. The hostel should not be regarded merely as a living place for the students. The hostel should help realize the ideals of the school and provide an opportunity to the students to develop the spirit of corporate living. The hostel should be arranged in such a way that the student may get an opportunity to put into practice the ideals he is taught in the school.

An ideal hostel helps to maintain discipline and teaches the students the lesson of co-operation and self-reliance. It is necessary for the achievement of the aims of the hostel that it should be well organized and managed. The personality of the hostel superintendents always exerts a great influence over the inmates of the hostel and also on its organization. Teacher in the school is normally put in charge of the school library but his teaching load is not reduced, similarly a teacher is put in charge of a hostel without having his teaching work reduced. Under this plan the ideals of the hostel cannot be achieved because such a superintendent of the hostel does not take sufficient interest in the activities of the hostel. Infact the hostel superintendent should be a person who can devote all his time to managing the hostel.

1) The Need and Utility of a Hostel
All the students of a school do not come from one place or locality, but from different places. The students carry with them the influence of their environments. Students who come from long distance make private arrangements for their residence near about the school. On such students their guardians have no control. The students of middle and secondary stages need to be under the control of their guardians. In a hostel proper control may be had over the students and a suitable environment is created for their physical and mental development We shall discuss below the utility of the hostel life.

1. First of all, as we have already mentioned, the spirit of co-operation is inculcated in the students in a hostel. In the hostel there should be a system of self-government and it should be organized in such a way that the students may learn to be self-reliant.

2. In the hostel a student live as a member of one family. He treats others with love and sympathy and develops the virtue necessary for living in a society. He gets an opportunity to become an ideal social being, and he comes to
realize that only his individual inclination and convenience W not to be always considered.

3. By creating a proper environment in the hostel the students may be made to feel at home and may be treated with love.

4. This helps in disciplining students. There is no possibility of the students becoming indolent, rude and undisciplined, because the students try to observe the regulations of the hostel.

5. In the hostel the students do not remain narrow-minded. There they may be provided facilities for games and studies according to their individual taste and inclination. This may broaden their outlook.

6. The Student realizes his responsibility in each sphere and learns to adjust his expenditure with his parental help. The hostel superintendent should take care that the student does not spend his money uselessly, but it does, not mean that the student should be made to feel dependent upon others. In fact, the student should feel complete freedom in the hostel, for then only their proper development will be brought about.

7. There should be complete democracy in a hostel and there should be no caste distinctions. The poor and the rich should be treated alike.

2) Hostel Superintendent and his Responsibilities

The proper organization and management oldie hostel depends to large extent on the personality of the superintendent who should he very efficient in his work. He should have in him the virtues of an ideal teacher as well as those of good parents and guardian. Along with this he should have a good organizing capacity. It will be better if an able and experienced teacher is appointed to this post, but lie should have less teaching work and should be provided 'other facilities. The creation of a prop...) atmosphere, for the desired development of the students depends solely on the' ability, skill, patience and sympathetic treatment of the hostel superintendent.

The hostel superintendent should treat the students with parental affection and sympathy. Like a father he should, keep an eye on all the activities of the student and consider the propriety and impropriety of each act. He has-to see also the expenditure incurred by the student so that he may not spend unnecessarily. The hostel superintendent should pay attention to the following things.

1. He should try to make the students an ideal citizen of the, democracy having a sense of duty. This training may be given in the hostel. The superintendent should try to manage the affairs of the hostel with the help of the students. This will inculcate in them the spirit of self-reliance and in this way they learn to work jointly with others. He should not be dictatorial in his attitude.
For the management of the hostel affairs he should form several committees of students. Holding elections may also form these committees. There may thus be committees for cleanliness, entertainment and games, discipline, mess arrangement etc.

2. The hostel superintendent should also try, to make the atmosphere of the hostel suitable, clean and beneficial.

3. He should see that no student violates the rules and regulations of the hostel and works for his own physical and mental development.

4. An important duty of the hostel superintendent is that he should try to come into contact with the parents and guardians of the students living in the hostel and he should never let go of any opportunity, which comes his way. In his way he will be able to know something about the economic condition of the guardian and his knowledge may be useful for the proper management of the hostel.

5. The hostel superintendent has to look at the all-round development of the student. For this he should fix the hours for games, studies, bedtime and wakeup time, etc.

6. The hostel superintendent should keep the guardians informed about the progress of the students. For this he should know the address and other necessary particulars.

7. He should try to remove the feelings of caste distinction, rich and poor and high and low among the students and he should see that all are treated properly without any distinction.

8. He has to remember that hostel life should not become so expensive that an average individual may find it difficult to put his ward in the hostel.

9. The hostel superintendent should see that the atmosphere of the school does not prevail in the hostel also. He must create a different atmosphere so that the student may feel quite at home.

10. The above facts do not imply that the students should be deprived of their liberty and be placed under strict control. Life in the hostel should be like that in a family and the superintendent like a guardian. He has to see that the development of the student is on the right lines. He should inspect each aspect of administration so that he may contribute to the good of the students.

3) Messing and Its Supervision

The development of one's body depends on meals. Therefore, such meals should be provided as may be conducive to physical development. It is needless to say that this is the duty of the hostel, superintendent. Physical and mental development is correlated. The student should be provided with such meals, which may contain all the vitamins, carbohydrates, fats and protein. For this the
superintendent should know which food contain these vitamins carbohydrates fats and in what degree. The superintendent has not only to see to this but also that the meals are prepared in such a way that the food value of the articles is not destroyed. Water is also a necessity along with food. Arrangement for pure drinking water should be made in the hostel.

4) **Method of Living of the Students**

Some good servants should also be employed in the hostel to maintain cleanliness. These servants should be men of good character and treatment and should have the capacity to discharge their duties well. The superintendent should entrust each one of these servants with the responsibility of taking a particular job at a fixed time. The superintendent has to pay special attention towards the cleanliness of the hostel because uncleanliness is the main cause of all disease. Regular inspection of the entire hostel is a must. These should be regularly cleaned every day. He should see that the students do occasionally hang out their clothes in the sun. The superintendent should also see that students do not keep their rooms in a disorderly manner. He should check to the cleanliness of the kitchen and the dining hall. For all this it will be better that he solicit the co-operation of the students.

5) **Ailments and Regulations**

There should be a small dispensary for the school and the hostel. The hostel should be occasionally disinfected in order to prevent the spread of infectious diseases. The student should be inoculated and other precautionary measures should be adopted to keep them safe and sound. Each hostel should have two or three separate rooms in which the students suffering from infectious disease may be lodged. Medicines, which may be given to the inmate, by way of first aid, should be stored in the hostel. The superintendent should, with the help students and other teachers and principal, frame out certain general rules for good health and other desirable habits, which should be observed by each inmate of the hostel. These rules should be few and only the essential ones rigidly followed by the students. The hostel must have some rules regarding the method of living of the students. Thus they will come into existence. In the hostel a, system of tradition which will be greatly helpful towards a peaceful, healthy and, happy life should he adopted. Besides this superintendent should also see that there is a proper arrangement for the studies of the students and for fresh air and light. The windows in the rooms should be kept open in the night so that fresh air may enter the rooms.
6) **Health and Games**

Games should be an essential part of the method of living in a hostel. Mental and physical developments are interdependent and the development of the different aspects of a student's personality is interrelated. During games the various muscles come into operation and the lungs work with greater rapidity. Thus the flow of blood increased and the lungs get more fresh air. All this affects health of the students. Therefore, games are very necessary for health. Games always to operation the various organs of the body and the mental faculties gets a rest and are reinvigorated, in this way it may be said that games and physical work help in studies, because through these activities mental fatigue is driven away. Through games other such virtues are created in the students, which are very useful for their future life and to make them ideal citizen. Through games the spirit of cooperation, singleness of purpose, self-reliance, and dutifulness honesty etc., are learnt. Through games they learn to face reality, because they have to put up with success and defeat. They learn to obey their leader. In this way games help in their maintenance of discipline.

The playground should be near the hostel. The hours for games should be fixed and the necessary equipment should be available in the hostel. There should be such an arrangement for games that each inmate of the hostel may get an opportunity to play some game every day. Captains or leaders should be appointed for various games. In every hostel there should be an arrangement for football, volleyball, cricket, hockey, badminton, basketball, kabaddi etc. and occasional matches should be held. Besides, indoor games like carom, chess, table tennis, etc. should also be organized. In games the individual taste of the student should be encouraged.

A committee of students for the proper management and organization of all the activities in the hostel should be formed. Their cooperation is essential to manage the hostel well.

7) **Organization of the Hostel**

The hostel superintendent should maintain close contact with the students in order that the atmosphere of the hostel may not get vitiated and all students may live there as in a family. We may mention in this respect the ‘home system’ or the building system. According to this there should be small houses for eight or ten or twelve students. These houses should be adjacent to one another and with each group a teacher should also live. All students should live like members of his family of the teacher’s family. If teacher is married the members of his family should also live there. Thus the students and the teacher will be member of one and the same family. The student should contribute towards the family life by
helping out with the shopping and other household chores. This system will have the following advantages:

1. The atmosphere of the hostel will not be vitiated in any way and the students will have the feeling of living in a home.
2. The student will do their work themselves and learn the lesson of self-reliance.
3. The senior and junior students will live together and thus they will learn to treat one another in a proper and sympathetic manner.
4. The teachers will come close to the students and will be able to solve their problems.

8) Hostel Building
The hostel building should be such that the students may live comfortably and the superintendent may also be there to manage and inspect the hostel. The building should be such that the hostel gates must be shut and the students may not go out. For this it will be better if the hostel has a square building and is single storied. The room or the residence and office of the superintendent should be near the main gate. The hostel should not be on a busy road, or far off from the school. In every room of the hostel there should be a sufficient number of windows so that the light and sir May-enter the rooms. In each room there should be sufficient space for the students, and the cupboards for books etc., the room should be such as to accommodate the student's bedding, table and chair etc. and yet l ae sufficient space. The flooring should be cemented and there should be a good arrangement for water to flow out.

Besides this, there should be one reading room in the hostel, playground and kitchen etc. the latrines should be behind the main building at some distance and the bathroom should not be very far away from it. The latrines should be clean at all times. Gardens and parks should also be attached to the hostel builditg.

9) Internal Management
The internal management of the hostel should be done through the students or the committees of the students. This should include the method of the living of the student's cleanliness and daily work, etc.

There should be in the hostel a fixed place for each student and it should be seen that no student changes this place. The student should keep his bed and cloths well arranged. The articles should be purchased and games etc., arranged with the help of the students through their committees, which should consist of duly, elected student members.
The superintendent should chalk out a suitable timetable for the hostel and affix this on the notice board. Through this timetable the hours for exercise and meals etc. should be fixed. It is necessary for the superintendent to remember that along with the timetable the other rules and regulations of the hostel should also be pasted on the notice board or somewhere else. These regulations for good management should be as few as possible.

10) **Registers**
A few registers are required to keep a record of necessary things: These are very important for the hostel. The following registers should be maintained:

1. **Admission Register:** Names, full address, dates of admission and other information about the students who have been admitted in the hostel should be maintained in this register.

2. **Attendance Register:** The attendance of the students at different hours of study, retiring to bed etc. should be checked. The attendance should be taken at least twice a day. This registers should record the reason for the absence of the students concerned.

3. **Register of Co-operative Activities:** A record of the committees of the students and the meetings and other activities should be maintained in this.

4. **Kitchen register:** In this a record of the articles purchased, the rates and expenditure should be kept. This register should also be indicating whether the students have paid for these articles or not.

5. **Caution-money Register:** An account of the caution-money taken from the students are to be mentioned in this.

6. **Fee Register:** This will record the statements regarding the fees charged from the students and their expenditure.

7. **Property Register:** In this should be mentioned an account of the property of the hostel and its utilization. The principal should occasionally check oils up.

8. **Cash Book:** This should be like the cashbook of the school and it should be filled in regularly every day showing the daily income and expenditure. Money deposited in and withdrawn from the bank should also be shown in this.

9. **Library and Reading Room Register:** A list of books in hostel should be maintained in this. Statements regarding the issue of books, viz., the name of the student, date of issue and return etc. should be maintained in this. The names of newspapers and magazines subscribed for the hostel should be entered here.

10. **Visitors Book:** This should be like the visitors book of the school. The guardians of students who visit the hostel should write in this opinions and suggestions for improvement.
1.2 Learning Resources

(a) Instructional Materials
Administrative leadership carries the responsibility obtaining and allocating instructional materials necessary to promote educational programme and development and student learning. So the use of instructional materials implies that learners are studying at one remote from the author who by preparing the learning materials, is showing the fact that learners can pursue their studies in their own way, in their own time and in place of their choosing is probably the biggest single advantages of and motive for proving the instructional material.

1. Objectives of Instruction
Course objectives may be varied, either for liberal reasons or in order to adopt courses to the different aptitudes of individuals or the different needs of the organization (the product view of education). (Romiszowski, 1989, pp 7, 8). Therefore self-instructional teaching materials play a 'front line' role in the learning process, as shown in figure:

![Diagram](image)

(Brown, 1983, P.78)

The materials, which are used in individualized learning, may be considered under the three broad headings: textual materials, audiovisual materials and computer based materials (Ellington 1993 p. 91) It has been already sealed that distance-teaching system 'is called individualized. Most of the distance learning systems throughout the world, in both Western and Eastern countries system usually, are print-based and likely to remain so. All successful distance-learning systems are built on well-designed, learner-centered, self-instructional 'print, materials. (Hodgson, 1993, p.14). Now the question arises what actually are the printed and duplicated materials.

These materials comprise of all textual and oilier materials that can be run off in large numbers on a duplicator or printing machine to be used by pupils, student or trainees." Facilities for the production of such materials
are now available in practically every formal and non-formal institution, and they have become one of the most basic and widely used of all educational tools (Ellington, 1987. P, 17).

So from all teaching/learning systems point of view, print is the intellectually superior medium than television, by comparison, encourages learner to be passive, mindless and 'unimaginative (Greenfield, 1984). Certainly, a great deal of education is concerned with factual learning, the understanding of generalized or abstract principles, and with logical argument, and print is very strong medium for developing and acquiring these skills (Bates 1995 p.1 18). Some of the more important types of printed materials are listed below;

(ii) Types of Instruction Materials
- Books, Pamphlets etc. -already published, or specially written.
- Specially written 'warp around' study guide to already published material.
- Specially written self-teaching text, i.e. 'tutorials-in-print”.
- Workbooks for use along with audiotape or videotape, CDT (computer based teaching), practical work, etc.
- Self-texts, project guide, notes on accreditation requirements, bibliographies, etc.
- Maps, charts, photographs, posters, etc.
- Materials from newspapers, journals and periodicals.
- Hand written materials passing between learners and tutors (Rowntree 1994, p.66).

(b) Audio-Visual Aids
An outstanding development in modern education is the increased use of supplementary devices by which the teacher through the use of more than one sensory channel helps to clarify, establish and correlate accuracy, concepts, interpretations and appreciation; increases knowledge; rouses, interest and even evokes worthy emotions and enriches the imagination of children.

Learning takes place at three levels-direct experiencing, vicarious experiencing and symbolic experiencing. Thus, audio-visual materials are quite helpful in instruction. They supply a concrete basis for conceptual thinking; they give rise to meaningful concepts to words enriched by meaningful associations. Researchers have also recommended that in education we should appeal to the mind chiefly
through the visual and auditory sense organs, since it is possible that 85% of our learning be absorbed through these,

i) **The Value of Audio-Visual Aids to Learning**

*Audio-visual aids, are potent starters and motivators:* When the child finds learning made easy, interesting and joyful with the help of sensory aids, he feels motivated. He cannot but attend to an interesting procedure going on before him. Direct, concrete, contrived, dramatized experiences add zest, interest and vitality to any training situation. As a result, they enable students to learn faster, remember longer, gain more accurate information and receive and understand delicate concepts and meanings. Thus, learning becomes meaningful, enjoyable and effective.

ii) **Audio-visual aids give variety to classroom techniques:** They generally represent a rest from the traditional 'activities of the school. While using them, the child feels experiencing something different. Variety is always attractive to the child as well as to the adult. Audio-visual aids provide a change in the atmosphere of the classroom. They allow some freedom from the formal instruction of the traditional type. While using sensory aids, the pupils may move about, talk, laugh, question, and comment upon, and in other ways act in a natural manner as they use to do outside the classroom. The attitude of the teacher should also be very friendly and co-operative. In this way, schoolwork is motivated when; pupils work because they want to do it and not because the teacher wants them to do.

iii) **Many of these aids provide the child with opportunities to handle and manipulate:** An opportunity to touch, feel, handle or operate a model, specimen, picture, map; press a button or turn a crank gives an added appeal because it satisfies, temporarily at least, the natural desire for mastery and ownership.

iv) **Audio-visual aids supply the context for sound and skilful generalizing:** Books lack the specificity, the warmth, indeed some of the unutterable poignancy of concrete experiences. Through direct, purposeful, first-hand experiences and semi concrete audio visual experiences, we can supply the context for sound and skilful generalizing.

v) **Audio-visual aids educate children for life in this modern complex world:** There was a time when life was very simple-children learnt through direct experiences the rudiments of knowledge. But ours is a complex world. We live in a pushbutton age when comfort has a terrific appeal, but there is no
easy road to learning. There is no magic osmosis; effective learning is still
the old fashioned formula of nine-tenth perspiration and one-tenth
inspiration. Naturally, therefore, more must be done to determine how
teaching is accomplished easily and speedily. More is the need today than
before.

vi) Audio-visual aids can play a major role in promoting international
understanding: These aids can bring about mutual understanding and
appreciation of cultural values and ways of living among the different
nations of the world. Enlightened and sympathetic attitudes can be
developed among the school children through this media. Films and radio
programme can be exchanged among the different countries. Coloured
slides on works of an of different countries lead to mutual appreciation of
eastern and western cultural values.

To conclude in the words of Mckow and Roberts, “Audio-visual aids, wisely
selected and intelligently used, amuse and develop intense and beneficial interest
and so motivate to the pupil' learning. This properly motivated learning means
improved attitudes, permanency of impressions, and rich experience and
ultimately more wholesome living”

ii) Drawbacks
Audio-visual aids are not the panacea for all instructional ills: Films, recordings,
television etc., are all very good to improve teaching. But teachers and books
cannot be replaced by these aids. Reading, writing and speaking will continue to
be considered fundamental end points of instruction.

Audio-visual aids are not aids to teaching: Audio-visual aids are aids to children
rather than to teachers-aids to learning-aids to learning, rather than to teaching.
They do not make teaching easier; they do not lighten the work of teachers. Their
use requires a considerable addition to the time spent in planning and preparing
lessons.

Audio-visual aids are not the ends but means: Audio-visual aids are means to an
end-end is good learning on the part of the pupils.

Audio-visual aids are not designed to amuse the pupil rather: They are to increase
his interest in, and his comprehension of the topics being studied by presenting
several slants on it, especially through his two most used senses-sights and
hearing.
When is an instructional Aid?

An instructional aid is any device that assists an instructor to transmit to learner facts, skills, attitudes, knowledge, understanding and appreciation.

A visual aid is an instructional device that can be seen but not heard. An audio aid is an instructional device that can be heard. An audio-visual aid is that device which can be heard as well as seen.

iii) Types of Audio-Visual Aids
For purposes of convenience, we shall classify these aids into five types:

1. Aids through the ear (auditory)
   a) Phonograph
   b) Radio

2. Aids through the eye (visual)
   a) Motion Picture
   b) Stereoscope
   c) The camera
   d) The chalk/white board
   e) The flannel board
   f) The bulletin board
   g) Pictorial Materials
   h) Representations—maps, globes, diagrams etc.

3. Aids through the eye and ear (audio-visual)
   a) Sound-motion pictures
   b) Television

4. Aids through activity
   a) The school journeys
   b) The objects, specimens, model collections

5. Miscellaneous
   a) Dramatization
   b) Booklets
   c) Newspapers and magazines

Edgar Dale bases his classification upon the kinds of experiences presented through the aids. He calls it the “cone Of Experience.” The range of experience as
described earlier through audio-visual aids as classified by him is between direct experience and pure abstraction.

These divisions are not intended to be rigid. They overlap and sometimes blend into each other. The author desires the cone to be ‘a visual metaphor or learning experiences’ depicting the various items in the ‘order of increasing abstraction, as one proceeds from direct ‘purposeful experience’, which is the “bedrock of all education.”

c) The Library
The importance of a library in a school is being realized now. The work of the school is to give the student knowledge of necessary things and to bring about such an all-round development of the student that he is able to lead a successful life. The Span of a man's life is not so big that he can learn everything through practical experiences. We can learn by the various experiences gained and accumulated by our ancestors. These 'experiences have, been recorded in various books so that they may not perish. Man saves a lot of his own time with the help of the vast store of wisdom and experience accumulated by his forefathers and handed over to him as a legacy. Knowledge of these experiences facilitates his work of acquiring new knowledge. Hence a library is a necessity (hr a school and sufficient attention should be directed towards its proper organization, utilization and development.

i. Utility of the Library
Students cannot acquire knowledge only through textbooks or classroom lectures. They should refer to other books also, for then only will their knowledge widen. The best thing would be that a teacher should create an interest in each student in his subject and give the names of important hooks for reference. In this way the students will learn to acquire knowledge themselves. The teacher should try to inculcate in the students varied interests cannot be fulfilled only through class lectures or textbooks. The library is of great help in the fulfillment of their wishes, ambitions and inclinations, for it provides ample opportunities for acquiring knowledge.

The knowledge gained through the class lectures of teachers may be easily forgotten after sometime but that which the student acquires himself through self-study will be remembered by him even after leaving the school. Students have different tests at different stages of life and when he is able to read he likes to read books according to his need and taste.
The entire environment of the school contributes towards education and the library is of great help in creating a suitable environment for education. The library may help develop different taste in the student. After reading one book the desire for another is created, thus a reading habit is formed.

The library does the work of a teacher for the students. It will not be wrong to say that the defects of classroom teaching can be rectified to a great extent through the library because the teacher cannot teach from the point of view of the interests of every student not can he develop his various interests fully. This is only possible through the library. The teacher should encourage students to read books according to their interests.

ii. Organization of the Library
The aims of a library may be fulfilled only when it is well organized and the selection of books is made properly. The following things should be considered while organizing the library:

1. The aim of the library is to enlarge and consolidate the knowledge acquired in the classroom.
2. In a library there should be books according to the age, ability and interests of the students.
3. A library should help build up a suitable environment in the school. For this there should be such a reading room in the library where the students may sit and read.
4. A library should help develop the knowledge and intelligence of students.
5. The library should be helpful in enlarging the knowledge and helping the work of both the students and the teachers.

The utility of a library depends upon its proper organization, which includes the distribution of books, their arrangement the situation of the library etc. A library may be properly utilized only when all this done.

It should not be situated, at such a place, where atmosphere is not peaceful. For this it should be remembered that it is not situated near the lower classes. In schools, having doubles storied building; the library should be on the second floor.

Sufficient sitting place for the students should be provided. The room should be large enough to accommodate at least 15 per cent of the student of the school. The yearly and monthly publications should be so arranged that the students might
take them out to read as they wish and then replace them. The librarian should be able to give information about the books asked for by the students.

At present a library is not properly utilized in most of the schools. The library exists only in name and the students cannot easily get books from there. Books for these libraries are purchased without any reference to the interests or abilities and standards of student. The principal does not even know what type of books is there in the school. Besides, in most of the school the librarian is appointed from amongst the teachers and he has to teach also. If he is busy in teaching, how can he take sufficient interests in the library? He does not pay any attention towards the proper management of the library, and tries limiting the number of books taken by the student as far as possible. Such a library is quite useless. No taste for self-study can be developed in the students through such a library. Hence it is necessary to introduce reforms in school libraries.

It will be better if an experienced or trained person is appointed as a Librarian. If this is not possible, an interested teacher should be entrusted with this work. The teacher who is given this responsibility should get some consideration in regard to the teaching load. Besides, it teacher-librarian should be given some extra payment in proportion to the work to be done. This teacher should have all the necessary information in regard to the various subjects and books. The books should be arranged in such a manner that the student himself may know what books he should read on a particular subject. This will be possible if the books are arranged according to classes and subjects, but this can be done easily only if the teachers of particular subject also realize their responsibility. The teacher in a particular subject should assist in the arrangement of books. Apart from this the method of issuing books should be easier. If the assistance of some students of the class is taken, probably this job will be facilitated and the students will also get an opportunity to learn the ways of management and gain information about books. Students of higher class can derive great benefit if the books are arranged according to subjects. The teachers of these subjects should inform the student about the books on the subject and encourage the students to read them. The distribution and issue of books should be done properly. There should be a rule of keeping a book for a fixed period of time, for then only will the students get equal opportunities.

iii. Class Library
There should be a central library in the school, but besides this, if there are class-libraries, it will be easier for the students to get books from these. The class teacher is familiar with all the students in the class and he can guide the students about the books suitable for them. In the class-library books should be selected
according to the abilities and interests of the students of the class. Class libraries enable the students to get books easily and to avoid a waste of time. Besides, the teacher by telling about different books helps to develop in the students varied interests. Class-libraries will prove very useful for lower classes, because at this stage the students are not of an age to have a complete knowledge of different subjects nor do they have any interest in this. Besides, in lower classes the class-teachers can tell the students which books on different subjects are suitable for them. In the class-library the students should be given facility of choosing the books for themselves.

Some students get books issued from the library but they often return them unread. Hence the teacher should find out whether the student has read the book or not. It will be good if record is maintained showing the number of books a student reads during the course of the year. All the books, which a student reads, should be listed on a page: which should also indicate the date of issue and return. Thus the teacher will be able to create a taste for reading in that student who does not have such a taste. The teacher should also see that the home task assigned by them should be as may require the student to read books from the library.

The student should have such notebooks in which they may note down the titles of the books they read summary of the book as also their own ideas about the same. The student should be provided with an opportunity to discuss in the class the books they have read. A student who properly reads the largest number of books in the year should be rewarded. It is very necessary for the students to make a summary of the books read because if the important facts are not noted down they will soon be forgotten. It is necessary to the teacher so to have knowledge of those books, which the student read for, then only he will be able to understand the viewpoint of the students and to participate in the discussion with them.

iv) **Classification and Arrangement of Books**

The books in the library should be properly arranged and classified as they have as great an importance as the library itself. The importance does not consist in storing a large number of books as in having suitable books in a proper order. In this connection attention should be direct towards the utility of books. For this it is necessary that the teachers should consider the contest of the books. These books should be according to the capacity and ability of the student is able to understand a hook he feels encouraged to read other books as well.

The significance of a library does not lie in possessing such books of great author, which the student cannot understand, but in the collection of such books, which the student of different levels can fully utilize. There should be more than one copy of the books, which are useful from the point of view of the students. It is
found in some schools that the teachers who are preparing for some examination get those books for the library, which they themselves need and which is neither up to the student nor of any use of them. In the school library there should not be a book for the teachers also but these should not be purchased from the funds for the books for students.

The following things should be considered in the collection of books.
1. The books in a library should be according to the interest, age and abilities of the students.
2. At the time of collecting books it should be remembered that they should develop the knowledge of the students.
3. The books should be such as they may be easily understood by the student and may develop in them the power of thinking and reasoning.
4. The books should be useful to both the teachers and the students. After collecting the books these should be classified according to the subject, ability, interest, age and class of the students in such a way that they may be utilized. The librarian should, with the help of other teachers in different subjects and classes, write down separately in a register the names of books on the different subjects and for different classes. In this way the students will easily know the names of necessary books and get them without difficulty. Thus they will also be able make* full use of the books. At present our students cannot make full use of the school library. There are several reasons for this. Firstly, the library is not well organized and the books are not classified and arranged properly. Secondly, the students do not have any taste for reading books nor do they adopt the proper method of reading. It is necessary in the interest of the students to remove all these defects.

The principal should purchase the necessary books for the library, because the library will prove useful only when its stock of hooks increases. It will be better if the schools earmark an amount for the library and do not decrease it in anyway. The next question is how to decide that how the hooks are to be ordered. For this the principal should form a committee of teachers, the librarian and a few students. In this way full attention can be directed towards enriching the library.

v) Reading Room
Along with the library a reading room is also deemed necessary. There should be sufficient place for the students to sit and read in this room. There should be proper arrangements of light and air in a library. In the reading room there should be the newspapers, magazines etc., so that the students may read them and be updated. In the reading room a copy of school magazine consisting of articles,
stories, riddles and jokes written by the students, other also get inspiration to write these. Only such magazines should be ordered for the reading room, which may cater to the interests of the students and help in the formation of their character.

If along with a library there is a museum also, it will be an ideal thing. These museums should belong to the school and articles of historical values and beautiful paintings and sculptures should be stored.

### 1.3 Educational Financing

Education finance may be defined in broad terms as that dimension of public or government finance concerned specifically with the procurement, distribution, management; and distribution of fiscal and material resources essential to the delivery of quality and relevant public educational programmes and services. A narrower interpretation is found in education. The general field of education finance can be divided into (1) Educational finance systems that are designed to raise and distribute public education funds and (2) Educational finance management, more often referred to as school business management, which comes into play after the educational revenues reach the local school district and includes such activities as budgeting, accounting and auditing. Each country designs its own educational finance system in terms of its educational needs, wealth or ability to pay for education, as well as its values or response to its own social and political pressures.

i) **Introduction**

The financing of education is concerned with such questions as are summarized below (Doherty, 1984)

1. Who pays for education?
2. Who benefits from education?
3. Who should pay?
4. What should be the method of paying?
5. How should the criteria of equity and efficiency be met while paying for education?
6. How should the students be financed?
7. How much of the total resources of an economy be devoted to education?
8. How much should be met out of the budget and how much should be contributed from private source?
9. How should expenditures be divided into various sub sectors of education?
10. How should the expenditure be divided according to the level of education?
11. What can be the alternative strategies for paying for education?

These are the questions and considerations that are kept in view when we are in the domain of the financing of education.

ii) Who Pays for Education
Research on source of finance for education have been concerned with two main questions: first, who pays for education and secondly are there any alternative sources of finance, that could be exploited to enable a greater share of nation’s resources to be devoted to education, or to redistribute the burden of finance more equitably between individuals.

The question of who pays for education is questions of facts and figures, which can be answered with precision, give adequate financial statistics. The question of whether new sources of finance are desirable or feasible, in the future is much more controversial, and involves value judgments about the political and social implications of alternate methods of raising funds, the effect of different finance systems on the quality and control of educational institutions, and the consequence of new ways of paying for education, for the distribution of income or educational opportunity (Woodhall, 1972).

Institutions or Individuals:
In Pakistan, the Federal or Provincial Governments generally finances education. Some education is also financed by the private individuals or by the enterprises such as industries and by religious organizations. These bodies provide for educational institutions either directly, by means of fees or endowments, or indirectly through taxes and revenues. Therefore, an analysis of educational finances must he made on the basis of the financial flows and transactions at many different levels.

Levels of Decision-Makers in the Financing of Education:
Broadly speaking, there are four categories or levels of decision makers in the financing of education.

a) Supplier of finance, including households, business enterprises, charities.
b) Allocators of finance, i.e. Federal Government, provincial Governments, foundations and trusts, etc.
c) Spending bodies, such as District Education officers, Directors of Education, managers of private institutions of education, etc., who are responsible for spending money and have no power to raise funds ok revenue themselves.
d) Users of funds, a category that includes all educational institutions and all other institutions imparting education.

**Source of Educational finance in Pakistan**

As already mentioned, the main source of financing education in Pakistan is the Government grants. Other sources include charities, fees and endowments. There is no education tax but Government funds come from the revenues and takes raised from the public. The Government allocates a part of these funds for education. Thus the sources of financing education in Pakistan are:

1. Federal Government funds.
2. Provincial Government funds.
3. Private organizations running educational institutions.
4. Fees.

It is clear that the main source of financing education in Pakistan is the Government. Although funds are raised through tuition fees in higher secondary and college education and, at the same time, privately managed institutions are also being established, the share from these sources of education finance in the overall expenditures on education is so small that it can be neglected. The amount spent by the parents on the education of their children cannot be ignored, but there have been no studies to calculate this amount in the overall finance of education. Thus, when we discuss the finance of education in Pakistan, government expenditures on education are the sole figure that is relied on.

**iii) Importance of Educational Financing**

Education in almost all countries is provided in both private and public sectors. Education thus is not purely a public service: the exclusion principle, barring students who fail to pay fees to particular educational institution, can be readily applied. Education consumes a significant amount of resources in almost all countries, running between 6 and 10 percent of gross national product. A certain minimum level of educational provision is generally assumed to be necessary in order for a country to attain a reasonably high rate of economic growth. The distributions of educational opportunities to different groups of the population have consequences for social justice. As a result of the size of the set of educational activities in a country, and because educational provision effects economic growth kind the distribution of income, the system of educational finance is likely to be complicated. The complexity is reinforced by the fact that education is carried forward in both the public and private sectors and might best be described as quasi public service.
There are certain determining forces and factors as listed by Misra A. (1967) which creates a demand for education.

iv) **Forces Which Affect the Demand for Education**

**Society**
The elimination of the rugged individualism of man in order to make him a social Individual is necessary for the solidarity of society. The capacities, ignorance and impulses of human being have to be transformed into abilities. Knowledge and ideals respectively. In order to make him a cooperating and contributing member of the society so that he becomes an asset and not a liability, to it. This can be done through education. Which thus becomes indispensable for any society. Next the demand for education springs from the problems of maintaining and directing the continuity of society. Changes in the socio-cultural environment brings with them knew orientation education.

**Religion**
Joad C.E. says that the other main impulse is religion. And among the first schools to be set up were those among religious bodies. The religious tradition is the oldest, and religion and education were inseparable in the primitive society. Curiosity knows about one's self, about the ultimate nature of man has been a stVnLI1US education. Sacred books of all religions define rules and cherish traditions of wide scope for regulation of conduct in every sphere of man’s activity. This has not only to be followed but also to be transmitted from one generation to another. All such religious sanctions and traditions by M. Sadler. The intangible, impalpable spiritual forces have created strong incentives for educational demand.

**Political Form of Government**
The state may be called a larger society dominated by the requirements of the political form of government. Since it is an important agency for financing education. This demand may be considered in two types of states. viz., the totalitarian state may be asking, a despot or a dictator, but the educational consequences are much the same. Education becomes the instrument of realizing the ideals and aspirations of the state. The purpose and needs of the state shadow the entire sphere of education. The demand for education in a totalitarian state is created by the political exigencies and ambitions of the ruling clique.

Democracy, on the other hand, cherishes no vested interests or privileges. In the spirit of its political institutions, it believes in freedom, equality of opportunity
and value of the common man. The leadership in a democracy springs from the common people to whom more opportunity for education has to be given.

**Industrialization**
The commercial revolution of medieval Europe had created a demand for education amongst middle classes. The industrial revolution of the 18th century not only intensified this demand of the middle classes, but also set in a demand for education from the lower class. Ever since then, the growth of industrialization and consequent urbanization has continuously increased the demand for education. Education Technology and Automatisation requires more skilled personnel, and the change in the nature of vocations has created greater demand for professional and technical education. This progress in technology has ushered in new leisure time activities like the movies, radio, television video, etc. Education has now to equip the youth and adults for leisure time activities of the new scientific age.

These changes in the industrial and socio-economic patterns of the people have led to the intensification of the demand for education and call for more resource and better ways of financing education in modern times.

**External Factors**
Colonialism has been an important external factor in stimulating demand for education in the underdeveloped countries. It has introduced the western system of education through a foreign language, which has liquidated the indigenous system of instruction. The scientific advance in modern times has conquered distances and knit the world closer together. Education has been stimulated by competition among the countries by national ambition to attain it place in the community of nations and by the influence of new educational ideas in other parts of the world.

**Population**
The extent and nature of population has profound effect on the provision of education. The increase in population is reflected in enrolment. Bertrand Russell has remarked. “There is in any given society at any given time, a considerable possibility that increase in population may outstrip improvement in technique and. Therefore, cause a general lowering of standards of life.”

The proportion of persons in the various age groups has its repercussion on educational finance. The population of region may be dense or sparse. The denser the population of an area, the more economical, it is to provide education for it. If the regions sparsely populated, the number of schools required is large and
consequently, the expenditure is high. The geographical features of the region sometimes influence the financing of education.

**Status of Education**
The financing of education also depends upon the status accorded to education in the community. The overall economy, the national ideals and the world status of the country determine the importance it would attach to education. Education comes under social services, which includes among others, medical and public health agriculture, veterinary services, cooperation and community projects. The proportion of the total education expenditure to the national income can determine the priority given to education in a country in any particular year.

**Economic Factor**
The economical factors have persistently influenced the course of education. The overall economy of the country, the amount of national income and standard of leaving of the people have often reacted on the status of education and, consequently, influenced its financing.

Education owes its support to the overall economy of a community. In a subsistence economy where people are just to make two ends meet, much cultural advance is impossible and education necessarily recedes to the background. In a surplus economy where production exceeds consumption, people have enough leisure time, which they devote to cultural advancement and their education generally gets a place of importance. Every year absorbed by school attendance means a significant withdrawal of productive assets in an agricultural economy but for a machine economy the opposite is true. That education depends upon the basic economy, which is born out by the fact that cycles of rise and decline of education coincide with economic cycles.

Education finances are closely connected with the national dividend. The higher the nation dividend, the greater is the hope of allocating more to education. A low national dividend doubly affects educational finance:

Firstly, it lowers the taxable capacity of people, thereby reducing the revenue and secondly, it limits the resource of an average parent to spend on the education of his child and necessitates his withdrawal from school early to put him in gainful occupation to enhance his family income.

The standard of leaving is closely related to the national dividend, on the one hand, educational finance on the other. Status with the highest educational
expenditure also ranks high in per capital income, while status ranking low in school expenditure is low in all things that determine the standard of living.

Thus, it is evident that the financing of education is great influenced by the overall economy of the community and the standard of living of the people. Bertrand Russell says, “According to the economic circumstances of a state, the amount of money which can be afforded to spend on education will vary. Under any economic system there will be a certain amount of stupidity and a certain amount of love of prayer, each of which will stand in the way of creation of a perfect educational system. Nevertheless, the influence of the economic factors on education is undoubtedly profound and not always significantly obvious.”

**System of Administration**
The administrative structure of the country determines the distribution of financial responsibility for education among different levels of administration. In almost all forms of Government in the present times, the responsibility has been placed at three levels, viz. central or federal: regional, provincial or state: and local in the form of local bodies, municipalities, districts boards or school districts. In countries where the responsibilities are shared at all the three levels, the Central Government generally gives block grants, either without specifying any purpose or specifying particular branch of education or item of expenditure like building salaries, equipment, etc, for which the grant is given. Similarly, the responsibility of the regional administration lies midway between the central arid the local administration. It may assume whole or part of them responsibility for financing education in its area, or give only block grants with or without specification of purpose, or defray the cost of expenditure like salaries, buildings and the like. The local administration either takes up the entire responsibility for a certain, type of education, e.g. pre-primary education, of certain educational institutions or shares the financial responsibility with the central or regional administration.

**Type of Organization**
The different levels of education (primary, secondary and higher), forms of school system and their duration influence expenditure. The courses of liberal education are of a shorter duration than those for professional or technical education. The financing will be influenced by the duration and the nature of courses and there are wide variations in these respects in the countries of the world. The organization of professional or technical education always costs more than that of general education, which is of a shorter duration too, Besides these, special provision for the education of the physically, mentally, emotionally and socially handicapped children has also to be made. It is thus obvious that the educational
organization, institutional set-up, or the school ladder, as is sometimes called, affects the financing of education because each year of extension in the duration of the levels as also of compulsory education means increased financial provision for schooling.

**Acquiring Resources**

Perhaps the most interesting theory about the acquiring of resources for education is that the people have not allowed this factor to depend upon the economic power and preference of individual citizens exercised through the markers in earlier times, kings, bishops and nobles gave bonds and endowed colleges and schools: philanthropists willed scholarships for the poor deserving students and endowed chains of philosophy in universities. Gradually, the sovereign power however constituted, took on itself to provide the greater part of resources for education and to distribute it more evenly than could be done by individuals. This is true even today of countries where the source basis is local. Besides state aid, there are several methods of increasing the finance available for education. One of the first social services financed through taxation was education. Sometimes a special educational cess has also been levied and the willingness of the people to pay these high and low rates. Shows their readiness to support education. The funds for financing education in most of the countries are derived either exclusively from general receipts, or from special educational taxes in addition to general receipts. In some countries income from taxes is earmarked for certain specific items of expenditure, like buildings, literacy campaigns or vocational education.

The decentralization of control of education has developed responsibility of maintaining education on the local authority, the municipal and district boards.

Next among resources of education comes the philanthropy of the people, F.H. Swift (1911) is not in favour of creating endowments. “It is sound public policy for the governments to finance education out of current funds rather than to establish huge endowments of land and money designed to make it unnecessary for succeeding generations to tax themselves for the education of their children”.

Another source of educational income is the fees and individual payments of educational service received. These used to be a good source of income for educational institutions, but they can be increased to a limit only.

Crises of secondary education for all are being raised in the some parts of the world. The modern trend is towards free education for all.
Besides the tuition fee, the examination, certification and endowments fee are also charged. Harold F. Clarke says “For economic life of the country, the fee should be reduced perhaps even ultimately abolished”.

The profits arising from the sale of goods and services rendered by the educational institutions form another important source of financing education. Mahatma Gandhi’s scheme of basic education requires economic sufficiency of the education system through the sale of goods produced by the students. Many industrial and technical schools and colleges, in the process of instruction produced, saleable goods.

 Provision of education requires certain material resources in the form of personal equipment and building. These may be provided by king by making available specialists apparatus, furniture, land, building materials and engineer's assistance without cost.

 We do get foreign aid for financing education from UNESCO, UNICEF, etc. International cultural exchanges like Ford Foundation, Rockefeller Foundation, Wheat Loan Exchange, Technical Cooperation Mission, and USAID. Commonwealth fellow's Russian, German scholarships and almost all the countries do have programme for financing higher education. Residential scholarships are also provided agencies and our own countrymen have started instituting fellowships and scholarships not only for higher education but also for the primary and secondary levels of educations. In some counters, special measures are taken for acquiring educational financing in addition to the budgetary provision like organizing school festivals, concerts; sales, parent-teacher associations, school cooperatives, etc. Countries such as France, Spain, Switzerland, Ecuador and New Zealand issue special stamps, and Japan and Vietnam issue lotteries or observe national festivals for financing education of the country as a whole.

 Private agencies share in the educational expenditure by starting their own institutions, either which or without any form of grant-in-aid from the government. In India the recent trend is to establish self-financing institutions even at the professional levels like medicine, engineering, dentistry, etc.

 1.4 Budgeting

 The budget is the heart of the management system. It is the fiscal interpretation of the educational programme and services. Therefore, expenditure reductions or inability to generate revenues stipulated in the budget document impact upon the
quality and quantity of educational programmed and services. The budget as a planning device is future oriented; as a management device during a fiscal period, its purpose is control to insure that expenditures are authorized and do not exceed money available overall, it budget is a disciplined approach to handling school expenditures.

There is not subject today that receives as much attention in all aspects of an individual’s daily life as does budgeting. Whether a person is planning the future needs of himself and his family or whether he as head of an institution or organization, is planning the revenues necessary to meet expenses in future and earn a profit, the most efficient instrument to assist and guide him is the budget.

Budgeting is the means of coordinating the combined efforts of an organization into a plan of action based upon past performance and governed by a rational judgment of factors that are expected to influence the operation of the organization in the future. Budgeting is neither just control nor just forecasting. The objectives of budgeting are planning, coordination and control. Without the coordination provided by budgeting, department heads may follow courses that are, or seem to be, beneficial for their particular offices, but which are not beneficial from the point of view of the organization. Coordination is, therefore, necessary for successfully conducting the operation of the organization. Plans of various District Education Officers, Divisional Districts of Education and Regional heads need to be known as prerequisite to formulate the best plans for a province. Each district or division cannot operate at its best indecently. The most widely known use of budget in itself is therefore, control.

However, budget in itself is not a system of control; it is a valuable means of control, but well considered planning and coordination are necessary before control can be affected. Control might be said to be the procedure necessary to achieve adherence to the plan budget after its formulation.

i) Concept of Budget
What is budget?

In order to have a clear concept of the budget some selected definitions follow:

a) A budget is a plan of financial operation embodying an estimate of the proposed expenditure for a given period and purpose and the proposed means of financing them.

b) A Government budget is a plan for financing government activities during a fixed period, prepared and submitted by a responsible executive to a representative body, whose approval and authorization are necessary before the plan can be executed.
c) A budget may be defined as a plan of activities in a time period relating their costs to resources available.

d) A Government budget has also been defined as a statement of estimated receipts and expenses for a fixed period and an authorization to collect revenues and to incur emptiness.

e) According to Fremgen (1973), a budget is a comprehensive and coordinated plan, expressed in financial terms for the operation of a system or organization for a specific period to achieve the predetermined goals.

ii) **Purpose of Budget**

The main purposes of budgeting are:

a) To establish in advance the objective or end result of the budget period.

b) To provide the means of coordinating the activities of the various departments in the organization.

c) To provide a period-to-period basis of comparison to show whether the plans are being realized and, if not realized, indicate what changes must he made if current objectives are to be achieved.

d) To serve as a basis of the orderly management or public funds.

iii) **Advantages of Budget**

In the context of educational planning, budgeting is the translation of an educational plan in terms of rupees/money required during the plan period, and the budget is considered to be the first step in the implementation of educational plans. Briefly, some of the main advantages of budgeting are:

a) Action based in budgeting

b) Cooperation is secured in the entire organization

c) Policies are adequately established

d) Programme activities are related to expected or available resources and economic conditions

e) Balanced programmes are developed

f) Operations are controlled and waste is prevented

g) Weaknesses in the organization are revealed.

iv) **Function of Budget**

In brief; three main functions of budgeting are to serve as an instrument:

a) Of providing the operational cost time frame work for activities to be implemented

b) For delegation of implementation authority;

c) Of controlling and evaluating performance.
In countries with mixed economies, the general government budget is the most powerful instrument available to implement policy decisions affecting the economy. Three fiscal functions are commonly recognized:

1. **The stabilization Function**
   This is concerned with the aggregation to size of the budget, and of the budget, and its impact on the major macro-economic variables: the volume of production, saving, investment and the balance of trade. This role is vital in the general management of the economy, and sets the climate within which the development effort proceeds. An example of action in pursuit of this function would be a government decision to eliminate or reduce the size of the budget deficit in order to reduce inflationary pressure on the economy.

2. **Distributive function**
   If the Government considers that the original distribution of income is unsatisfactory, it can take steps to alter it. It may also adjust the burden of taxations on different groups, it may provide certain goods and services free or at subsidized prices, and it may make income transfer payments such as the payment of sickness and unemployment benefits or the provision of the child allowances.

3. **Allocation Function**
   If the Government considers that the pattern of the production of goods and services generated by market forces is unsatisfactory, it may influence the pattern by a variety of interventions including taxation and subsidy, and direct provision by Government agencies. The Government found it was necessary to stimulate at least, some direct provision. Sometimes fourth function is also listed.

4. **Taxation**
   However, this should not really be considered as a primary objective of the public sector, since taxation is not an end in itself, but a means to raising sufficient funds so as to allow Government nevertheless. The way in which taxes are levied has an important effect on income distribution, and that total sum raised a major component of the entire budget revenue.

(v) **Phases of Budgeting**
   Budgeting is the process of preparing targets. It has several phases at the district, divisional, provincial and federal levels. These phases are:
**Phase 1**
Identification of programme, projects or activities to be accomplished during the budget period.

*Example:*
At Allama Iqbal Open University (AIOU) the budget for the year 2000-2001 is to be prepared. At this first phase an effort will be made to identify the courses to be developed, printed and launched during this budget period July 2000- June 2001.

**Phase 2**
Identification of the resources in terms of manpower, money, machine and materials: These are to be expressed either in such units as man/machine/hours/days/weeks/months or in terms of actual numbers of man/machine and quantities or material.

*Example:*
Taking the previous example of the AIOU, we shall described the number of credits/units for each course, the time spent by a course coordinator in the development of a unit/course, other facilities needed for the development of a course in terms of typist/months/time needed for its printing, etc.

**Phase 3**
*Costing of resources*
The budget is fundamentally a financial statement. Hence costing becomes the most important activity in the budgeting.

*Example:*
Taking the AIOU example, in this third phase, we can calculate the cost of the course production under various headings. Let its say we are taking the heading of the development of a course. For this we shall first determine the honorarium being paid to the unit writer. The total number of the units will be multiplied by the normal. Honorarium paid to a unit writer in order to calculate the total cost to be incurred on the development of the course. Other expenditure expected to be incurred on convening various meeting will be taken into consideration. The needs for some foreign consultancy will also be anticipated and the expenditure likely to occur in that case will be estimated.

Likewise the costing excise will be done on all the other activities, programmes or projects identified in phase 1. Other heading in the case of AIOU, can be printing of the course materials, transportation, examination, regional services, production of radio and television etc.
Phase 4

*Presentation of budges:*

The budget is formulated according to the budgetary guidelines issued from time to time by the proper authorities, the University Grants Commission of the Ministry of Education in the case of the AIOU.

Phase 5

*Obtaining approval of the appropriate authority*

This final stage of budgeting involves piloting the budget through a series of budget hearings. It is at this stage that the budget is subjected to the views and compromises, and adjustments are made.
1.5 Activities

1. Keeping in view the school plant discussed in unit observe your school plant actually. Compare it with the ideal situation.

2. Visit a public library and examine its books arrangements. Is it according to the discussed criteria?

3. Enlist how much A.V. aids are to be used in your school.

4. Compare the methods of public financing with Government financing and write in our notebook.

1.6 Exercise

1. Critically discuss the physical aspects of your school.

2. Examine the learning resources which are available in your school.

3. Define financing of education in Pakistan and critically examine its various implications.

4. Discuss the budget and budgeting process.
Bibliography


UNIT-7

SCHOOL RECORDS

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Introduction

Maintenance of school records is an essential aspect of school administration and every teacher and in particular the headmaster in charge of the institution, should he well conversion with it. It should be remembered that the headmaster is solely responsible for the proper maintenance and preservation of records, and these duties cannot be delegated to any of his subordinates. His responsibility is not lightened by the employment of clerks charged with the duty of maintaining registers, nor by any arrangement by which members of the staff assist him in this part of his duty. In fact, there is a sense in which increases assistance increases the headmaster’s responsibility, for he has to function through these assistants and direct and co-ordinate their work. In no case can headmaster transfers his clerks or assistant blame for faulty discharge of what is his own primary responsibilities.

Objectives

After studying this unit students should be able:
1. To understand the need of school records.
2. To know the essential requirement of school records.
3. To define the different kinds of school records.
1.1 Need for School Records

Every institution that is permanently organized should maintain their certain records from which its origin, its growth and development, its condition and circumstances at various periods, its aims, its aspirations and achievements, its efficiency and usefulness can be clearly known and estimated. This is also true for a school which is a permanent public institution. This school is answerable to several bodies for its effective functioning. To the parents in the first place, it is responsible for the proper training and instructions of their children. They pay fee, and for some of them it is considerable sacrifice; and even in cases where education is free; they pay for their children’s education indirectly through rates, cusses and general taxation. At any rate, they are deprived of their children’s services at home or of their assistance in earning a livelihood. To society, of which the school is an organized agency, it has to render an account as to the manner in which it discharges its trust of preparing its need for school future members.

The central or local government, which maintains the school or shares the costs of its maintenance, as whatever the case may he, has to be satisfied that the maintenance costs incurred or the grants paid out of public funds have been applied to appropriate purposes and that efficient conditions of work are provided in the school. Lastly, the management and staff owe it to the pupils to know them, individually, to watch their progress in studies carefully and systematically, ascertain and appraise their general attainments and capacities and properly to condition their conduct and general behaviour. The observation and study of the pupils from day to day and from year to year is an id in the school’s endeavor to help forward in the desired direction of their individual and collective development.

In order that the school may collect and furnish adequate information to all the parties concerned or interested in its proper functioning and may make the best use of the information thus collected for the furtherance of its own aims and purposes, it is necessary that complete and systematic records should be maintained. In the light of these records, pupil’s careers are directed and a better adjustment is brought about between them and their work, and thereby the true ends of democratic education are served. It is with the help of these records that reports to parents regarding the progress, merits, and shortcomings of their children are sent, and the parents' co-operation in the school’s endeavor is enlisted. Further, these records are necessary for furnishing to the State or local educational authorities facts and figures, called “returns,” from which the present condition of the school is known, and from which also the educational progress
and needs for particular localities, and even of the state as a whole, are judged, and on the basis of which lines of future development and expansion are determined.

### 1.2 Essential Requirements of School Records

These records, if they are to be of real value, should be full and complete in detail. At the same time, they should be maintained in such a way that the minimum of clerical work is involved. At any rate, they should not take so much of the headmaster’s time as it will hamper him to discharge his other duties relating to class teaching and the organization and supervision of school activities. Another essential requirement for the school records are for the test of the honesty of those who have to maintain them. Accuracy is ensured to a great extent by promptness of entries in the records are important documents-in fact, they are the most valuable part of school equipment—they should always be available in the school premises and kept in a safe place under lock and key. They should not on any account be removed from the school. In view of the failure to observe this rule in practice, some educational authorities have thought necessary to issue instruction that not only teacher follow but even inspecting officers should not remove records from the school premises for the purpose of security, and not even the Visitor’s hook.

From an analysis of the records maintained in representative high schools in the different parts of the country, it was found that they were designed to serve five purposes. These are: (1) To assist in guidance, including classification and placement of pupils. (2) To improve class-room teaching methods by giving the teacher information regarding the individual differences of pupils. (3) To assist, in educational research. (4) To meet requirements of, and provide basis for, reports 19 state and local authorities. (5) To motivate pupils' work. Of these, records serving the first two purposes are considered to be primary importance as concerned with the work carried on in the school.

### 1.3 Kinds of Records to be Maintained

Administratively, the records which has be maintained in secondary schools are broadly under the following heads; General, Financial, Educational and those relating to equipment. The list of records to be maintained in a secondary school as given below, may appear formidable; and, indeed, in many schools all these records may not be necessary. The criterion for adoption of any record is whether it serves any useful purpose in making the management of the school more effective. A characteristic weakness of school administration is the recording of
data that is without any purpose by making a fetish of maintaining through and exhaustive records covering every from school activity without realizing that they do not merit the time and labour expended on them. A careful discrimination between that is really incessant and that really dispensable should be made, if the school office is not to become a store-house of information of little value in either making the school work effective or helping educational authorities in the planning of educational reform and development. Approval of the inspecting officers is, however, necessary as to the selection of the records to be maintained in school.

A. General
   1. Calendar
   2. Log Book
   3. Visitor’s Book
   4. Service Registers
   5. Register of Loans of Buildings
   6. Order and Circulars of the Educational Authority
   7. Staff Leave Register
   8. Memo Book
   9. “From” and “to” Registers
   10. Local Delivery Book

B. Financial
   1. Acquaintance Roll
   2. Contingent Order Book
   3. Contingency Register
   4. Register of Fee Collections
   5. Abstract Register of Fees
   6. Register of Receipt & Expenditure (Games)
   7. Register of Receipts and Expenditure (Union)
   8. Bill Register
   9. Register of Donations (for private schools only)
   10. Register of Scholarships
   11. Practical Arts Section Bill Book
   12. Practical Arts Section Order Book

C. Educational
   1. Pupils’ Attendance Register
   2. Teachers’ Attendance Book
   3. Class Time-Tables
   4. Teachers’ Time-Tables
5. General Time-Tables  
6. Teacher’s Monthly Programme of Work  
7. Pupils’ Progress Record  
8. School Tests Records  
9. Headmaster’s Supervision Register  
10. Admission Register  
11. Transfer Certificate Book  
12. Public Examination Records  

D. Equipment  
1. Stock Book of Furniture and School Appliances  
2. Library Catalogue  
3. Accession Register  
4. Library Issue Book  
5. Stationary Issue Book  
6. Stock and Issue of Games Materials  
7. Register of Newspapers and Magazines Received  
8. Register of Supply Slates and Books, etc., Received and Distributed  
9. Register of Articles Manufactured in the Practical Arts Section  
10. Register of Stock of Raw materials for the Practical Arts Section  

E. Correspondence  
1. From and “To” Registers  
2. Peon Book  
3. Manual Book  
4. File of Departmental orders and Circulars  
5. Public Examination File  
6. Register of Causal Leave Granted

In addition to those mention under the heading “Financial” the following for records have been found helpful in maintaining school accounts:  
1. Cash Book for entering daily receipts and payments  
2. General Ledger or Classified Abstract of the monthly totals  
3. Remittance Book for the purpose of making Remittance to the Treasury or bank.  
4. Register of Pay Bills

The following few points concerning the proper mode of keeping school records might usefully be born in mind by fresh and inexperienced head-teachers;
Mode of Keeping Records

1. In every institution its stock list of registers maintained should be prepared.
2. On the outer cover of each register the following particulars should be distinctly written:
   a) The name of the school.
   b) The serial number of register.
   c) The name of the register.
   d) Number of the volume.
   e) The number of the pages in the volume and dates on which the volume was opened and closed.
3. When a register is opened the pages should be numbered consecutively, either in red ink or with numbering machine, and no leaf must be inserted in to, or detached from any register. If a page is disfigured by faulty entries or otherwise, the entries should be secured off with the remark “cancelled”.
4. Registers should be kept tidy. Writing and figuring should be such as will give a neat appearance to the entries. Figures must not be joined. Noughts in money columns should be avoided, as they are liable to lead to confusion in totaling and admit of alteration. Registers should not be folded or the pages crumpled.
5. If it is necessary to correct any, entry, the incorrect one should not be scratched out, but a line should be lightly drawn through it in red ink so that the original entry and the alternation made may both be clear on the face of the record.
6. The head of the office should authenticate each correction of interpolation made, by setting his dated initials against each such correction or interpolation.
7. All entries must be in ink. But in entering balance or totals it desirable to check their correctness before noting them in ink.
8. All horizontal lines should be thinly ruled in red ink. One line above every total and two lines underneath every final total should be drawn. The money denomination, namely “Rs.” should be indicated by the side of each total, thus: Rs. 195-10-4.
9. The totals of both sides of an account should always be noted in a line with each other, even though there may not be the same number of items on both sides.
10. When standardized printed registers are not available, a stiff bound notebook should be used of a size uniform with the majority of the other registers.
11. A new volume of a register should not be opened every year when the previous volume contains a large number of blank pages. Whenever a fresh hook is put in to use, a remark on the fly sheet of the book that the previous
volumes has been fully used and lodged in the record should be recorded with, and the date from which the new register is used and the number of pages it contains should be noted.

12. Every column provided in a prescribed register should be filled up. No blank space should be left between entries; and subsequent insertions should be avoided.

A few of the important school records, relating mainly to the educational side of School administration, are described below:

1. **School Calendar**
The school calendar is drawn up at the beginning of each school year. The school year, should be noted that it is different from the financial year and the calendar year. While the financial year begins on first July and the calendar year on January 1st, the school year commences on the date of reopening of a school after the long vacation. The school year is therefore the year arranged for teaching purposes and is not identical with either the financial or the calendar year. It is generally advisable that all schools in the same provinces or, at any rate, in the same local area, should have a uniform school year. So that children who unavoidably have to migrate from one school to another at any time of the year may not be handicapped by an appreciable difference in the progress made in the courses of studies in the several schools.

According to the general educational requirements the headmaster of every school should prepare a calendar by the end of June each year, and submit one copy to the inspecting officer in-charge of the school and have another posted up in his office room.

The calendar should contain the following items of information and such others as concern the work of the institution:

1. General, partial, and local holidays.
2. Dates for the submission of monthly, quarterly, half-yearly, and annual reports and returns.
3. Dates of public and school examinations.
4. Dates for sending up applications for public examination term certificates, etc.
5. Lessons to be done on each partial holiday, so that no subject shall suffer through continual loss of periods of works.
6. Dates of meeting of school committees, Teachers' Associations. Debating and other societies, local excursions, school tournaments, etc.
7. In Schools where the system of periodical class test is in vogue, the dates on which such tests will be conducted, and the subjects in which they will be held.

The school calendar ensures regular and timely submission of periodical Returns and reports and conduces to the better and systematic organization of school activities.

2. Log Book
Educational rules require also the maintenance of a log book also. The logbook is a record of events, and as such it furnishes material for a history of the school. It should contain mention of special events, the introduction of new text-books, apparatus, or courses of instruction, and plan of lessons approved by the inspectors, the visits of the Inspecting Officers and other distinguished persons interested in education, closure or changes in the working hours of school on account (if epidemic diseases, and any oilier deviations from the ordinary routine of the school, or any special circumstances effecting the school, that may deserve to be recorded for future reference or for any other reason. The logbook is a school diary. It should contain only statement of facts and no expressions of opinion on the work or conduct of teachers, or remarks as to the efficiency of the school. The entries in the logbook should he made by the head master, as occasion may require. It is a permanent record for future reference.

3. Admission Register
The Admission Register is one of the most important school records, and the head master is personally responsible for therein. Alter satisfying himself that, the information furnished by the parents in the application for admission to the school is correct, the head master should state at the bottom of the form whether the pupil was admitted or rejected. All application forms received should be serially numbered and filed separately for reference. In the case of pupil seeking admission after a course of private study a careful investigation concerning the pupil's previous educational career, as declared by the parent or guardian, should invariably he made before making admission. The headmaster should resist the pressure or importunities of parents’ tor admission of children by evasion of the rule. Admission of pupils migrating from outside the jurisdiction of the local educational authority should not be made, even though the candidates may be eligible according to their transfer certificates, until the certificates have been countersign by the educational officer who should be having administrative control over the school issuing the certificates, and until the equivalence of standards has been determined. No such pupil should he admitted to a class higher
than the first-year class when two or more classes constitute one unit from the point of view of the course of instruction.

Entries in the Admission Register should be made as soon as a pupil is admitted or, at any rate, before the close of the day; and all the necessary particulars as provided for in the register, should be noted. No admission or re-admission made at any time of the year should be left out of the register. Successive numbers should be given to the pupils on admission, and each pupil should retain this number as long as he remains in the school. But a fresh serial number should be given to admissions each year; and whenever the admission number of a pupil is quoted, it should be given in the form of a fraction, with the serial number as the denominator thus, $54/55$. If a pupil leave a school and rejoins it with a leaving certificate issued by another school, a new entry should be made in the register. But a pupil, whose name was removed for default in payment of tuition or other fees, or for continued absence, need not be given a fresh admission number if he returns to the school in the same terms or within three months of the removal of his name; but his original admission number should be given to him. In such cases, the collection of the re-admission fees should invariably be noted in the fee collection register and a brief note made against his number in the admission register to indicate the month or year of collection of readmission fee. This entry may be briefly made thus: R.A. Nov.

No name should be removed unless a pupil applies for and has been granted a leaving certificate, or has been continuously absent for four weeks without permission, or has been a defaulter in the payment of fees till the end of the month during which they were due or has been dismissed as unworthy of continuing in the school. When a name is removed for any reason, the date of the last attendance should be entered in the admission register, with the cause of leaving if that is known.

In recording the date of birth of pupils in the admission register the exact day, month, and year of birth should be carefully ascertained and noted in the register. This date should be retained throughout the pupils’ educational career and should not be altered without the permission of the educational authority in-charge of the institution. This entry as the date of birth is very important, as it is often required as evidence in important connections.

It should be desirable in large schools to prepare and alphabetical index of pupils admitted during the year for convenience of reference. Such an index may be prepared after all the admission for the year has been made. At the end of each year, when the admissions for the year are over, and abstract should be prepared
to show how many of the pupils admitted during the year left with leaving certificates, how many without certificates and the number remaining in the school. In cases of pupils who leave the school without paying all or part of the fees due a remark should be made against their names in this register, so that a fee which is due may be recovered if and when they apply for leaving certificates.

According to the departmental rules, admission register should be preserved permanently.

4. Pupils’ Attendance Register
For each class, or division of a class, there should be an attendance register which contains the names of all the pupils in the class, arranged in alphabetical order. The attendance in some countries provides a separate column for each session of the school day for each period daily, but in other countries, only one column for each day is provided. The attendance should be marked for both the morning and afternoon sessions. The usual signs adopted are slant strokes, such as / and \, attendance at both the session of a day being indicated by x. No blank should be left, and ink not pencil should be used for marking attendance. Attendance should be marked as soon as the class assembles at the prescribed time; and if a pupil leaves the school before the completion of the session, his attendance should be cancelled by drawing a line round the mark thus: 0, and the pupil should be dealt with suitably. Absence owing to illness or with leave is indicated by suitable symbols such as S. L. at the foot of each daily column. The number present at the morning and the afternoon sessions should be noted, and to insure accuracy account of those actual present should be taken before the number is recorded. It is convenient to note every day, on a corner of the black board, the number of pupils on the roll and the number present at the end of each month. The number of times each pupil was present should be noted in the column provided. When the school does not meet any day, a line drawn through it and nature of the holiday written should cancel the column. When closure was due to reasons other than the usual ones the reason should be recorded in the diary or logbook. Long holidays should be indicated by writing “holidays” across the daily column, the nature of holidays being also indicated.

It should be impressed upon pupils that leaves of absence can be granted only when applied for in advance, except in such previous application is impossible. Applications for leave should invariably be signed by the parents or guardian of the pupil and the reasons for leave clearly stated. Application for leave should go to the headmaster through class-teacher, who should carefully scrutinize them and record his recommendation thereon. Medical certificates should support leave applications for long periods.
The efficiency of a school is often judged by the percentage of attendance. But real efficiency requires that some agency should be provided in the school to keep the school in touch with pupil when he is absent.

5. **Teacher’s Attendance Register**

A register for the purpose of recording the daily attendance of the teachers in a school is another necessary record. The registers should be kept in the headmaster’s room, and as soon as teachers come to the school, at the commencement of both morning and afternoon sessions, they should write their initial just opposite to their names in the column provided for the purpose. Latecomers should indicate the time at which they arrived. The headmaster should also mark his own attendance and check the attendance of teachers at the commencement of each school session. Teachers given casual leave should be marked C.L. by the headmaster; and in cases of long absence on leave a line should be drawn against the name, covering the columns corresponding to the dates for which leave has been granted. The number of days of casual leaves or other leave taken by each teacher during the month should be noted in the register by the headmaster at the end of the month.

The record of the pupil’s work and progress in the school includes not only the achievement of the pupil in each of the objects of the curriculum, his progress from time to time and his relative standing in the class, but also his sore intelligence and achievement test, his extra-curriculum activities and his achievements there in his present traits, his vacation and other employment, his vocational interests and aptitudes, his abilities and weaknesses, in his health and physical defects, in fact a full case history of the school life of the pupil.

Sometimes the basis and explanations of these particulars are also recorded; along with other particulars that go to disclose the child’s general relation to his environment. Since the judgment of the child as a whole should be based on long study and continues observation a full and final report on his attainments and progress is not issued until he passes out the school.

Since the aim is to make this record complete, it is called cumulative record. It follows a pupil from school to school; the one from which lie withdraws keeps a copy on its file and forwards the duplicate to the head of the school which the pupil joins. This record furnishes the raw material from which the teacher, the head of the institution the pupil wishes to enter, a prospective employer, in fact, anybody concerned may construct a concrete picture of the individual boy or girl.
6) Monthly Programme

Educational authorities generally require that the heads of all institutions, Government and aided should see that every teacher draws up at the beginning of each school year a programme of work for the year with reference to the prescribed syllabus, nothing therein at least once a month how far the work has progressed according to the certain programme. This record enables the head of the institution or the inspecting officer to scrutinize and judge the progress made in each subject from time to time. It is further required that heads of institution should check such entries at least once a term, giving their opinion as to the progress made, together with other remarks if any. It is needless to say that unless the year’s work is plotted out with reference to the available number of working periods in the subjects concerned, in convenient units of time, and unless progress is checked at frequent intervals with reference to the programme systematic progress cannot very well be ensured and undue hurry about the end of the school year avoided. It is desirable to have short units of time for the annual programme in order to secure better adjustment of work to the time available in some schools the work to be done is shown week by week; but very small units of time involved too much fragmentation of the course of study. In this connection, it has to be pointed out the work for each unit of time, a month, a fortnight, or a week should be shown by topics and not by pages in a text-book, as is sometimes done. The latter procedure indicates that the teacher is only a slave to the textbook and not a master of his subject.

The registers so far referred relate to the educational aspect of schoolwork. The headmaster’s functions include also the custody and maintenance of full and correct accounts of all money received and paid by him, and the rendering of such accounts and the submission of any prescribed returns to his official superiors or managers. He is also the custodian of the school equipment and building, and is in administrative control of the staff. In regard to the financial responsibility of the headmaster, it varies with the character of the school, weather it is privately managed, a local board of government institution. In the case of an institution under private management, the headmaster has an important part not only in the administration of the “internal fund” i.e. those in connection with the extra-curricular activities but also in the preparation and administration of the school budget. In some cases the headmaster’s financial authority is confined to the administration of funds raised for the support of extra-curricular activities only. Whether these funds are obtained from a single comprehensive fee or separate fee for separate activities, or even from public donations, good business methods should be employed in extra-curricular finance as with other school funds, particularly because it is in extra-curricular affairs that pupils obtain their first experience in public finance.
Every head of an institution part should realize that the correct maintenance of accounts is no less important as a part of his duties than his academicals work. A knowledge of the accounts and financial rules relevant to his duties is a necessary part of the equipment of every head of an institution through whose hands governments money passes, and lie is expected to be sufficiently familiar with financial and accounts rules to keep and adequate check over clerks in his institution. No head of an institution should plead as an excuse for an financial or accounts irregularity that he has been duped by his clerk or accountant as it is for him to see that the clerk or accountant is doing duty properly.

The implication of a government servant’s responsibility in respect of cash transactions was also pointed out and it was made clear that in case of any loss arising from fraud or negligence on the part of any government servant, he would be held responsible to the extent to which it may be shown that he contributed to the loss by his own action or negligence.

Without attempting to describe fully the procedure to be followed in conducting the several financial transactions affecting the school and in maintaining all the registers where in fee-collections are noted. The proper maintenance of the former guarantees in a larger measure the correctness of school accounts; and the latter form the main body of the financial transactions of the school.

7) Cash Book

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Date</td>
<td>Particulars</td>
<td>Amount Received</td>
<td>Receipt No.</td>
<td>L.F.</td>
<td>Amount Paid</td>
<td>Voucher No.</td>
<td>L.F.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A cash book is an important initial record in which details are entered of all financial transactions of the school occurring from day to day. It should be a bound volume, and the pages should be carefully numbered in print. The above form, indicating the number of columns and particulars to be noted in each column, is suggested for adoption:

In, column 1, the site on which the cash is received or paid is entered. Columns 5 and 8, marked L.F., are for the purpose of showing the number of the pages of the subsidiary register where the corresponding entry appears. For instance, if on 1 September 1994 a sum of Rs. 1 580 is received as cash on account of salary and is credited to cash account, there will be a corresponding entry in the salary book on a certain page. It is the number of this page in the salary book that is to be noted in the L.F., column 5 of the cashbook. Similarly, the pages of the sports or Reading-room Fund Account on which the expenditure on sports of reading room
is noted will be entered in column 8. It should be clearly noted that all transactions to which a headmaster is a party in his official capacity must, without any reservation, be brought to account in the school cash book; and all money received should be paid in full, without the least possible delay, into a government treasury or the Bank, as the case may be: The term “cash” includes specific, currency notes, cheques, demand drafts, and remittance transfer receipts. Whenever money is received a receipt must be issued, and the number of the receipt issued must be entered in column 4. Similarly payments made from out of cash should be entered in the payment column, i.e. column 6, in the order in which the payments are made, the number of the voucher obtained from out of cash should be entered in the payments being noted in column 7. All transactions relating to the school, such as salary, fees and fines, should be entered in this register. The cashbook should be written up from day to day, the entry relating to each item of receipt and expenditure being made at the time of transaction. The balance at the beginning of each day, called the opening balance, should be brought forward on the receipt side, as also all the sums received in the course of the day. The balance at the end of the day is called the closing balance, and it is entered on the payment side. It should be noted that what is a closing balance at the end of a day is the opening balance at the beginning of the next day. After the day’s transaction is over, the account should be closed by striking the balance. The balance should always be a plus balance. In no case should there be a minus balance. The particular items (head of accounts) working up to the cash balance at the close of the last working day of the month should be given in the manner detailed hereunder:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Rs.</th>
<th>PS.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Games Fund</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Union Fund</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contingency</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undisbursed Salary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other items (to be specified)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total: __________

Balance in the Bank:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Rs.</th>
<th>PS.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Games Fund</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Union Fund</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other items (to be specified)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total: __________

Cash in hand  __________
There must be an agreement between the entries in the cash hook and the corresponding entries in the subsidiary registers namely, Contingent register, Games account register, Union account register, Admission fee register, Medical fee register, as also with the remittances and withdrawals in the pass book and the copies of the challans.

After closing the account for the day, the cash on hand should be counted by the head of the institution, which should satisfy himself that it agrees with the book balance: and the day’s business should be closed with this dated signature. Failure to do this involves discrepancies and incorrect accounting. If any transaction is omitted from the cashbook on the day it takes place, it should be accounted for on the day the omission is notices, with necessary remarks as to the omission.

The abstract of receipts and expenditure for the month and details of Union and Games fee, etc., collected, remitted and spent during a month should be submitted to the inspecting officer, in-charge of the institution in the case of a government institution, or to the management in the case of a private school, on or before the 4th of the month succeeding that to which the accounts relate.

A general ledger, containing a condensed and classified record of all the financial transactions in the form prescribed by the educational authority or management, facilities the preparation of monthly and annual accounts. It gives an abstract of income, expenditure and balance in regard to each of the funds referred to in the cashbook. Entries may be made by in the general ledger after each day’s transactions have been closed and enter in the cashbook and detailed ledgers.

8) Fee Collection Register

The collections of fee, viz, admission and re-admission, tuition, games, union, medical inspection and any other fee that may be collected in a school, is one of the main duties of the headmaster. But for convenience of collection it may be entrusted to teachers in-charge of the several classes in a school. To avoid frequent interruption of class-work, and to systematize such collections, specified dates are fixed for the purpose. On the appointed dates, the class-teacher should collect the fees at the beginning of the regular work, after the roll-call; and on receipt of payment of each pupil, he should make the necessary entry against the latter’s in the prescribed fee registered with his dated initials. As soon as each entry is made or receipt should be issued to the people. Printed forms with counter foils should always be used for receipts, which should be numbered. In no case should receipt be pre-dated, nor should they be filled in anticipation of receiving payment. After the day’s collection are over the class-teacher should not the total amount collected in the column provided for the purpose in the register and after
duly attesting it, he should hand it over as early as possible on the same day to the headmaster, who will acknowledge receipt in another column. The headmaster should also certify in the register, at the end of the month, that an amount collected agrees with the amount handed over to him by the teacher concerned.

This item of work should be attended to on proper day and for no reason should it be postponed to the next day, nor should the amounts be received by any other person subordinate to the head master. Beside the fee collection registers for the various classes, the headmaster should maintain a consolidated register for the total amounts, including fee, fines, etc., collected from the several classes on each day of collection. This register is the basis on which fee is remitted to the Treasury or to the bank. The importance of the correct maintenance of this register is obvious. The headmaster is directly responsible for the entries made in the consolidated registers.

9) **Service Register**
A service register is a record of the official life of every officer, teacher, or inferior employee under any public authority. A service register should be there for to be opened on behalf each employee in school managed by government or a local authority. Every step in the official life of the person concerned should be recorded and each entry attested by the head master, which should keep the service register of the staff of the school in his personal custody. Since the service register is an important record of the person's official life, determining questions of promotion, leave, superannuating, etc., the correctness and completeness of the entries should be matter of primary concern. All the columns in a service register should there for be filled. The following points in regard to the maintenance of service register, based on the defects ordinary observed during inspection of school regards should he borne in mind by those who have custody of service register:

a. The entries in the service register should agree other records.
b. In the case of a first appointment, the (late OD which the appointee took charges should be noted, along with the number and date of the order of appointment: similarly in the case of transfers.
c. The date of birth first entered in the service register should not he changed expect with permission of competent authority.
d. There should be no interruption of duty without such being explained: and all cases of fine, suspension, degradation, or other punishment should be noted, with reasons there-fore and the authority for the punishment.
e. In cases where the service rendered was partly in the education department and partly in other departments the services in other departments should be verified.

f. When an officer is reinstated 'in the same or another appointment, the question of past service being counted as qualifying for pension should be settled immediately; and in case an officer's earlier service had been in a grant-in-aid institution, the question whether such service is to count for pension should also be settled by a reference to proper authority.

g. In case of change of appointment, the nature of the change such as transfer, promotion and degradation, should be yearly stated.

h. Service, register should not be handed over to the person concerned then they are transferred from one school to another but should always be sent to the officer responsible for the custody of the registers.

i. The headmaster who is charged with the custody of service registers is personally answerable for their correctness and up-to-date ness. It is therefore the concern of every headmaster to see that all the service registers in his custody are free from faults of omission and erroneous insertion. He should make a certificate of verification every year; and this item of work should not be treated as a matter of routine.

10) Stock Register if School Equipment
There is one more record of major importance of which mention should be made here. It is the register of all moveable property, in the school. The headmaster, as mentioned earlier, is the custodian of all school equipment. It is his duty to maintain a general stock register, in which articles of furniture, teaching appliances and other articles of a permanent (none-perishable) nature purchased from time to time should be noted, together with particulars as to the date of purchase or supply, number, value and date of payment. The headmaster should check the stock of equipment at least once a year, preferably at the end of school year and verification should be recorded in the stock register, with explanation for difference in stock, if any, and action taken thereon. Checking of furniture is simplified if separate inventories of articles of each room are prepared and put in the respective rooms and kept up-to-date. The teachers in charge of the rooms would be enabled thereby to keep a check on the property there.

Nothing should be struck off the register without the permission of the officer competent to grant it. If any articles are damaged and can be repaired and used, they should be repaired without delay with the sanction of the competent authority; and if damaged articles are irreparable and unserviceable, steps should be taken to dispose them of and to credit the sale proceeds to government or school funds, as the case may be.
1.4 Activities

1. Enlist how many types of school records are available in your school.

2. Discuss with your principal how many registers are to be used for different functions while keeping in view those registers discussed in unit.

1.5 Exercise

1. Discuss the need and essential requirement of school records.

2. Critically examine how many kinds of school records are to be used at secondary level in Pakistan.

Bibliography


ADMINISTRATIVE AND SUPERVISORY STRUCTURE IN PAKISTAN

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Introduction

As per constitution of 1973, education on the concurrent list therefore, federal government is responsible for the formulation of policies and plans in consultation with Education departments of Provinces. The Provinces have sole power to implement the National Education policies but under the devolution Power Programme the education has become the subject of District Governments.

Pakistan is a Federal State. At the centre there is Federal Government which comprise of several Ministers and Divisions. Each Ministry or Division is headed by a Secretary who in turn is responsible to Minister. Ministers make up the Cabinet which is headed by the Prime Minister of Pakistan.

Almost a similar pattern of administrative structure exists at the Provincial level. A large number of ministries at the centre have their counterparts in provinces which are known as departments. Each Provincial Department is headed by a secretary who is in case of Centre is responsible to a Minister.

For the purpose of administration the Provinces are divided into a number of administrative Districts. A District is headed by District Nazim. Districts are further divided into Tehsils. Administration of education in the country is generally organized according to the above administration headed either at the Provincial or district levels. The medium and lower educational administrators are also placed at District and Tehsils levels.

The system Government is centralized as decision making of higher levels concentrates at the Federal and Provincial levels.

The structure and the role of Minister depends upon the sectors. Tasks common to most ministers include preparation of policy statements for the sector; preparation of natal lines, standards, task targets etc.; preparation of the national plans and annual development and recurring budget in cooperation with the Planning Commission and the Ministry of Finance. They also have liaison with districts in relations with appropriate para-statal or quasi-Government bodies; matters of purely sectoral nature but of national importance.
Objectives

After studying this Unit of the course, students should be able to:
1. Have a clearer picture of the administrative structure of education at Federal, Provincial and District levels.
2. Identify the major functions and responsibilities of various types of educational administration.
3. To visualize the jobs and positions of different levels of education personnel individually as well as in relation to others in the wings of the Ministry of Education.
4. Compare the functions and responsibilities of the Federal Ministry of Education and Provincial Education Departments.
5. Appreciate and evaluate the roles of the various positions in Education system.
6. Evaluate the effectiveness of the roles of various positions in Education system.
7. Identify the training and professional requirements for various jobs in educational administration.
1.1 Ministry of Education

The Ministry of Education is the head of central organization for formulating National Education Policies and work for the co-ordination of the functions of the provincial Education Departments.

The Ministry of Education is headed by the federal minister for Education who is a member of the cabinet, lie represents Ministry of the parliament or similar bodies at the federal level submits cases to the Prime minister for approval of important matters and keep him informed of the developments in national education. His office is in the Education secretariat. The education Secretariat consists of the office of Education Secretary and a number of sections usually known as Wings or Cells.

1.2 Education Secretariat

The Federal Education Secretary is the Chief Executive of the Education Secretariat. He is also responsible for the administration of the Education Secretariat and for implementation of government’s decisions and policies relating to education. In the performance of his duties the Education Secretary is assisted by a number of Joint Secretaries/Joint Education Advisers, each one of them is a head of certain wing of the Ministry of Education. Depending upon the needs of the Secretariat and government’s policies about education. At present the Education Secretariat comprises on the following Wings.

i. Administrative Wing
   The Administration wing is responsible for general administration of the Education Secretariat. Its functions include: recruitments and management of personnel; rules and regulations of Secretariat; maintenance of personal accounts and other records. The wing is also responsible for major areas, problems and requirements of other sections and matters relating to educational staff in Pakistan missions-abroad.

ii. Planning and Development Wing
   The Planning and development wing is concerned with matters relating to planning of education at all levels. Its major functions are in the areas of project identification and appraisal: preparation of prospective and Five Year Plan; annual development programme processing of educational schemes and analysis of educational data, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of development' plans and projects. The autonomous body looked after by this wing is the Academy of Educational Planning and Management, Islamabad.
iii. **Primary and Non-formal Education Wing**

Primary and Non-formal Education Wing is responsible for evaluation of national educational projects and keeps liaison with research institution in the country. The wing is also responsible for implementation and monitoring of educational projects such as third education project and Pakistan primary education project. Chief Executive’s Literacy Commission which is authorized to this wing is working to increase literacy rate and provide facilities for basic education of adult literates.

iv. **Federal Institution Wing**

Responsibilities of the Institutions Wings relate to the Federal Government Educational Institutions located within the country and abroad except those located in cantonments and army garrisons. The wing also concerns itself with the administrative matters of attached departments, i.e., (i) Federal Directorate of Education, Islamabad and (ii) Department of Libraries, subordinate office, i.e. Federal College of Education, Islamabad, and autonomous bodies like Federal Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education, Islamabad, Sindh Madrassh-tul-Islam Karachi, and Inter-Board Committee of Chairmen, Islamabad.

v. **Learned Bodies, Sports and Welfare Wing**

The Learned Bodies, Sports and Welfare, wing has responsibilities in the areas of scouting and Girl-Guides sectors and sports sector. The specific functions of this Wing include: scout and girl-guide programmes, students and teachers welfare, awards such as special medals, scholarships,
development and supervisions of sports programmes and activities at federal and at provincial levels. The wing also deals with autonomous bodies like Iqbal Academy, National Book Foundation, Urdu Science Board Lahore and Pakistan Academy of Letters, Islamabad, etc.

vi. **Curriculum Wing:**
The Curriculum Wing is the national agency responsible for matters relating to national curriculum policy (Curriculum Planning and Implementation) from class I to 12 and teachers training. The Wing is also concerned with the development of text-books in the country and coordinates the in-service teacher education and training programmes.

vii. **Science and Technical Education Wing**
The Science and Technical Education Wing's functions include development, construction and maintenance of Federal Government Educational Institutions concerned with teaching of science and technology like National Institute of Science and Technical Education, who is responsible for the promotion of science education and training, Planning and monitoring science and technology programme from Grade-I to Ph.D. level, preparation of programmes and guidelines for improvement of science and technical education, coordinator of the work of provincial education departments in the areas of technical and vocational education and technical teacher training. Institutions and bodies under science and technical education wing include National teachers training institute, Islamabad, Polyphonic Institute for Women, Islamabad, National museum of Science and technology, Lahore and National educational equipment centre, Lahore.

viii. **International Cooperation Wing**
The international cooperation (IC) wing deals with matters relating to admission of foreign students in Pakistan and Pakistani students studying abroad, scholarship exchange programme, training of Pakistan is abroad, liaisoning with international educational and cultural organization foreign assistance consultancy and fellowship, cooperation and implementation of UNESCO programme concerning to Pakistan. Pakistan National Commission for UNESCO works in close liaison with IC Wing.

a) **Higher Education and Research Wing**
The higher education and research wing deals with matters concerning University Grants commission and Universities in the country and research at institutions of higher learning. Other institutions under the umbrella of higher education include; centres of excellence in various
fields, Pakistan study centres at various universities, and area study centres at universities.

As stated earlier each of the above wings or cells are headed by Joint educational advisor who is responsible to the Secretary Education. A number of Deputy Secretaries each of whom is responsible for certain specific jobs within a cell assist the Joint Educational advisor in the performance of his functions, whereas deputy education advisors are assisted by assistant educational advisors and other subordinate staff. Number of deputy educational advisors attached with a Joint Educational advisor vary from wing to wing depending upon the responsibilities of each attached with each deputy educational advisor.

1.3 Provincial Development of Education

Pakistan is a Federation of four Provinces-Punjab, Sindh, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa and Baluchistan. According to the constitution, education is on concurrent list, therefore policies are formulated at national level i.e. Federal level and implemented at provincial level but under devolution of power programme, education has become the subject of district government and provincial government is only responsible to facilitate and coordinate the district government for effective implementation of national and provincial education policies and programme respectively.

The Provincial Departments of education are counterparts of the Federal Ministry of Education. In provinces, ministers for education are in charge of the Provincial Ministries of Education. Within a province the Minister for Education is responsible for policy matters concerning the department. He conducts the business of the department in the Provincial Assembly, submits cases to the Chief Minister for seeking his approval on important decisions. The minister keeps the provincial Governor informed about important developments in the field of education.

Secretariats of Education
The Provincial Secretariats of Education serve as counterparts of the federal Ministry of Education. Within each province, respective Education Department functions include.

i. Promotion of the cause of general, technical and scientific education.
ii. Formulation of educational policies and coordination of educational activities for the province
iii. Implementation of the educational policies, formulated by the Federal Government
Although in essence the purpose and functions of Departments of Education are essentially similar in all the provinces, but depending upon the local conditions and needs they differ to some extent and vary from each other in organization and management structures. In the following pages organizational management structure of the Departments of Education of each of the four provinces are given separately.

i. Department of Education, Government of Punjab

The subject allocated to the Education department, Government of the Punjab include:

i) School, College and university education,
ii) Coordination of schemes for higher studies abroad
iii) Grant of scholarships,
iv) Education of handicaps,
v) Promotion of scientific research, art and literature,
vi) Production and distribution of education and scientific films,
vii) Libraries,
viii) Service matters, except those entrusted to services and General Administration Department and district Governments.

See organizational chart of the Department of Education, Government of the Punjab.

i) Director Public Instruction (Colleges) Secondary Education and Elementary Education.

a) They advise the Provincial Government in the formulation of education policies relating to college education secondary school education and elementary education respectively and also see that the approved policies are implemented in their true sense and spirit.

b) They assess the need of the masses in respect to opening of new colleges, secondary schools elementary and primary schools and improvement of existing institutions in the province. They also direct for the preparation of development schemes/plans for approval of the Government.

c) They also direct for the preparation of annual budget regarding expenditure of college, school education and ensure that they are carefully and economically operated.

d) They guide the heads of subordinate offices and institutions by paying personal visits for the removal of defects and bottlenecks in the smooth administration and functioning of the institutions.
e) They are responsible for the effective enforcement of administrative, financial and discipline rules in institutions and their subordinate offices.

ii) **Director Curriculum Research & Development Centre**

   His responsibilities are as follows:
   a) Control and supervision of the Curriculum Research and Development Centre.
   b) Planning of research projects.
   c) Planning of curriculum development
   d) Supervision of research projects, curriculum formulation and development by Deputy Directors and Research Associates.
   e) Planning and control of the financial aspects of the Curriculum Research and Development Centre.
   f) Planning and control of the financial aspects of the Curriculum Research and Development Centre
   g) Liaison with Ministry of Education. Provincial Curriculum centres. Universities, Boards of Secondary Education Directorate of staff development, Provincial Institute of Teacher Education, Text-Book Board, UNICEF and Punjab Education Department.
   h) Administration of the curriculum Research and Development Centre.

iii) ** Autonomous Bodies**

   Following are the autonomous Bodies which are under the Department of Education:
   i) There are Six universities in the provinces plus there are four general universities like the University of the Punjab, Lahore; the Bahauddin Zakarya. University, Multan, The Islamia University, Bahawalpur, Fatima Jinnah Women University, Rawalpindi and two professional universities. The University of Engineering & Technology Lahore and Texila Rawalpindi. These Universities function as autonomous bodies of higher learning in the province.

   ii) **Boards of Intermediate & Secondary Education**

   At present there, are eight Boards of Intermediate and Secondary Education at Rawalpindi, Sargodha, Gujranwala, Lahore, Multan, Faisalabad, Dera Ghazi Khan and Bahawalpur. The exclusive function of the Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education is to hold Secondary School Certificate and Intermediate Examination and award certificates. They also hold
examinations from Adeeb, Aalim and Faazil certificates in Urdu, Persian and Arabic languages.

Following are functions of the Boards of Education and other autonomous bodies as reflected in the responsibilities of heads of these organizations:

iii) Board of Technical Education
There is one Board of Technical Education in the Punjab. Its main responsibility is to hold examination for the associate engineers, diplomas in various technologies and SSC Examination. It also formulates curriculum for these examinations.

iv) Text-Book Board
The Punjab text book Board is responsible for the printing of text books for class 1-I

v) District Education Officers (Male-Female)
a) Duties of Drawing and disbursing Officer in respect of his/her own office.
b) Financial control of the budget of primary, Middle and High Schools in the District.
c) Planning and development work of the district.
d) To assist/guide the department in respect of the academic matters.
e) To attend all other matter as District Head of the education sector i.e. college education secondary education and elementary education respectively.

vi) Deputy Education Officers
They assist the District Education officers in all matters and inspection of schools.

vii) Assistant Education Officer
They perform the following duties: inspection, supervision, and guidance of primary Schools.

viii) Director Staff Development
He arranges refresher courses for guiding the teachers in the new methods of teaching. He is an appointing authority in respect of incumbents in NPS-1 to NPS-15 in respect of his office. He controls
the teaching staff in elementary colleges. He also arranges training programmes for the heads of institutions and district and Tehsils heads of education department.

ix) **Deputy Director (Audio Visual Aids)**
To help promote the cause of Education through Audio Visual Aid.

Organizational Chart of Department of Education in Punjab

- **Minister of Education**
- **Secretary of Education**

- **Attached Department, Director**
  - Public Instruction (Colleges)
  - Public Instruction (Schools)
  - Technical Education
  - Sports and Physical Education
  - General Laboratories
  - Curriculum Research Center
  - Staff Development

- **Autonomous Bodies**
  - Universities

- **Other Institutions**
  - Director, EMIS
  - Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education
  - Board of Technical Education
  - Punjab Text Book Board
  - Cadet Colleges Lawrence College
  - Institute of Education and Research
ii) Department of Education Government of Sindh

i) Secretary Education
In Principle, the functions of Secretary of Education and Government of Sind are same as that of Punjab or any other provinces of the country. However, depending upon the structure and peculiar needs and traditions of the province, the Secretary’s responsibilities would be laid down as follow:

i) Administrative Matters
As chief executive of education secretariat this administrative functions include; meetings with Deputy Secretaries, attending to the matters relating to accounts, staff, development projects, and policies etc.

ii) Professional Matters
As professional leader of Directorates, Boards and Bureaus, the Secretary holds meetings with Directors of Education, heads of the Boards and Bureaus. Principals of Colleges, Vice Chancellors etc. on issues relating to academic facilities and services of the institutions.

iii) Ceremonial/Political Matters.
As representative of the Governor of the province and head of the entire educational system in the province, the secretary has the responsibilities of meetings with Governor, Chief Secretary and other Secretaries, external visitors, of crucial interest to education and attending functions and ceremonies.

iv) Directors of Education (School Education and College Education,)
There are two Directors of Education (Schools) and (Colleges) education respectively in the province, each one of them is administrative head of a region. Each director has the responsibilities for (lie direction, dimension and quality of primary, middle and high school education as well as adult literacy and rural education programmes. The director is acceptable to the secretary Education and the provincial government for overall development of school education in his region.
The job of the director of school education focuses on the following.
   a) Provision, promotion and maintenance of good quality school education in the region.
   b) Ensuring proper development of all persons (pupils and stall) in school education in the region irrespective of sex, social background of creed.
   c) Promotion of adult community literacy in the region.
d) Overall control of school education and college education, technical education respectively

e) General administration of the services and facilities for school education.

f) Supervision of personnel instruction and facilities improvement in school and college education.

vi) **District Education Officer**
Within region the District Education Officer (D.E.O) is responsible for the administration of school education in a District. There are separate district Education Officers for boys and girls schools, but their functions are identical. The D.E.O is about the almost focal and strategic post in respect of primary, middle and high school education in the district. He is responsible to the Director of School education of the Region for the effective organization and a demonstration of the District education office and for development of primary, middle and high schools in the district. In addition, the D.E.O is responsible for supervision and control of all stall in the district as well as for the effective utilization of all resources (funds, personnel, equipment, buildings, lands, educational programmes etc.), available or provided for school education in the District.

vi) **Deputy District Education Officer**
The Primary functions of a Deputy District Education Officer (D.D.E.O) depend to a large extent on the specific duties assigned to him/her by the D.E.O. There may be more than one D.D.E.O in a District.

vii) **Sub-Divisional Education Officer**
Within each District there are number of Sub-Divisional Education Officers (S.D.E.Os). The S.D.E.Os are responsible within their respective sub-division for instructional and staff supervision in the schools. His/her supervisory powers extend to the middle and high school as D.E.O directs. In addition, S.D.E.O. has the full responsibility for administration and management of sub-divisional education officers. The S.D.E.O assists the D.E.O on all matters pertaining to the promotion of school education in the district of which his/her sub-division is a part.
iii) Department of Education Government of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa

Introduction
As it is in case of other provinces the secretary Education is the administrative head of the provincial Education Department. In the performance of his functions lie is assisted by two additional secretaries. Deputy Secretaries, Chief Planning Officer and a number of Section Officers.

The organizational chart of the Department of Education, Government of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa shows the administrative jurisdiction and scope of the Department of Education.

Unlike Punjab and Sindh, the Directors of education of school and college education are responsible for the organization of the public instructions and their supervision in the whole province. Each of the Director of Education is the head of his respective Department i.e. School Education or College Education. He is responsible to the Government of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa through Education Secretary.

1. **Director of Education (College)**
The Director of Education (Colleges) is responsible for overall administrative control of the Directorate of College Education and institutions in the Province. In the performance of his job the Director is assisted by a Deputy Director of Colleges. The Deputy Director (Colleges) assists him in the matters of administration and planning concerning the colleges in the province.

2. **Director of Education (School)**
The Director of Education (Schools) as it is evident from the organizational chart, the Directorate of School Education has a wider jurisdiction. In the performance of his duties, the Director is assisted by Executive District Officer Education and a number of other officers.

3. **District Education Officer**
The District Education Officers are responsible for the efficient operation of the District Education Office and for the success of the supervisory programmes. Their authority shall extend over the secondary schools and the sub-divisional education officers of their District.

The District Education Officer is responsible for the effective delegation of responsibilities so that administrative duties are carried out by DDEO,
ADEO, and ministerial staff. They pay attention to only essential paper work and most of the time they spend on the supervision and providing professional guidance to the teachers.

The District Education Officer normally visits the schools for minimum 3-days out of 6 days each week when the schools are in operation. The remaining three days should be sufficient to attend to the duties in the office if delegation of responsibilities is effectively carried out.

4. **Deputy District Education Officer**

If allowed the Deputy District Officer plans programmes for supervision of the schools and carries out the programmes in accompany with A.D.E.O or alone under the guidance of the D.E.O. The DDEO assists the Assistant District Officers in the performance of their office duties.
iv) **Department of Education; Government of Balochistan**

i) **Introduction**
As compare to other provinces the Department of Balochistan has a comparatively smaller administrative sector. However, the functions of various tiers of educational management in the province are more or less the same as in other provinces. The department of Education comprises of secretariat of education and its components which include Directorate of College Education. Directorate of School Education, Bureau of curriculum and extension centres. The organizational charts of the Department of Education will help the reader to know the administrative setup and organizational functions of the department of education of Balochistan. However, brief description of some important administrative officers is given as follows:
2. **Minister of Education**  
   Same as for other provinces.

3. **Secretary Education**  
   Same as for other provinces.

4. **Director of Education (Colleges)**  
   The Director of Education Colleges is directly under the Secretary Education and is responsible for overall administration and supervision of College Education (male and female) in the province. Technical Education is also being supervised by the Director Colleges. Education development and planning is initiated by the Director colleges which are finalized at the government level. In the Directorate the Director Colleges assisted by a number of Deputy Director and other officers whose offices.

   In the field, Colleges are controlled and supervised by their respective principals. They are responsible for academic and overall institutional discipline of their colleges and see that the work of imparting education to the students goes smoothly.

5. **Director of Education (Schools)**  
   The Director of Education (Schools) is directly under the Secretary Education and is responsible for overall control and supervision of education (male and female). Development programmes are initiated by the Director of Education and finalized at Government level. In the performance of the function of his office he is assisted by Deputy Directors, Assistant Directors, Registrar, and Department of Examination. Accounts Officer, Administrative Offices in the Directorate while District Education Officer, Headmasters, Assistant District Education Officer assist him in the field.

   The Deputy Director of the Directorate are responsible for supervision and administration of various branches tinder them. They are assisted by Assistant Officers in performance of their duties.

   In the field, the boys schools from Primary to High Schools in each district are under the control of District Education Officers. For administration and supervision of Girls Schools Divisional Education Officer (Female) have been appointed in each Division. They are responsible for supervision of Primary, Middle and High Schools in their jurisdiction. In the discharging of their duties they are assisted by Assistant District Education Officers.
v) **District Government System**

As per devaluation of power programme education is become the subject of district Government who's head is called Zila Nazim.

1. **Functions and powers of the Zila Nazim**

   1. The functions and powers of the Zila Nazim shall be to:
      
      a) Provide vision for the district-wide development, leadership and direction for efficient functioning of the District Government;
      
      b) Develop with the assistance of the District Administration strategies and time frame for accomplishment of the relevant goals approved by the Zila council;
      
      c) Perform functions relating to law and order in the district;
      
      d) Ensure implementation of the functions decentralized to the District government;
      
      e) Oversee formulation and execution of the annual development plan, delivery of services and functioning of the District Government;
      
      f) Present proposal to the Zila Council for approval of budget for district Government, Zila council and intra-district fiscal transfers;
      
      g) Maintain administrative and financial discipline in the District Government;
      
      h) Present tax proposals to the Zila Council;
      
      i) Present report on the performance of the District Government in person to the Zila Council at least twice year;
      
      j) Preside over the meetings of the Zila Mushawarat Committee;
      
      k) Take charge, organize and prepare for relief activities in disasters or natural calamities;
l) Authorize officers of the District Government to sign documents on its behalf;

m) Initiate inspections of Tehsil Municipal Administration, Town Municipal Administration and Union Administration in the functions district pursuant to section 135;

n) Establish and supervise the working of the Internal Audit Office;

o) Issue executive orders to the District Coordination Officer and Executive District office for discharge to the District Government and to the district Police Officer for law and order;

p) To represent District Government on public and ceremonial occasions; and

q) Perform any other function which may be assigned to him by the government.

2. **District Coordination Officer**

   In every district, the Government shall appoint a District Coordination Officer who shall be civil servant of the Federation or of the Province, as far as possible in Basic Scale 20.

   Provided that in a city district, the District Coordination Officer may be a civil servant of the federation of province in Basic Scale 21.

   The District coordination office shall be coordinating head of the district administration and shall:

   a) Ensure that the business of the district coordination group of offices is carried out in accordance with the laws for the time being in force.

   b) Co-ordinate the activities of the groups of offices for coherent planning, synergistic development, effective and efficient functioning of the district administration;

   c) Exercise general supervision over programmes, projects, services and activities of the District Administration

   d) Coordinate flow of information required by the Zila Council for performance of its functions under this ordinance.

   e) Act as principal accounting officer of the district government and be responsible to the public accounts committee of the provincial assembly.

   f) Act and perform functions of collector under sections 54, 68, 70(2), 71, 72, 92, 93 rule I of order XXI, order XL and for similar other provinces of the code of civil procedure 1908 (Act V of 1908);

   g) Assist the Zila Nazim in accomplishment of administrative and financial discipline and efficiency in the discharge of the functions
assigned to district administration;

h) Prepare a report on the implementation of development plans of the district government for presentation to the Zila Council in its annual budget session; and

i) Initiate the performance evaluation reports of the executive district officers and should be countersigning officer of such reports of the district officers initiated by the executive district officer.

Explanation: For the purpose of this section, the expression coordinating head means the authority to call for review and assess the performance of the groups of offices individually or collectively, and give directions for taking actions or measures for improving efficiency, service delivery and achievement of goals assigned in the approved plans of the district Government.

Wherein, the opinion of a district coordination officer an order of the Zila Nazim is motivated or unlawful, he may seek recourse in writing to the Local Government Commission with a copy thereof to the Zila Nazim, and the decision of the commission in the matter shall be final and binding.

4. Functions and Powers of Executive District Officer:
The functions and powers of the executive district officer shall be to:

a) Ensure that the business of the group of offices under his administrative control is carried out in accordance with law and the rules and the human and material resources placed at his disposal are optimally utilized to improve governance;

b) Coordinate and supervise the activities of the offices and ensure efficient service delivery by the functionaries under his administrative control:

c) Supply information to the Monitoring Committees of the ‘Zila Council and Union Councils.

d) Take appropriate corrective actions based on the information received from Monitoring committees.

e) Enforce relevant Federal Provincial laws and rules, including tax laws;

f) Prepare development plans and propose budgetary allocations for their execution.

g) Implement approved plans and policies:

h) Authorize disbursement of performance bonuses to the employees:

i) Prepare proposals for expenditures necessary for the proper conduct of programme projects services and other activities.

j) Propose relevant by laws on service delivery to the district coordination officer and;
k) Act as departmental accepting officer for his respective group of offices and be responsible to the district accounts committee of the Zila Council.

**District Nazim**

```
+-----------------+    +-----------------+
| D.C.O           |    | EDO (E.M) (Edu) |
|                 |    |                 |
| EDO (D.C) (C.D) |    |                 |
| EDO (Agri)      |    |                 |
| EDO (Health)    |    |                 |
| EDO (F & P) (Revenue) |    |                 |
| EDO (W.S)       |    |                 |
| EDO (E. M) (Edu) |    |                 |
|                 |    | D.D (E. E) (M)  |
|                 |    | D.D (E. E) (F.M) |
|                 |    | D.O (SE)        |
|                 |    | D.O (College)   |
```

DCO  Stands for District Coordination Officer  
EDO  Stands for Executive District Officer  
DC  Stands for District Coordination: Coordination Human Resource Management and Civil Defence.  
Agri  Stands for Agriculture: Agriculture (Extension), livestock, Farm Water Management, Soil Conservation, Soil Fertility, Fisheries and Forests.  
CD  Stands for Community Development: Community Organization, labour, Social Welfare, Sports and Culture, Cooperatives, and Registration office.  
Edu  Stands for Education: Boys Schools, Girls Schools, Technical Education, Colleges, (other than professional) Sports (Education) and Special Education.  
IT  Stands for Information Technology: Information Technology Development Information Technology Promotion and Database.  
Law  Legal advise and; drafting.  
Lit  Stands for Literacy: Literacy Campaigns, continuing Education, and Vocational Education.
EM Stands for Executive Magistracy (excluding for trail functions' Revenue Land Revenue & Estate and Excise Taxation.

1.4 Boards of Secondary and Intermediate Education

Boards of Intermediate and Secondary Education (IISEs) and universities are the examining bodies. Following certificates/diplomas/degrees are awarded after the completion of certain level of education: Secondary School Certificate (after 10 years waling); Higher Secondary School Certificate (after 12 years schooling); Bachelor's degree (after 14 years schooling); and Master's degree (after 16 years schooling). Universities confer M.Phil, d Ph.D. degrees on the candidates who complete certain requirements of the concerned level of studies.

These certificates/degrees are awarded after completion of general stream.

There is a public examination system in the country. Some boards and universities are following the conventional system of awarding certificates and degrees on the basis of: Third division (33-44%); second division (45-59%); and First division % and above).

Some boards and universities have introduced grades as: A (70% and above); B (60 -69%); C (50-59%); D (40-49%); E (33% to 39%); and F (Fail-Below 33 %). At the same time there are institutions in private sector preparing the students for ‘O’ level and level examinations of British Education System.

Accreditation of higher education is determined by the University Grants Commission, Ministry of Education; Higher Education Commission (Accreditation and equivalence of school education (secondary and higher secondary level) is determined by Inter Board Committee of Chairmen (IBCC), an autonomous organization in the Ministry Education.

1.5 National Bureau of Curriculum and Text Book

The first formal exercise in curriculum development was undertaken as a result of the Report of the Commission on National Education 1959. The Commission analyzed the situation pertaining to curriculum development and reforms and made useful commendations. Pursuant to the recommendations of the
Commission the Ministry appointed two Curriculum Committees for Primary and Secondary Education in 1960.
In the mid sixties the new concept of integrated and modernized science courses was introduced. This effort was initially confined to science education but was later carried on into other subject areas also. It was a significant contribution made by a group of scientists and curriculum specialists that they had succeeded in preparing the people mentally for change.

Curriculum development was never visualized as a distinct and specialized function. The entire curriculum activity was done through committees which were created for a specific purpose at a specific time and were dissolved as soon as the task was over. No permanent committee network was set up to advise and evaluate the curriculum development and implementation. It is in this context, that need to create the National Bureau of Curriculum and Textbooks (NBCT) at Federal level was felt for coordinating the activities of various committees and centre. Similar organizations at provincial level were also established. The existing Curriculum Wing of the Ministry of Education is, in fact, a developed form of the National Bureau of Curriculum and Textbooks.

After the promulgation of 1973 Constitution the Curriculum, Syllabi, Planning Policy, Centres, of Excellence, Standards of Education and Islamic Education were placed on the Concurrent Legislative List of the Federal Government. This was a significant departure from the previous position when the education was an entirely provincial subject.

Whenever it is intended to frame or revise a curriculum, the Curriculum Wing of the Ministry of Education sends the proposals to the provincial curriculum bureau/centres. These bureau/centres develop or revise the curriculum in the light of frame-work provided by the Curriculum Wing of the Ministry of Education. In the provincial centres, the revision or framing of curriculum is done by the committees. These committees comprise subject specialists and persons equipped with pedagogical skills. The draft curriculum is sent to the Curriculum Wing for their consideration and approval. In the Curriculum Wing the draft curriculum on each subject received from provincial bureau/centres is put up to the concerned National Review Committee. This committee is usually constituted for each subject and comprises the nominees of the provincial governments and subject specialists considered suitable for the purpose. The curriculum finalized by the National Review Committee is then put up to the Federal Education Secretary for approval. The approved curriculum is sent to the Provincial Textbook Boards for production of textbooks.
The Curriculum Wing works in close collaboration with the provincial curriculum bureau/centres, the education departments, the Textbook Boards, the Boards of Intermediate and Secondary Education and other research organizations such as Institutes of Education and Research in the provinces. In fact the Curriculum Centres in the provinces are associated centres of the Curriculum Wing of the Federal Ministry of Education. Curriculum Wing also works in close collaboration with other international agencies. This wing is also an associated centre of the UNESCO’s Asian Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID), Bangkok. This facilitates the flow of information not only between these two agencies but also with other foreign agencies through UNESCO. This wing participates in curriculum development activities of other countries tinder various bilateral educational and cultural agreements.

1.6 Education Code

Education code deals with the existing rules and regulations of educational institutions. It is applied uniformly in all the institutions to maintain standards and discipline in these institutions. Following chapters have been included in the code.

1. Definitions and classifications.
2. General rules
3. Fee in Government institutions
4. Rules and regulations for the award of internal Merit Scholarships
5. Rules of Recognition and Registration of Privately Managed Institutions
7. Grants to-local councils .
8. Teachers certificates and Diplomas

The details of each -chapter are given below some samples of different forms being used in institutions are also included in the code.

CHAPTER I
DEFINITIONS AND CLASSIFICATIONS

Definitions and Classifications

CHAPTER II
GENERAL RULES

Physical facilities and location
Repairs
Supply of equipment
Minimum equipment
Removal of property from stock register of an institution
College Council
General duties of the Head of an Institution
Class promotion in schools
Institutional funds
Fine for breach of school discipline
Expulsion
Attendance of school and college teachers
Work load of college teachers
Co-curricular duties
Private tuition
Postal Work
School Hours
Time Table
Recording of attendance
Absence fine
Grant of leave
Monitor
Proctorial Board
Number of students in a class
Payment of dues
College dues
Age limit
Admission test
First Admission
Transfer Certificate
Presentation of candidates for Public Examinations
Recording of age
Mis-representation of age
Final school certificate
Vacations in schools and colleges
Admission to schools and colleges
Re-admission after failure
Duration of teaching period
Holidays
Registers and books to be maintained
Conduct Register
Uniform
Ban on use of tobacco
Arms and ammunition
Physical training
Curriculum and Text Books
Boarding Houses and Hostels

202
Dormitories
Resident Superintendent
Duties of the Superintendent
Medical attendance
Rules for the Superintendent and Boarders
Recreation
Hostel record
Morning assembly and Prayers
Religious education
Liability to inspection
Reports and returns
Parent-Teacher Associations

CHAPTER III
FEES IN GOVERNMENT INSTITUTIONS

Tuition fee in colleges
Half rate fee in colleges
Entrance fee in colleges
Tuition fee in schools
Hostel fee in colleges and schools
En-trance fee
Brother or sister concession
Scholarship holders
Funds
Dues to be paid

CHAPTER IV
RULES AND REGULATIONS FOR THE AWARD OF INFERNAL MERIT SCHOLARSHIPS

General Rules
Controlling Authority
Award of Scholarships
Income Limit
Honorary Scholars
Domicile
Two scholarships
Period for which scholarships can be drawn
Cancellation of scholarship
Withdrawal of scholarships
Transfer of scholarship
Re-award of scholarship
Allocation of scholarship funds and disbursement
Relaxation of rules and regulations
School and college scholarships
Post-graduate scholarships
Technical education scholarships
Instructions for Middle Scholar scholarships
Distribution for Arts and Science subjects

CHAPTER V
RULES OF RECOGNITION AND
REGISTRATION OF PRIVATETY MANAGED INSTITUTIONS

Part I–Reorganization
Recognition
Recognizing Authority
Conditions of recognition of schools
Provisional recognition
Refusal of recognition
Obligation of the management
Dispensary
Addition of classes or subjects
Withdrawal of recognition
Restoration of recognition
Lapse of recognition
Appeal against refusal or withdrawal of recognition
Residence of students
Conditions of recognition of hostels
Hostel record
Application for recognition
Lapse of recognition of hostel
Branch hostels

Part II–Registration ofPrivately Managed Educational Institutions
Definition
Authority
Procedure
Conditions
Powers
Refusal and withdrawal of Certificate of Registration
CHAPTER VI
GRANTS-IN-AID RULES FOR INSTITUTIONS

Purpose of grants
Grants admissible to recognized institutions only
Application for Maintenance Grant
Government’s right to apportion money and to determine the number of schools
in the area eligible for grant
Sanction of the Director
Sanction of Government required in cases provided for
Sources of grants and mode of payment
Correspondence
Maintenance and development grants defined
Basis of calculation
Fifty per cent grant admissible to outstanding institutions
Grant to be sanctioned for financial year
Conditions for maintenance grants
Partial refusal of grants to an institution
Application for grants necessary in all cases
Accuracy of acquaintance rolls of teachers
Check on excessive expenditure of an institution
Suspension or reduction or withdrawal grant
Powers of Government regarding grants
Grant for special purposes
Approved, expenditure in respect of schools
Items of approved expenditure
Rates subject to revision
Approved items of expenditure—Boarding House
Government grants for primary schools
Government grants for middle and high schools
Local bodies receiving grants to observe rules of the Code
Inspection staff
Approved expenditure described in respect of special Institutions
Approved expenditure on establishment in Intermediate and Degree colleges
Contingencies
CHAPTER VII
GRANTS TO LOCAL COUNCILS
Educational responsibilities Grants
Observance of rules
Inspection

CHAPTER VIII
TEACHERS CERTIFICATES AND DIPLOMAS
Departmental certificates
Conduct of examinations
Issue of certificates
Admission to professional courses
Endorsement
Equivalence of other certificates not recognized
Certificate may be refused
Duplicate certificate
1.7 Exercise

Before you go over to the next unit, sure that you can answer the following questions.

1. What type of relationship does exist between the Federal Ministry of Education and provincial Education Departments?

2. What are the functions of the Federal and provincial Education Ministers?

3. What are the similarities and differences among the four provincial Education Department Secretariats?

4. What are various Wings (Sections) of the Ministry of Education? Outline their functions.

5. What are the functions of director Public Instruction, Schools and Colleges in Punjab?

6. At district level, who are the different officers in each of the four provinces?
Bibliography


UNIT-9

EVALUATION MANAGEMENT SYSTEM

Written by: Dr. Muhammad Iqbal Chaudhry
Reviewed by: Dr. Col. Manzoor Arif
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Introduction

The major purpose of all schools and other educational institutions should be to contribute to the development of a dynamic, self-renewing society by assuming a major role in preparing the citizens, and especially the children and youth, to participate in and contribute effectively and constructively to the orderly development of that society. Because schools and educational systems have been so important in the development of this nation that they have always been of special interest and concern to the citizens. The schools and educational systems especially have been informally appraised and evaluated, commended and criticized from the beginning. Every social system needs the insights that can be derived from periodic or continuing evaluation if it is to thrive and continue to contribute to the improvement of society. But such evaluations should be carefully planned and conducted and should not based on unstated beliefs and assumptions, which may result in conclusions that cannot be supported, by valid evidence. So evaluation requires the development and use of systematic and defensible procedures to determine the value and appropriateness of goals, policies, functions, procedures and relationships of a social systems, systematic evaluation is essential for improving the management system.

Objective

After studying this unit students will be able:
1. To understand the need and importance of evaluation in management.
2. To describe the system of evaluation.
3. To understand the criteria of evaluation.
4. To improve the school management system through evaluation.
1.1 Need and Importance of Evaluation in Management

Evaluation is often overlooked in the day-to-day affairs of the school system. In reality, the ongoing evaluation of programmes, personnel and activities may be one of the more important aspects of the quality of effort being extended by the organization.

Programmes are mandated by a variety of mechanisms: by state law, by state board of education rules, by local policy, by graduation requirements, by federal law, and by the need of the students. As programmes are developed for a particular clientele, they must be delivered to that clientele and then evaluated to see if they (the programmes) accomplished what the planners intended. All too often, educators initiate a programme an it's left to divine judgment to determine its, effectiveness.

In this day of accountability, of wise use of scarce resources, and of increasing competition for the local and state tax dollar, it is important that evaluation efforts should be initiated and maintained in order to justify programmes and budgets. Especially as one considered the implications of site-based management (SBM) and all that it entails, the need for a well-ground evaluation process is essential.

Programmes are planned, the evaluation process should begin. The following questions should be examined as a result of the evaluation process:

1. Is the target population being served?
2. Is the programme producing the desired results?
3. Is the programme cost-effective?
4. Is the programme compatible with other programmes?
5. Does the programme support the mission of the school?

The integrity and viability of the planning process is dependent on the capacity of the evaluation design and process to stand alone as an independent function of the organization. Ideally, evaluation, while closely aligned and supportive of planning mechanism, is independent of any other function of the school system. This independence not only allows greater objectivity of process, but it also guarantees that the evaluation of any programme or activity will be accomplished on its own merits and based on its own performance.

The evaluation function is best performed when it is located under the superintendent and not involved in any other function of the school organization. Ideally, the evaluation process gathers data and presents it in such a way that the
decision maker (principal, director, superintendent, board etc.) can interpret the data and decide the subsequent actions required of him/her.

Evaluation is a process of delineating, obtaining and providing useful information for judging decision alternatives (Stufflebeam et A. 197 l, xxv). In other words evaluation is a mechanism for generating data on which decisions can be made. If performed at its most objective level, alternative situations and data can be examined, and the most appealing and productive decision is possible for the person charged with the decision.

1.2 System of Evaluation (CIPP)

Dr. Daniel Stufflebeam of Ohio State University developed CIPP, an acronym for context, input, process and product types of programme evaluations, during the late 1960s and early 1970s. The CIPP model’s relationship to decision making continues to a variety of educational settings throughout the country. According to Stufflebeam’s theory, the four evaluation types serve general decision-making categories, as shown in Figure

a) Context Evaluation

Although four types of programme evaluation are significant in the management of information related to educational programmes and services, an understanding of context evaluation is most important to a practicing school administrator. In general, its importance focuses on three factors, which oftentimes affect the success, or failure of decisions related to school programmes. First, context evaluation serves short and long-range planning decisions.

Planning in many school districts become an academic exercise of exchanging ideas between colleagues, which leads towards re-enforcement like the key decision maker’s position of any one of many issues. For reasons time, lack of know-how (possibly too many staff theoreticians), and commitment (key decision makers threatened), accommodation of the planning process may be brushed aside as an administrative frill, taking organizational energy away from the operational practice of a school district. Secondly, context evaluation is ongoing or continues throughout the life of an educational programme or service. Educational programmes are dynamic in nature and therefore vulnerable to change even after extensive systematic planning. If educational programmes were planned, developed and administered in a vacuum void of people, possibly the importance of the ongoing nature of context evaluation would be minimized. Thirdly, context evaluation continues to provide a reference point or baseline of information designed to examine to initial programme goals and objectives. It allows for a
A close relationship between decisions based on planned goals and objectives and final programme outcome. School administrators have the flexibility to examine initial programme goals and objectives at anytime throughout a programme’s life overlay them on what is presently happening in the programmes and make a decision to continue, stop or redirect the programme and its resources. The result is avoidance or minimizing “after-the-fact” or “post mortem” evaluations of educational programmes services following their completion.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EVALUATION TYPES</th>
<th>DECISION TYPES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Context services</td>
<td>Planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Input services</td>
<td>Structuring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Process services</td>
<td>Implementing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product services</td>
<td>Recycling</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 1.1 Relationship between evaluation types and decision types*

Figure 1.2 lists, in general, the kinds of information a school administrator can expect to be provided through a context evaluation and types of planning activities the information services.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CONTEXT EVALUATION</th>
<th>PLANNING DESIGN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Focusing, gathering and reporting useful information addressing the present and desired program by staff.</td>
<td>Using information provided to generate alternatives addressing the present and desired programmes by staff.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defining the existing setting and identifiable influences (political, economical and sociological)</td>
<td>Analyzing existing needs problems and opportunities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identifying concerns of people reflecting and communicating their values, philosophies and exceptions as individual and in groups.</td>
<td>Studying the degree and outcomes of involvement or participation by parties affected.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recommending goals which are compatible with the setting, acceptable to parties affected and adaptable to further refinement into specific objectives.</td>
<td>Establishing goals and objectives by which programmes outcomes can be accessed through the decision making process.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 1.2 General outline of context evaluation related to planning decision. Context evaluation provides the basis for goals and objectives. It allows planning to proceed predicated on realistic objectives and workable expectations. Context*
analysis allows the decision maker to answer questions related to the how, what, where, and why of a particular situation.

b) **Input Evaluation**

As one moves from context evaluation, the focus shifts from planning decision to allocation of resources in order to meet programme.

Such careful evaluation will provide important data on what is in terms of existing programmes and activities. It also provides a good analysis of the efficacy of existing programmes. If, for example, a schools input analysis shows a great emphasis on highly academic, advanced instructional programmes while the context evaluation identifies a great need for basic skill emphasis, there obviously exists a great discrepancy between what is and what the needs are. This type of input evaluation will permit the building principal to locus his/her resources on the areas of greatest need and reduce inefficient use and waste of scarce resources.

As a result of input evaluation, adjustment in both type and amount of resources, as well as a shifting of resources, is indicated.

c) **Process Evaluation**

Once a course of action has been approved and implementation has begun, process evaluation is necessary to provide periodic feedback to persons responsible for implementing plans and procedures. Process evaluation has three main objectives: the first is to detect or predict defects in the procedural design or its implementation stage, the second is to provide information for programmed decisions, and the third is to maintain a record of the procedure as it occurs (Stufflebeam et al. 1971.229).

Among the strategies to be followed in process evaluation is the continuous monitoring of the potential sources of the failure in the project including interpersonal relationships, communications channels, and adequacy of resources. Another strategy involves the projecting and servicing of programmed decisions to be made by project manager during implementation of the project including the choice of specific schools for particular participation in the project. Still another strategy involves the noting of the main features of the project design, such as the concept to be taught and the amount of discussion to be held using this data to describe what actually takes place. From this comes a determination of whether or not objectives were achieved. Sometimes the lack of meeting an objective is not the fault of the design or the procedure.
It’s important to recognize that the process evaluator(s) rely on both formal and informal data collection procedures. This includes interaction analysis, opened, end-of-the-day reaction sheets, interviews, rating scales, diaries and semantic differential instrument record of staff meetings, programme Evaluation and review technique (PERT) networks, and other devices.

It’s also important to recognize that the process evaluation is a function of how well the context and input evaluations have been performed. The more adequate the context and input evaluation, the less critical is the need for process evaluation, and, conversely, the more poorly developed the context and input evaluations are the demanding and critical is the need for an adequate and through process evaluation.

Process evaluation means the delineation, obtaining and reporting of information as often as project personnel require such information—especially during the early stages of a project.

d) **Product Evaluation**
The fourth type of evaluation is product evaluation. Its purpose is to measure and interpret attainments not only at the end of a programme cycle, but as often as necessary during the project term.

While product evaluation gives an understanding of what is policy setters often use product expectations to establish goals and objectives for particular projects and programmes. The establishment of a product objective or expectation by a board of trustees or board of education certainly adds a dimension to the reality of context, input, and process evaluation.

Traditionally, evaluation meant product evaluation only and context input and process evaluations are variable which must be added to enable an evaluation process that recognizes as many of the disparate components of the total evaluation contents as possible. Stated another way, product expectation is a legitimate policy matter while context, input and process are the tools to be utilized, changed, and adjusted to meet product expectations.

Product evaluation must consider a variety of realities as it is conducted. While the results of product evaluation are relatively precise and straightforward, the context input and process evaluations can reveal important decision data if the policy setters have established the product expectation at a realistic level. Product evaluations can change as a result of adjustment in input or changes in process used.
To summarize, the CIPP model for decision-making provides the best utilization of the data and the most flexible parameters for adjustments while maintaining the integrity of the evaluation process. CIPP also allows for decision alternatives to be explored and for the decision-maker to project cost effectiveness of a particular project. The use of CIPP model can simplify the planning process, while strengthening the result.

1.3 Criteria of Evaluation

A commitment to increasing accountability through managing a programme evaluation does not begin or end at either the building or central office level of a school district’s operation. A proactive, as opposed to a reactive, school district will encourage a multiplicity of programmatic evaluation activities to take place concurrently in all buildings. To organizationally accomplish the task, the central office or evaluation services must be staffed and supported as an integral part of a school district’s line-staff hierarchy (figure 1.3)

The key consideration of the organizational chart is the direct line relationship between the director of evaluation services and the superintendent. The implication is not that the evaluator does not have working relationships with other central office and district administrators, but the evaluator must have the freedom to focus, gather, and retort useful information as close as possible to the individual having ultimate responsibility decisions affecting school district planning and operational processes. The direct relationship between the superintendent and director of evaluation minimizes design problems created by multiple decision-making levels within the school district, specifically those directed at selecting appropriate criteria for judging whether information provided is useful or nice to have.

In order to support financially and philosophically an evaluation services office, the superintendent of schools must trust and have confidence in the information received and used as a basis for decisions effecting the district. Certainly the personal relationships between the superintendent and director of evaluation will be a factor as to whether information provided through a systematic evaluation is used or placed on a shelf to draw dust. Beyond factors of the evaluator’s credibility are other criteria or standards to determining the value of information by the superintendent.
Stufflebeam et al. (1971, 28) identifies five practical criteria in addition to credibility for judging the value of worth of evaluative information:

1. Relevance evaluative data are collected to meet certain purposes, and, the data does not relate to those purposes, they are useless.
2. Importance a great deal of information can be collected which is nominally relevant for some purpose ...evaluative information must be culled to eliminate or disregard the least important information and highlight the most important information.
3. Scope-information may be relevant and important but lack sufficient breadth depth to be useful.
4. Timeliness- the best information is useless if it comes too late (or too soon) providing perfect information late has no utility, but providing reasonably good information at the time it is needed can make a great deal of difference.
5. Pervasiveness-evaluation designs should contain provisions to disseminate the evaluation findings to all persons who need to know them.

Practical criteria are important to a decision-maker when judging the usefulness of information provided by the evaluator. Another criterion considered by the school administrator in determining whether the information received is practical relates to costs of evaluation personal.
Practical criteria are not the only standards a school administrator should apply to judging the worth of information received from the evaluation office. The following scientific criteria, according to Stufflebeam et al. (1971, 27-28), are equally important:

1. **Internal validity**: the information must be “true”. A more accurate way is to state that there must be a close, if not one-to-one, correspondence between the information and phenomena it represents.

2. **External validity**: refers to the “generalize ability” of the information. Does the information hold only for the sample from which it was collected or for other groups for the same group at other times as well?

3. **Reliability**: refers to the consistency of the information. If new data were gathered, would the same finding result? Reliability depends to a great extent on the nature of the instruments (used in gathering information).

4. **Objectivity**: is concerned with the “public ness” of the information. Would every one competent to judge agree on the meaning of the data?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CONTEXT EVALUATION</th>
<th>INFORMATION CRITERIA</th>
<th>PLANNING DECISIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Defining the existing setting and identifiable influences (political, economical and Sociological)</td>
<td>Scientific 1. Internal validity 2. External validity 3. Reliability 4. Objectivity</td>
<td>Analyzing existing needs, problems and opportunities.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1.4 displays the relationship between context evaluation, activity, criteria for judging the value of information identified, and degree of usefulness in making alternative planning decisions.

In general the use of practical and scientific criteria is ensuring that an evaluation process (CIPP) will reveal and communicate accurate information about the programme service being studied. The degree of accuracy by which information is judged in not only the responsibility, of the evaluator, but also the decision maker who uses or chooses not to use any or all of the information provided.

Assuming a school superintendent is convinced that evaluative information does enhance the decisions he or she makes, the issue of installing evaluation services, as a department within a school district remains difficult. The difficulty is justifying personnel, other operational costs, and the evaluation department’s goals and purposes.
1.4 Improving Management through Evaluation

Guba and Stufflebeam, among others, have regarded evaluation as a tool that should be used by educational managers in making decisions about educational programmes and processes. They have defined evaluation as the process of obtaining and providing useful information for making educational decisions. Evaluation thus becomes, tinder this concept, a tool be used by management in the operation of the school and is decision oriented rather than conclusion oriented. Although there can be no doubt that more valid empirical data should be available to educational decision makers than present the situation there is no guarantee that those who charged with making decision will have developed the level of competency necessary to Utilize properly all empirical data in the decision-making process. But quite simply, if empirical data differ from intuitive feelings, attempts may be made to find fault with the data and thus disrupt the rational decision making processes that are essential for any defensible evaluation. Evaluation, however, should not only be decision oriented as indicated in the model briefly discussed in this paragraph, but it should also be goal oriented should be concerned with precise goal statements. Scriven has defined evaluation from a goal-oriented point of view in the following manner:

Evaluation is itself methodological activity which is essential similar whether we are trying to evaluate coffee machines or teaching machines, plans for a house or plans for a curriculum. The activity consists simply in the gathering and combining of performance data with weighted set of goal scales to yield either comparative or numerical ratings, and in the justifications of (a) the data gathering instruments (b) the weightings, and (c) the selections of goals.

One of the values of this concept of evaluation is the emphasis on goals and goal justification. Unfortunately many of the techniques needed to implement this model are not yet existence but it offers some potential benefits not inherent in other models. The efforts of state and local education agencies might well be directed to the development of greater sophistications in the area of goal-oriented evaluation. Such efforts would contribute significantly to the utilization of evaluation as an effective management tool.

A. Role of Evaluation
The role of evaluation is to permit appropriate educational decisions to be made. The making of any single decision is always a complex process it includes four stages: (1) Becoming aware that decision is needed, (2) Designing the decision situation, (3) Choosing among alternatives, and (4) Acting upon the chosen alternative (Stufflebeam et al. 1971, 50).

Becoming aware that decision is needed is the first element of the decision making structure. Awareness has many sources. It may stem from psychological, cognitive, or experiential base. It may derive from empirical data, subjective judgment, or situational events.
Rules, laws, and / or policies govern some decisions. These are known as programmed decisions for they must be made regularly on cycle. Others decisions are the result of an identification of unmet need and unsolved problems. As these need and problems surface, they must be faced and resolved still other decisions are made as result of the identification of opportunities for decisions that could be utilized. This mode of awareness is the most risky and least used in education.

Once the need for decision is evident, the decision maker must design the situation to be proceeded. Stufflebeam suggest a six-step process for such processing.

The six steps are: (1) State the decision situation in question form, (2) Specified authority and responsibility for making the decision, (3) Formulate decision alternatives, (4) Specify criteria which will be employed in assessing alternatives, (5) Determine decision rules for use in selecting an alternative, (6) Estimate the tinting of the decision, (Stufflebeam et al. 1971. 50)

After designing the situation, the actual choosing of the decision alternative is the third stage of the decision process. The steps involved in choosing an alternative include (1) Obtaining information, (2) Applying decision rules, (3) Reflection, and (4) Confirmation of indicated choice or recycling

The fourth stage, that of acting on the chosen alternative involves four steps: (1) Fixing responsibility for implementation of the chosen objective, (2) Operationalizing the selective alternative, (3) Reflecting on the efficacy of the operationalized alternative, and (4) Executing the operationalized alternative or recycling.

As the evaluation process is an important component decision-making, so it is ever more clear when superintendents are increasingly called on LU justify and clarify decisions. Personal biases and propensities are often dispelled when confronted with hard data and evaluative results.

It is appropriate at this point to develop the relationship between the evaluator and the decision maker. First, the -relationship is symbiotic, the meaning that the evaluator goes through the same mental process as the decision maker but does not actually make the decision. Therefore, the evaluator must have close and continuous relationships with the decision maker to he served. Second, the evaluator must provide an extension of the decision maker’s resources through analysis and synthesis of data. Third, the evaluator must be aware of the decision making setting in order to provide appropriately informative data. Fourth, evaluation must involve broad capabilities lite the information requirements of decision makers are to be served. Finally, to the effective, evaluation must be cooperative effort. That is, the evaluator must draw on all disparate part of the school system for information and data.

B. Purposes of Evaluation

Among educators and lay citizens alike there is often it tendency to perceive evaluation only or primarily as an effort to provide answers to question such as “rid it work? “Did it accomplish? What it purported to do?” When evaluation is
treated in this context, only shallow or superficial determinations are feasible and these obviously should not provide a basis for important decisions. Educators certainly need to know what did or did not work, and sound research programmes will be required to make this possible. But more important in any effort that has as its goal the improvement; of some aspects of education is a determination of worth or value of the effort. This then should be the primary focus of any evaluative endeavor. In order to determine the value, however educational leaders should seek to develop and utilize evaluation procedures that go far beyond a determination of whether, or not something worked. Teachers, supervisors, administrators, and citizen group need reliable information relating to (1) What did or did not work or work well; (2) why it work or did not work satisfactorily; and (3) modifications that may be needed.

Information of this nature, when properly analyzed and made available to educators and concerned lay citizens, will make it possible for them to make rational and defensible decisions about educational policies and procedures which is a major function of evaluation. More specific purposes are discussed in the paragraphs that follow.

Evaluation should provide a sound basis for making judgments and developing conclusions. Until recently, this has probably, been the most commonly recognized purpose of evaluation. At the end of the year, for example, the local school board should want to know how well things have gone and hat has been achieved. The emphasis on evaluation at the conclusion of a period of time is both useful and necessary for some types of decision to be made about the instructional programme. There is a distinct danger, however, that when evaluations are related primarily to student achievement, they may become the basis for judgments and decisions about other aspects of education used for teacher employment and retention. Despite the emphasis in recent years upon the desirability all aspects of the educational programme much testing during the last month of school still occurs, and it is likely that test-based evaluation of achievement will continue for some time to occupy a major role in the educational system.

Evaluation should ensure continually improving process and programmes of education. All educational institutions and agencies should accept this concept as a major perceived of evaluation and should devote considerable effort toward its attainment new methods and procedures are constantly being developed, and it is imperative that these be considered and tested where applicable. Schools and school stems tend to change to some extent as society changes, yet all too often schools continue to operate as though they and society had never changed. Carefully planned evaluation programmes continues in nature, are necessary if the school and school systems are to eliminate waste full procedures and to plan effect needed changes.

Evaluations should enable schools and school systems, to diagnose difficulties and to avoid destructive upheavals. Wherever evaluation takes place in the classroom, at hoard meeting or in the total system diagnoses should be considered an important purpose. Serious and bona fide evaluation of problem areas will
usually, provide the data that are necessary for defensible judgments and for developing appropriate policies. When suitable corrective steps are taken, it may be possible to avoid the potentially destructive developments that have been experienced in school systems.

Evaluation should improve the ability of the staff and lay citizens to plan and effect improvements in the educational systems. All though tin’s may not be generally perceive as purpose of evaluation, it should be considered one of the most significant, and meaningful improvements in education that are not likely to be effected unless there is demand on the pan of professional staff and lay citizens that such improvements be made. When those concerned are actively and constructively involved in evaluation of procedures and practices, they are likely to be supportive of the needed changes that become evident as a result of the evaluation.

Evaluation should enable school systems to test new approaches to the solution of problems. As school systems become larger and there operations more complex, there may be a tendency for them to be hesitant either to clearly identify problems or to search for effective ways of solving them. In some instances the problems seem to have assumed proportions of such magnitude those educators and citizens see little if any hope for solutions. Moreover, potent forces that seek conformity rather than experimentation will undoubtedly-continue to exist. School and school systems should take the lead in developing and implementing action research programme that can be used as a basis for planning and effecting major changes in their provisions for education. Such programmes should always incorporate sound provisions for evaluative procedures.

1.5 Activities

1. Observe the principal’s routine work in your school and write a paragraph on his/her role whether he/she is meeting the targets of management discussed in this unit.
2. Evaluate the existing administrative setup of your school on Stufflebeam’s pattern called CIPP.

1.6 Exercise

1. Discuss the need and importance of evaluation in management programme at secondary level.
2. Critically examine the system of evaluation and how far this system is to be followed in our educational institutions.
3. Keeping in view the evaluation criteria discussed in unit. Explore whether this criteria is to be followed by our institutional heads. If this criteria is not followed, give reasons, why?
4. How can we improve our management system of our educational institution through evaluation, discuss.
Bibliography


