.

UNIT-I

CONCEPT, SCOPE AND PRINCIPLES OF MANAGEMENT

The term ‘management’ has been used in different senses. Sometimes it refers to the process of planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating and controlling, at other times it is used to describe it as a function of managing people. It is also referred to as a body of knowledge, a practice and discipline. There are some who describe management as a technique of leadership and decision-making while some others have analyzed management as an economic resource, a factor of production or a system of authority.

Mary Parker Follett:

“Management is the art of getting things done through others.” Follett describes management as an art of directing the activities of other persons for reaching enterprise goals. It also suggests that a manager carries only a directing function.

Harold Koontz:

“Management is the art of getting things done through and with people in formally organized groups.” Koontz has emphasized that management is getting the work done with the co-operation of people working in the organization.

J.D. Mooney and A.C. Railey:

“Management is the art of directing and inspiring people.” Management not only directs but motivates people in the organization for getting their best for obtaining objectives.

As per the above mentioned definitions, management is the art of getting things done through people who may be managers or non-managers. At the level of chief executive, the work is got done through functional managers, at middle level the things are implemented through supervisors and at lower level of management through workers. Human and technical skills play an important role for getting things done. These definitions represent the traditional view point of

.

management while workers are treated as a factor of production only. They are paid wages for doing their work.

(B) Management as a Process:

Some authors view management as a process because it involves a number of functions. Management refers to all Involves different a manager does. Various functions which are performed by managers to make the efficient use of the available material and human resources so as to achieve the desired objectives are summed up as management. Thus, the functions of planning, organizing, staffing, directing, co-coordinating and controlling fall under the process of management.

Henry Fayol:

"To manage is to forecast and plan, to organize, to command, to co-ordinate, and to control." Fayol described management as a process of five functions such as planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating and controlling. Modern authors, however, do not view co-ordination as a separate function of management.

George R. Terry:

"Management is a distinct process consisting of activities of planning, organizing, actuating and controlling, performed to determine and accomplish stated objectives with the use of human beings and other resources." Though Terry has described four functions to be a part of management process but managerial functions are classified into five categories.

James L. Lundy:

"Management is principally the task of planning, coordinating, motivating and controlling the efforts of others towards a specific objective." Lundy has also specified some functions which management has to perform for achieving organizational goals.

.

Louis Allen:

"Management is what a manager does." This is a broad definition linking all the activities of the manager to the concept of management. Whatever work is undertaken by a manager forms a part of management. Above definitions associate management with the functions undertaken for running a business. There may be a difference as to what functions are required to be taken up by the management but functions such as planning, organizing, staffing, directing and controlling form the process of management.

These functions are continuously taken up. On the completion of last function, the first function starts again. The functions of management are interdependent and interlinked. In order to achieve the objectives, a manager has to perform various functions simultaneously.

(C) Management as a Discipline:

Sometimes the term 'management' is used to connote neither the activity nor the personnel who performs it, but as a body of knowledge, a practice and a discipline. In this sense, management refers to the principles and practices of management as a subject of study. Management is taught as a specialized branch of knowledge in educational institutions. It has drawn heavily from Psychology, Sociology, and Anthropology etc. A person acquiring degree or diploma in management can try for a managerial job.

Management is treated both as an art as well as science. An art is often regarded as the systematic application of skill or knowledge in effecting accomplishment of results. In management one has to use personal skill and knowledge in solving many complicated problems to achieve enterprise objectives. Management is regarded as a science because it has developed certain principles, generalizations and techniques which have more or less universal application. So management is a study of a specific discipline. When one says that a particular person is in management stream then it is assumed that he is studying a particular field of learning.

.

(D) Art and Science of Decision-Making and Leadership:

Decision-making and guiding others is considered an important element of management. A manager has to take various decisions every day for properly running an enterprise.

Donald J. Clough:

"Management is the art and science of decision-making and leadership." The author views management as an art and science of decision-making. The quality of decisions determines the performance of a manager. He has also to provide leadership to subordinates for motivating them to undertake their work.

Rose Moore:

"Management means decision-making." Decision-making cannot be the only function of management even though it is very important.

Stanley Vance:

"Management is simply the process of decision-making and control over the action of human beings for the express purpose of attaining predetermined goals." Stanley Vance has emphasized decision-making and control over the actions of employees for reaching the enterprise goals.

Association of Mechanical Engineers, U.S.A.: "Management is the art and science of preparing, organizing and directing human efforts applied to control the forces and utilize the materials of nature for the benefit of man." The association has given a wide definition where it has emphasized that management controls and directs human efforts for utilizing natural resources for the benefit of man. The above mentioned definitions describe management as a science and art of decision making and controlling the activities of employees for obtaining enterprise objectives.

(E) An Art of Increasing Productivity:

.

Some authors are of the view that the science of management is used to increase productivity of the enterprise.

John F. Mee:

"Management may be defined as the art of securing maximum prosperity with a minimum of effort so as to secure maximum prosperity and happiness for both employees and employer and give public the best possible service."

F.W. Taylor:

"Management is the art of knowing what you want to do in the best and cheapest way."

Management is the art of securing maximum productivity at the minimum of cost so that it helps employers, employees and public in general. Public is also a stake holder in business, it should also benefit from good performance of business.

(F) Integration of Efforts:

Management makes use of human and physical resources for the benefit of the enterprise.

Keith and Gubellini:

"Management is the force that factors integrates men and physical plant into an effective operating unit." Management integrates physical and human resources for operating the manufacturing process in a better way.

Barry M. Richman:

"Management entails the coordination of human and material resources towards the achievement of organizational objectives as well as the organization of the productive functions essential for achieving stated or accepted economic goals." Management alms to co-ordinate and integrate various resources in the organization for achieving enterprise objectives. The thrust of above

.

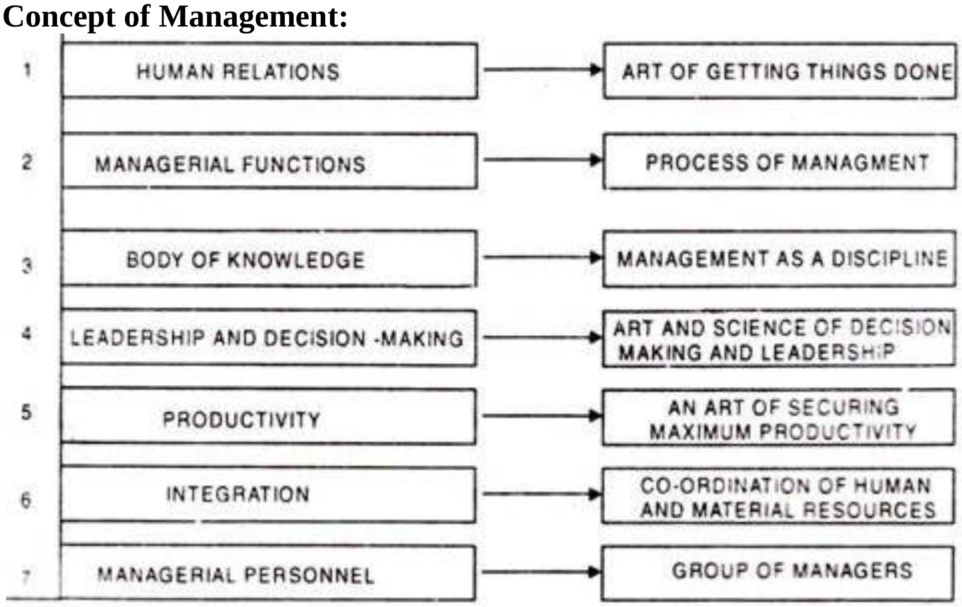
mentioned definitions is that integration and co-ordination of various factors of production is essential for running a business properly and this function is undertaken by management.

(G) Management as a Group of Managers:

The term management is frequently used to denote a Refers to managerial group of managerial personnel. When one says that personnel management of such and such company is efficient, he refers to the group of persons who are looking after the working of the enterprise. These persons individually are called managers. “Management is the body or group of people which performs certain managerial functions for the accomplishment of pre-determined goals.”

All managers perform managerial functions of planning, organizing, staffing, directing and controlling. These persons collectively arc called ‘body of managerial personnel.’ In actual practice the term ‘management’ is used to denote top management of the organization. Top management is mainly concerned with determination of objectives, strategic planning, policy formulation and overall control of the organization.

Concept of Management:



.

Objectives of Management:

The primary objective of management is to run the enterprise smoothly. The profit earning objective of a business is also to be kept in mind while undertaking various functions.

Following are the broad objectives of management:

1. Proper Utilization of Resources:

The main objective of management is to use various resources of the enterprise in a most economic way. The proper use of men, materials, machines and money will help a business to earn sufficient profits to satisfy various interests. The proprietors will want more returns on their investments while employees, customers and public will expect a fair deal from the management. All these interests will be satisfied only when physical resources of the business are properly utilized.

2. Improving Performance:

Management should aim at improving the performance of each and every factor of production. The environment should be so congenial that workers are able to give their maximum to the enterprise. The fixing of objectives of various factors of production will help them in improving their performance.

3. Mobilizing Best Talent:

The management should try to employ persons in various fields so that better results are possible. The employment of specialists in various fields will be increasing the efficiency of various factors of production. There should be a proper environment which should encourage good persons to join the enterprise. The better pay scales, proper amenities, future growth potentialities will attract more people in joining a concern.

4. Planning for Future:

.

Another important objective of management is to prepare plans. No management should feel satisfied with today's work if it has not thought of tomorrow. Future plans should take into consideration what is to be done next. Future performance will depend upon present planning. So, planning for future is essential to help the concern.

Scope or Branches of Management:

Management is an all pervasive function since it is required in all types of organized endeavour. Thus, its scope is very large.

The following activities are covered under the scope ofmanagement:

(i) Planning,

(ii) Organization

(iii) Staffing.

(iv) Directing,

(v) Coordinating, and

(vi) Controlling.

The operational aspects of business management, called the branches of management, are as follows:

1. Production Management

2. Marketing Management

3. Financial Management.

.

4. Personnel Management and

5. Office Management.

1. Production Management:

Production means creation of utilities. This creation of utilities takes place when raw materials are converted into finished products. Production management, then, is that branch of management 'which by scientific planning and regulation sets into motion that part of enterprise to which has been entrusted the task of actual translation of raw material into finished product.'

It is a very important field of management ,'for every production activity which has not been hammered on the anvil of effective planning and regulation will not reach the goal, it will not meet the customers and ultimately will force a business enterprise to close its doors of activities which will give birth to so many social evils'.

Plant location and layout, production policy, type of production, plant facilities, material handling, production planning and control, repair and maintenance, research and development, simplification and standardization, quality control and value analysis, etc., are the main problems involved in production management.

2. Marketing Management:

Marketing is a sum total of physical activities which are involved in the transfer of goods and services and which provide for their physical distribution. Marketing management refers to the planning, organizing, directing and controlling the activities of the persons working in the market division of a business enterprise with the aim of achieving the organization objectives.

It can be regarded as a process of identifying and assessing the consumer needs with a view to first converting them into products or services and then involving the same to the final consumer

.

or user so as to satisfy their wants with a stress on profitability that ensures the optimum use of the resources available to the enterprise. Market analysis, marketing policy, brand name, pricing, channels of distribution, sales promotion, sale-mix, after sales service, market research, etc. are the problems of marketing management.

3. Financial Management:

Finance is viewed as one of the most important factors in every enterprise. Financial management is concerned with the managerial activities pertaining to the procurement and utilization of funds or finance for business purposes.

The main functions of financial management include:

(i) Estimation of capital requirements;

(ii) Ensuring a fair return to investors;

(iii) Determining the suitable sources of funds;

(iv) Laying down the optimum and suitable capital

Structure for the enterprise:

(i) Co-coordinating the operations of various departments;

(ii) Preparation, analysis and interpretation of financial statements;

(iii) Laying down a proper dividend policy; and

(iv) Negotiating for outside financing.

4. Personnel Management:

.

Personnel Management is that phase of management which deals with the effective control and use of manpower. Effective management of human resources is one of the most crucial factors associated with the success of an enterprise. Personnel management is concerned with managerial and operative functions.

Managerial functions of personnel managementinclude:

(i) Personnel planning;

(ii) Organizing by setting up the structure of relationship among jobs, personnel and physical factors to contribute towards organization goals;

(iii) Directing the employees; and

(iv) Controlling.

The operating functions of personnel management are:

(i) Procurement of right kind and number of persons;

(ii) Training and development of employees;

(iii) Determination of adequate and equitable compensation of employees;

(iv) Integration of the interests of the personnel with that of the enterprise; and

(v) Providing good working conditions and welfare services to the employees.

5. Office Management:

The concept of management when applied to office is called ‘office management’. Office management is the technique of planning, coordinating and controlling office activities with a view to achieve common business objectives. One of the functions of management is to organize

.

the office work in such a way that it helps the management in attaining its goals. It works as a service department for other departments.

The success of a business depends upon the efficiency of its administration. The efficiency of the administration depends upon the information supplied to it by the office. The volume of paper work in office has increased manifold in these days due to industrial revolution, population explosion, increased interference by government and complexities of taxation and other laws.

Harry H. Wylie defines office management as "the manipulation and control of men, methods, machines and material to achieve the best possible results—results of the highest possible quality with the expenditure of least possible effect and expense, in the shortest practicable time, and in a manner acceptable to the top management."

14 Principles of Management of Henri Fayol

14 principles of Management are statements that are based on a fundamental truth. These principles of management serve as a guideline for decision-making and management actions. They are drawn up by means of observations and analyses of events that managers encounter in practice. Henri Fayol was able to synthesize 14 principles of management after years of study.

1. Division of Work

In practice, employees are specialized in different areas and they have different skills. Different levels of expertise can be distinguished within the knowledge areas (from generalist to specialist). Personal and professional developments support this. According to Henri Fayol specialization promotes efficiency of the workforce and increases productivity. In addition, the specialization of the workforce increases their accuracy and speed. This management principle of the 14 principles of management is applicable to both technical and managerial activities.

.

2. Authority and Responsibility

In order to get things done in an organization, management has the authority to give orders to the employees. Of course with this authority comes responsibility. According to Henri Fayol, the accompanying power or authority gives the management the right to give orders to the subordinates. The responsibility can be traced back from performance and it is therefore necessary to make agreements about this. In other words, authority and responsibility go together and they are two sides of the same coin.

3. Discipline

This third principle of the 14 principles of management is about obedience. It is often a part of the core values of a mission and vision in the form of good conduct and respectful interactions. This management principle is essential and is seen as the oil to make the engine of an organization run smoothly.

4. Unity of Command

The management principle 'Unity of command' means that an individual employee should receive orders from one manager and that the employee is answerable to that manager. If tasks and related responsibilities are given to the employee by more than one manager, this may lead to confusion which may lead to possible conflicts for employees. By using this principle, the responsibility for mistakes can be established more easily.

5. Unity of Direction

This management principle of the 14 principles of management is all about focus and unity. All employees deliver the same activities that can be linked to the same objectives. All activities must be carried out by one group that forms a team. These activities must be described in a plan of action. The manager is ultimately responsible for this plan and he monitors the progress of the defined and planned activities. Focus areas are the efforts made by the employees and coordination.

.

6. Subordination of Individual Interest

There are always all kinds of interests in an organization. In order to have an organization function well, Henri Fayolindicated that personal interests are subordinate to the interests of the organization (ethics). The primary focus is on the organizational objectives and not on those of the individual. This applies to all levels of the entire organization, including the managers.

7. Remuneration

Motivation and productivity are close to one another as far as the smooth running of an organization is concerned. This management principle of the 14 principles of management argues that the remuneration should be sufficient to keep employees motivated and productive. There are two types of remuneration namely non-monetary (a compliment, more responsibilities, credits) and monetary (compensation, bonus or other financial compensation). Ultimately, it is about rewarding the efforts that have been made.

8. The Degree of Centralization

Management and authority for decision-making process must be properly balanced in an organization. This depends on the volume and size of an organization including its hierarchy.

Centralization implies the concentration of decision making authority at the top management (executive board). Sharing of authorities for the decision-making process with lower levels (middle and lower management), is referred to as decentralization by Henri Fayol. Henri Fayol indicated that an organization should strive for a good balance in this.

9. Scalar Chain

Hierarchy presents itself in any given organization. This varies from senior management (executive board) to the lowest levels in the organization. Henri Fayol 's "hierarchy" management principle states that there should be a clear line in the area of authority (from top to bottom and all managers at all levels). This can be seen as a type of management structure. Each employee can contact a manager or a superior in an emergency situation without challenging the

.

hierarchy. Especially, when it concerns reports about calamities to the immediate managers/superiors.

10. Order

According to this principle of the 14 principles of management, employees in an organization must have the right resources at their disposal so that they can function properly in an organization. In addition to social order (responsibility of the managers) the work environment must be safe, clean and tidy.

11. Equity

The management principle of equity often occurs in the core values of an organization. According to Henri Fayol, employees must be treated kindly and equally. Employees must be in the right place in the organization to do things right. Managers should supervise and monitor this process and they should treat employees fairly and impartially.

12. Stability of Tenure of Personnel

This management principle of the 14 principles of management represents deployment and managing of personnel and this should be in balance with the service that is provided from the organization. Management strives to minimize employee turnover and to have the right staff in the right place. Focus areas such as frequent change of position and sufficient development must be managed well.

13. Initiative

Henri Fayol argued that with this management principle employees should be allowed to express new ideas. This encourages interest and involvement and creates added value for the company. Employee initiatives are a source of strength for the organization according to Henri Fayol. This encourages the employees to be involved and interested.

.

14. Esprit de Corps

The management principle 'esprit de corps' of the 14 principles of management stands for striving for the involvement and unity of the employees. Managers are responsible for the development of morale in the workplace; individually and in the area of communication. Esprit de corps contributes to the development of the culture and creates an atmosphere of mutual trust and understanding.

The 14 principles of management can be used to manage organizations and are useful tools for forecasting, planning, process management, organization management, decision-making, coordination and control.

Although they are obvious, many of these matters are still used based on common sense in current management practices in organizations. It remains a practical list with focus areas that are based on Henri Fayol 's research which still applies today due to a number of logical principles.

b) Processes In Educational Organization: Communication, Decision Making, Appraisal And Management By Objectives

One well-regarded and widely used approach to performance appraisal is called management by objectives (MBO). By definition, under this method, you evaluate your employees on the basis of results. MBO is more than performance appraisal — it's a construct for managing the entire organization. Its breadth includes the organization's vision, values, strategies, goals, and performance measurement.

MBO begins with managers at the top of the company setting goals. Then managers and employees at each successively lower level develop their own goals. Employees' goals are designed to support the goals of their own managers. In this way, the entire organization is linked together in the pursuit of objectives.

.

After employees meet with their managers to establish their goals and action plans, the employees return to work newly energized and focused on specific short-term and longer-term targets. Simultaneously, their managers monitor the employees' performance, provide coaching and support, remove barriers or help employees overcome them, and make adjustments and course corrections as necessary. The employees' performance and progress are clear, measured, documented, and transparent every step of the way.

- **It helps build relationships between managers and employees.** MBO includes a great deal of contact and communication between managers and their employees, which builds camaraderie, communication, and trust — all key elements in strengthening teamwork.
- **It fosters a comfortable climate in the workplace.** MBO helps build an atmosphere of respect and trust within a given department and beyond.

- **Because managers work directly with employees to identify and solve problems, MBO improves the quality of decision-making and problem solving.**
- **It's fair.** Employees are evaluated on the basis of their performance and attainment of goals, which is regarded as fair and energizing.
- **It's quick and easy.** Performance evaluation forms associated with MBO are a breeze to complete. Typically, they spell out each objective as established at the beginning of the cycle, and then provide a space for the manager to summarize the results.

Some MBO forms also include a scale that asks for a numerical assessment of the employees' success in meeting their goals. These scales guide the managers in the rating process by including specific descriptions of excellent, good, fair, and poor levels of goal attainment.

Leaders have at least four options of involvement in decisions: deciding alone, seeking participation and input, seeking collaboration, and letting others decide. These approaches are termed *autocratic, participative, collaborative,* and *laissez fair*, respectively. A wise leader uses participative and collaborative strategies for all important decisions. However, such an approach

.

is not always possible, nor is it preferable in all situations. The leader must assess 5 factors to decide on the level of involvement:

Time

Urgency may require the leader to make his or her own decision without consulting others. Participative decisions, especially collaborative decisions, require more time than a decision made alone. If important decisions are at stake, the leader must schedule more time for involvement.

Staff Interest in the Decision

Barnard (1938) found that individuals have a "zone of indifference" in which they simply accept the leader's decision and are apathetic toward the decision. In these cases, the leader would not benefit from trying to gain participation or collaboration. At higher levels of interest, however, more participation or collaboration is appropriate. Leaders who desire more collaboration must generate interest in the decision.

Staff Expertise

Followers who have very low levels of expertise accept the decisions of leaders. Staff members who have higher levels of expertise require either participation or collaboration to arrive at successful decisions. The leader who desires collaboration must raise levels of expertise to successfully involve subordinates.

Importance or Need For a High-Quality Decision

Some decisions are much more important and carry significant consequences. This is usually the case for instruction and learning, whether directly or indirectly. For important questions that demand high-quality decisions, collaboration is the best model. If the decision is relatively unimportant, then the leader should simply make the decision.

.

Degree of Need for Buy-In or Support for the Decision

Many decisions in schools need staff support for successful implementation and results. A collaborative model often increases buy-in and support.

A performance appraisal is a systematic, general and periodic process that assesses an individual employee's job performance and productivity in relation to certain pre-established criteria and organizational objectives.Other aspects of individual employees are considered as well, such as organizational citizenship behavior, accomplishments, potential for future improvement, strengths and weaknesses, etc.

To collect PA data, there are three main methods: objective production, personnel, and judgmental evaluation. Judgmental evaluations are the most commonly used with a large variety of evaluation methods. Historically, PA has been conducted annually (long-cycle appraisals); however, many companies are moving towards shorter cycles (every six months, every quarter), and some have been moving into short-cycle (weekly, bi-weekly) PA.The interview could function as "providing feedback to employees, counseling and developing employees, and conveying and discussing compensation, job status, or disciplinary decisions".PA is often included in performance management systems. PA helps the subordinate answer two key questions: first, "What are your expectations of me?" second, "How am I doing to meet your expectations?

Performance management systems are employed "to manage and align" all of an organization's resources in order to achieve highest possible performance."How performance is managed in an organization determines to a large extent the success or failure of the organization. Therefore, improving PA for everyone should be among the highest priorities of contemporary organizations".

Some applications of PA are compensation, performance improvement, promotions, termination, test validation, and more. While there are many potential benefits of PA, there are also some potential drawbacks. For example, PA can help facilitate management-employee communication; however, PA may result in legal issues if not executed appropriately, as many employees tend to be unsatisfied with the PA process. PAs created in and determined as useful in the United States are not necessarily able to be transferable cross-culturally.

Communication in Educational organization……..

Educational management and educational leadership differ in matters of communication as one can be defined as an executive function that exists in order to carry out agreed policies. In terms of communication, that can be translated as informing and making sure the team attains its goals as they have been drawn by the manager and higher authorities. Educational leadership has at its core the responsibility for formulating such policies and even organizational transformations. This is why it is very important for a leader to listen, have initiative and motivate its team. Principals apply a range of communication skills every day. Elements of good practice for internal communication can include: the principal being a good role model for communication, words from leaders matching their actions, commitment to the two-way communication, face to face communication. A manager will tend to pass on information and give instructions. It is its duty though to see effective communication as a two-way process. The manager/leader's duty is not only to inform, but also to listen and be open to suggestions. Focusing on what you might learn instead of what you want to inform might prove an efficient strategy because it offers feedback. Also, seeking clarification and explanation, especially when the tone of the speaker is somewhat critical might prove beneficial. Administrators can enhance communication by using the most effective and efficient line of communication. Such efficient communication tools must include some of the latest technologies. School leaders should set an example in using and encouraging the use of these technologies to bolster communication. Tools like a website, a social media account or forum may help principals and teachers communicate more rapidly and efficiently. Teachers, parents and even outsiders can contribute ideas. This particular strategy has the additional benefit of requiring openness and transparency in any decision making process.

c) Organizational climate: Strategies for maintaining healthy work environment

Building and maintain good work relationship will not only make one more engaged and committed to the organization; it can also open doors to key projects, career advancement and raises. We should start by identifying the key stakeholders in the organization. These people, as well as the clients and customers, deserve extra time and attention. Devoting a portion of our day to laying the foundation of good relationships is a good option. Even five minutes a day, if it's genuine, can help to build a bond between us and a colleague. After all, the more we give in our relationship, the more we'll get back from those around us.

A healthy work environment can be defined as a work setting that takes a strategic and comprehensive approach to providing the physical, cultural, psychological and work conditions that maximize the health and wellbeing of providers, improves the quality of care and optimizes organizational performance.

A healthy workplace is a place where everyone works together to achieve an agreed vision for the health and well-being of workers and the surrounding community. It provides all members of the workforce with physical, psychological, social and organizational conditions that protect and

.

promote health and safety. It enables managers and workers to increase control over their own atmosphere and to improve it, and to become more energetic, positive and contented. In return, the workforce is more stable, committed and productive. There are several characteristics that make up good, healthy working relationships: Trust – This is the foundation of every good relationship. When you trust your team and colleagues, you

• form a powerful bond that helps you work and communicate more effectively. If you trust the people you work with, you can be open and honest in your thoughts and actions, and you don't have to waste time and energy "watching your back." Mutual Respect – When you respect the people that you work with, you value their input and ideas, and

• they value yours. Working together, you can develop solutions based on your collective insight, wisdom and creativity. Mindfulness – This means taking responsibility for your words and actions. Those who are mindful are

• careful and attend to what they say, and they don't let their own negative emotions impact the people around them. Welcoming Diversity – People with good relationships not only accept diverse people and opinions, but

• they welcome them. For instance, when your friends and colleagues offer different opinions from yours, you take the time to consider what they have to say, and factor their insights into your decision-making.

Open Communication – We communicate all day, whether we're sending emails and IMs, or meeting faceto-face. The better and more effectively you communicate with those around you, the richer your relationships will be. All good relationships depend on open, honest communication. Cooperation- Give and take is the order of the day. We should be prepared to consider anything that makes

• it easier and more practical to work for us than for anyone else.

UNIT-II

Organizational Development:concept, process and interventions **ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT AS A CONCEPT**

Organizational Development (OD) is a management discipline designed to improve an organization's effectiveness and productivity. Rooted in behavioral science foundations, OD focuses on complex interpersonal skills as they affect the problem solving activities critical to the organization/s. Following an in-depth assessment of organization's select needs, activities such as coaching, visionary planning, and group change processes are utilized to address pivotal areas necessary for success.

Organizational Development is a systematic approach to organizational improvement that applies behavioral science theory and research in order to increase individual and organizational well-being and effectiveness. It is a term used to include a collection of planned change interventions that seek to improve organizational effectiveness and employee well being.

Organization development (OD) applies behavioral-science knowledge and practices to help organizations change to achieve greater effectiveness. It seeks to improve how organizations relate to their external environments and function internally to attain high performance and high quality of work life.

OD emphasizes change in organizations that is planned and implemented deliberately. It is both an applied field of social practice and a domain of scientific inquiry. Practitioners, such as managers, staff experts, and consultants, apply relevant knowledge and methods to organization change processes, while researchers study those processes to derive new knowledge that can subsequently be applied elsewhere. In practice, this distinction between application and knowledge generation is not straight-forward as OD practitioners and researchers often work closely together to jointly apply knowledge and learn from those experiences (Lawler et al., 1985). Thus, OD is an ‘action science’ where knowledge is developed in the context of applying it and learning from the consequences (Argyris et al.1985).

OD encompasses a diversity of concepts and methods for changing organizations. Although several definitions of OD have been presented (Beckhard, 1969; Bennis, 1969; French, 1969; Beer, 1980;Burke, 1982), the enormous growth of new approaches and techniques has blurred the boundaries of the field and made it increasingly difficult to describe. The following definition seeks to clarify emerging aspects of OD while drawing on previous definitions of the field: “Organization development is a system-wide process of applying behavioralscience knowledge to the planned change and development of the strategies, design components, and processes that enable organizations to be effective.”

OD addresses an entire system, such as a team, department, or total organization. It also deals with relationships between a system and its environment as well as among the different features that comprise a system’s design. This system-wide application follows from an open-systems

.

approach to organizations (Thompson, 1967; Katz & Kahn, 1978; Cummings, 1980).

OD focuses on changing and improving three key aspects of organizations: ***Strategies***: Strategies have to do with how organizations use their resources to gain competitive advantage. This includes choices about the functions an organization will perform, the products or services it will provide, and the markets and customers it will serve.

Design Components: Design components include decisions about organization structure, work design, measurement systems, and human resources practices.

Processes: Processes have to do with how organizations go about doing things and include how members relate to each other and their tasks and how different functions, such as communication and decision-making, are performed.

OD seeks to bring congruence or fit among strategies, design components, and processes so they mutually guide and reinforce organizational behavior in a strategic direction.

Finally, OD focuses on improving organization effectiveness. This includes helping organizations achieve high performance, good quality of work life, and capacity for continued problem-solving and improvement. Effective organizations perform at high levels while meeting the needs of various stakeholders, including owners, customers, employees, suppliers, and government regulators. They have a high quality of work life that enables them to attract and retain talented members. Effective organizations are able to solve their own problems while continually improving and renewing themselves.

The OD paradigm values human and organizational growth, collaborative and participative processes, and a spirit of inquiry. The change agent may be directive in OD, however, there is a strong emphasis on collaboration. Concepts such as power, authority, control, conflict, and coercion are held in relatively low esteem among OD change agents. According to Robbins the following briefly identifies the underlying values in most OD efforts:

1 ***Respect for people:*** *Individuals are perceived as being responsible, conscientious, and caring*. They should be treated with dignity and respect.

.

2 **Trust and Support:** The effective and healthy organization is characterized by trust, authenticity, openness, and a supportive climate.

3 **Power Equalization:** Effective organizations deemphasize hierarchical authority and control.

4 **Confrontation:** Problems shouldn't be swept under the rug. They should be openly confronted.

5 **Participation:** The more that people who will be affected by a change are involved in the decisions surrounding that change, the more they will be committed to implementing those decisions.

Some recent definitions of Organization Development

According to Burke(1994),

"Organization Development is a planned process of change in an organization's culture through the utilization of behavioural science technologies, research, and theory.'

Cummings and Worley (1993) defined OD as,

"A system wide application behavioural science knowledge to the planned development and reinforcement of organizational strategies, structures, and processes for improving an organization's effectiveness.

According to Porras and Robertson (1992) OD is,

"A set of behavioural science based theories, values, strategies, and techniques aimed at the planned change of the organizational work setting for the purpose of enhancing individual development and improving organizational performance, through the alteration of organizational members' on the ob behaviours."

WHY IS ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT IMPORTANT?

Profitability, productivity, morale and quality of work life are of concern to most organizations because they impact achievement of organization goals. There is an increasing trend to maximize an organization's investment in its employees. Jobs that previously required physical dexterity now require more mental effort. Organizations need to "work smarter" and apply creative ideas.

.

The work force has also changed. Employees expect more from a day's work than simply a day's pay. They want challenge, recognition, a sense of accomplishment, worthwhile tasks and meaningful relationships with their managers and co-workers. When these needs are not met, performance declines.

Today's customers demand continually improving quality, rapid product or service delivery; fast turn-around time on changes, competitive pricing and other features that are best achieved in complex environments by innovative organizational practices.

The effective organization must be able to meet today's and tomorrow's challenges. Adaptability and responsiveness are essential to survive and thrive.

IMPLEMENTING OD PROGRAMS

OD efforts basically entail two groups of activities; "action research" and "interventions." Action research was originated in the 1940s by Lewin and another

U.S. researcher, John Collier. It is a process of systematically collecting data on a specific organization, feeding it back for action planning, and evaluating results by collecting and reflecting on more data. Data gathering techniques include everything from surveys and questionnaires to interviews, collages, drawings, and tests. The data is often evaluated and interpreted using advanced statistical analysis techniques.

Action research can be thought of as the diagnostic component of the OD process. But it also encompasses the intervention component, whereby the change agent uses actions plans to intervene in the organization and make changes, as discussed below. In a continuous process, the results of actions are measured and evaluated and new action plans are devised to effect new changes. Thus, the intervention process can be considered a facet of action research.

A standard action research model was posited by W.L. French in his essay "Organization Development: Objectives, Assumptions, and Strategies" in Sloan Management Review, (1969, Vol. XII, No. 2.). The first step in the OD process is recognition of a problem by key executives. Those managers then consult with a change agent (a group or individual), which gathers data, provides feedback to the executives, and then helps them determine change objectives. Next, the agent does new research within the context of the stated OD goals, gives more feedback, devises a plan of action, and then intervenes in the company to effect change. After (or during) the intervention(s), data is gathered, feedback is supplied, actions are planned and implemented, and the process is repeated.

OD INTERVENTIONS

Organization Development (OD) is a unique organizational improvement strategy. The sets of structured/planned activities adopted by groups or individuals in an organization as a part of the organization development program are known as OD techniques or OD interventions. While change programs may involve either external or internal consultants, OD interventions mostly involve external consultants.

“OD interventions are sets of structured activities in which selected organizational units (target groups or individuals) engage in a task or sequence of tasks with the goals of organizational improvement and individual development.”

OD interventions are plans or programs comprised of specific activities designed to effect change in some facet of an organization. Numerous interventions have been developed over the years to address different problems or create various results. However, they all are geared toward the goal of improving the entire organization through change. In general, organizations that wish to achieve a high degree of organizational change will employ a full range of interventions, including those designed to transform individual and group behavior and attitudes. Entities attempting smaller changes will stop short of those goals, applying interventions targeted primarily toward operating policies, management structures, worker skills, and personnel policies. OD interventions can be categorized in a number of ways, including function, the type of group for which they are intended, or the industry to which they apply. In fact, W.L. French identified 13 major "families" of interventions based on the type of activities that they included—activity groups included teambuilding, survey feedback, structural change, and career-planning. One convenient method of classifying OD interventions is by group size and interrelationship, including: interpersonal relationships, group processes, intergroup systems, and the entire organization. Typically, an OD program will simultaneously integrate more than one of these interventions. A few of the more popular interventions are briefly described below.

INTERVENTION TECHNIQUES

1. **Sensitivity Training**
2. **Survey Feedback**
3. **Process Consultation**
4. **Team Building**
5. **Intergroup Development**

SENSITIVITY TRAINING

Sensitivity training is a psychological technique in which intensive group discussion and interaction are used to increase individual awareness of self and others; it is practiced in a variety of forms under such names as T-group, encounter group, human relations, and group-dynamics training. The group is usually small and unstructured and chooses its own goals.

Sensitivity training is often offered by organizations and agencies as a way for members of a given community to learn how to better understand and appreciate the differences in other people. It asks training participants to put themselves into another person's place in hopes that they will be able to better relate to others who are different than they are.

Sensitivity training often specifically addresses concerns such as gender sensitivity, multicultural sensitivity, and sensitivity toward those who are disabled in some way. The goal in this type of training is more oriented toward growth on an individual level. Sensitivity training can also be used to study and enhance group relations, i.e., how groups are formed and how members interact within those groups.

The origins of sensitivity training can be traced as far back as 1914, when

J.L. Moreno created "psychodrama," a forerunner of the group encounter (and sensitivity-training) movement. This concept was expanded on later by Kurt Lewin, a gestalt psychologist from central Europe, who is credited with organizing and leading the first T-group (training group) in 1946. Lewin offered a summer workshop in human relations in New Britain, Connecticut. The T-group itself was formed quite by accident, when workshop participants were invited to attend a staff-planning meeting and offer feedback. The results were fruitful in helping to understand individual and group behavior.

Sensitive Training in Practice An integral part of sensitivity training is the sharing, by each member of the group, of his or her own unique perceptions of everyone else present. This, in turn, reveals information about his or her own personal qualities, concerns, emotional issues, and things that he or she has in common with other members of the group. A group's trainer refrains from acting as a group leader or lecturer, attempting instead to clarify the group processes using incidents as examples to clarify general points or provide feedback. The group action, overall, is the goal as well as the process.

Sensitivity training resembles group psychotherapy (and a technique called psychodrama) in many respects, including the exploration of emotions, personality, and relationships at an intense level. Sensitivity training, however, usually restricts its focus to issues that can be reasonably handled within the time period available. Also, sensitivity training does not include among its objectives therapy of any kind, nor does it pass off trainers/facilitators as healers of any sort. Groups usually focus on here-and-now issues; those that arise within the group setting, as opposed to issues from participants' pasts. Training does not explore the roots of behavior or delve into deeper concepts such as subconscious motives, beliefs, etc.

Sensitivity training seeks to educate its participants and lead to more constructive and beneficial behavior. It regards insight and corrective emotional or behavioral experiences as more important goals than those of genuine therapy. The feedback element of the training helps facilitate this because the participants in a group can identify individuals' purposes, motives, and behavior in certain situations that arise within the group. Group members can help people to learn whether displayed behavior is meaningful and/or effective, and the feedback loop operates continuously, extending the opportunity to learn more appropriate conduct.

Another primary principle of sensitivity training is that of feedback; the breakdown of inhibitions against socially repressed assertion such as frankness and self-expression are expected in place of diplomacy. Encounters that take place during sensitivity training serve to help people practice interpersonal relations to which they are likely not accustomed. The purpose is to help people develop a genuine closeness to each other in a relatively short period of time. Training encounters are not expected to take place without difficulty. Many trainers view the encounter as a confrontation, in which two people meet to see things through each other's eyes and to relate to each other through mutual understanding.

SURVEY FEEDBACK

Survey feedback is one of the means which is used for assessing the attitudes held by the members of the organizations, identifying discrepancies among member perceptions, and solving these differences.

Everyone in an organization can participate in survey feedback, but of key importance is the organizational family – the manager of any given unit and those employees who report directly to him or her. A questionnaire is usually completed by all members in the organization. Organization members may be asked to suggest or may be interviewed to determine what issues are relevant. The questionnaire typically asks members for their perceptions and attitudes on a broad range of topics, including decision making practices, communication effectiveness, coordination between units, and satisfaction with the organization, job, peers, and their immediate supervisor.

The data from this questionnaire are tabulated with data pertaining to an individual's specific 'family' and to the entire organization and distributed to employees. These data then become the springboard for identifying problems and clarifying issues that may be creating difficulties for people. In some cases, the manager may be counseled by an external change agent about the meaning of the responses to the questionnaire and may even be given suggested guidelines for leading the organizational family in group discussion of the results. Particular attention is given to the importance of encouraging discussion and ensuring that discussions focus on issues and ideas and not on attacking individuals.

Finally group discussion in the survey feedback approach should result in member identifying possible implications of the questionnaire's findings. Are people listening? Are new ideas being generated? Can decision making, interpersonal relations, or job assignments be improved? Answers to questions like these, it is hoped, will result in the group agreeing upon commitments to various actions that will remedy the problems that are identified.

PROCESS CONSULTATION

Process Consultation has been descried as "the central discipline for helping professionals to build strong client-consultant relationships that result in sustained change and improvement." This model has enormous practical significance, not just for OD consultants, but for counselors, managers, therapists, social workers, and others involved in building and maintaining "helping relationships."

.

Edgar Schein defined the technique of process consultation as “the set of activities on the part of the consultant which help the client to perceive, understand, and act upon the process events which occur in the client’s environment.’ Process consultation concentrates on certain specified areas such as communication, functional roles of members, group problem solving and decision making, group norms and growth, leadership and authority and intergroup cooperation and competition.

Schein’s process consultation model has following underlying assumptions:

- Managers require special diagnostic help in knowing what is wrong with the organization.
- Most managers have constant desire to increase organizational effectiveness, but they need help in deciding ‘how’ to achieve it.
- Managers can be effective if they learn to diagnose their own strengths and weaknesses without exhaustive and time consuming study of the organization.
- The outside consultant cannot learn enough about the culture of the organization, to suggest reliable new course of action. He should, therefore, work jointly with the members of the organization.
- The client must learn to see the problem for himself, understand the problem and find a remedy. The consultant should provide new and challenging alternatives for the client to consider. However, the decision making authority on these alternatives about organizational changes remains with the client.
- It is essential that the process consultant is an expert in diagnosing and establishing effective helping relationships with the client. Effective process consultation involves passing those skills on to the client.

Steps in Process Consultation

According to Schien, process consultation normally proceeds as given below:

1 **Initial Contact** -Here the client comes into contact with the consultant and specifies the problem that cannot be solved by normal organizational procedures or resources.

2 **Define the relationship -**After identifying the specific problem areas, the consultation and the client enter into a formal contract. The formal contract spells out the services, time and the fees of the

.

consultant. Actually there is also a psychological contract because both parties are involved in the satisfaction of certain expectations.

3 **Select the method of work -**It involves the clear-cut understanding of where and how the consultant would perform the job. Each individual employee in the organization is made aware of who the consultant is so that he can help the consultant by furnishing the required information.

4 **Collection of Data and Diagnosis -**The consultant invests a great deal of time in collecting the relevant information. Normally, he gathers data through questionnaires, observation and personal interviews etc. and then makes an indepth diagnosis of the problems.

5 **Intervention -**Various interventions by the consultant such as agenda setting, feedback, coaching, and structural suggestions are made in the process consultation approach. During this phase, the solutions designed by the consultant will be translated into action in the organization.

6 **Reducing Involvement and Termination -**When the goals of OD intervention have been successfully achieved, the consultant leaves the organization by closing the formal contract with the client.

TEAM BUILDING

"Teamwork doesn't happen automatically, and it doesn't result just from the exhortations of a single leader. It results from members paying attention to how they are working together, issues that block teamwork and working them through, and consciously developing patterns of working together that all members find challenging and satisfying."(Peter Vail, Managing as a Performing Art, 1989).

Periodically a team's ability to rally around goals is blocked by simple group dynamics, and the team gets stuck, lowering morale, productivity and job satisfaction. Group process facilitation is powerful tool introduced to break this cycle. During ongoing meeting with a team, group change activities, including insight-oriented techniques and experiential exercises, are used by an OD specialist to promote awareness among group members of their own unique personal styles in communication, collaboration, group roles and conflict resolution. Members develop increased sensitivity and enhanced perspective-taking skills as well as an understanding of different communication styles among group members. All of these skills promote

.

greater group cohesiveness and an ability to work productively toward a common goal. As individuals develop greater interpersonal awareness, qualitative changes occur in the group as a whole.

Team building directly focuses on identification of problems relating to task performance and lays down concrete plans of their elimination. A team building programme deals with new problems on an going basis. It is an effective technique by which members of an organizational group diagnose how they work together and plan changes that will improve their effectiveness (Michael Beer).

Team building attempts to improve effectiveness of work groups by allowing the group members to concentrate on:

1. Setting goals or priorities for organizational groups.
2. Analyzing or allocating the way the work is performed.
3. Examining the way the group is working.
4. Examining the relationships among the people doing the work. (R. Bechard).

Thus, the fundamental aim of team building is to help the group members in examining their own behaviours and developing action plans that foster task accomplishment.

Necessary Conditions for the Success of Team Building Programme

There are certain prerequisites to be fulfilled before making an attempt to undertake the team building exercises. These prerequisites have been identified by Hellriegel, Slocum &Woodman. They recommend that management has to ensure the following:

1. The group members understand the stated goals clearly.
2. The group members unanimously agree with the objectives.
3. Basic interdependence among the members of the group exists.
4. The group is capable of taking corrective action on the problems identified or at least will be able to tackle some reasonable percentage of them.

INTERGROUP DEVELOPMENT

.

Intergroup interventions are integrated into OD programs to facilitate cooperation and efficiency between different groups within an organization. For instance, departmental interaction often deteriorates in larger organizations as different divisions battle for limited resources or become detached from the needs of other departments.

Conflict resolution meetings are one common intergroup intervention. First, different group leaders are brought together to get their commitment to the intervention. Next, the teams meet separately to make a list of their feelings about the other group(s). Then the groups meet and share their lists. Finally, the teams meet to discuss the problems and to try to develop solutions that will help both parties. This type of intervention helps to gradually diffuse tension between groups caused by lack of communication and misunderstanding.

Rotating membership interventions are used by OD change agents to minimize the negative effects of intergroup rivalry that result from employee allegiances to groups or divisions. The intervention basically entails temporarily putting group members into their rival groups. As more people interact in the different groups, greater understanding results.

OD joint activity interventions serve the same basic function as the rotating membership approach, but it involves getting members of different groups to work together toward a common goal. Similarly, common enemy interventions achieve the same results by finding an adversary common to two or more groups and then getting members of the groups to work together to overcome the threat. Examples of common enemies include competitors, government regulation, and economic conditions.

c) Educational Leadership: meaning, nature and scope

Educational leadership involves working with and guiding teachers toward improving educational processes in elementary, secondary and postsecondary institutions. Those in educational leadership roles tend to go above and beyond just management and administrative tasks, however. They are trained to advance and improve educational systems and create and enact policies. Educational leaders usually are employed as school principals or administrators but can take on additional roles, such as department chair or academic dean.

Educational leadership is a collaborate process that unites the talents and forces of teachers, students and parents. The goal of educational leadership is to improve the quality of education and the education system itself.

The primary purpose of educational leadership is to ensure academic success through process, material and training improvements. This is mainly accomplished through

.

collaboration with different individuals, such as educators, parents, students, public policy makers and the public. From a business perspective, educational leadership is a form of academic management and quality control.

Educational leadership is centered on certain key principles. First, educational leadership creates a vision of academic success for all students. This is important because there has always been a historical gap between students on different socio-economical levels and high and low achieving students. Second, educational leadership strives to maintain a safe and receptive learning environment. That is, a healthy school environment is key to providing comfortable, orderly and structured classrooms. Third, educational leadership delegates responsibility to others. This means that teachers, parents and even students are empowered to take responsibility and accept accountability. Fourth, instructional methods and curriculum content must be continually improved. Fifth, the field of education must borrow and adapt modern management tools, processes and techniques.

According to the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD), teachers are the foundation of educational leadership. They not only manage students, but also act as leaders among their colleagues. Specifically, teachers are resource providers that help students and other teachers find online and community resources. They provide valuable classroom management and teaching strategies to other teachers. They also provide educational leaders with constructive feedback for curriculum improvements.

Careers in Educational Leadership

Careers in educational leadership can be found at all levels of education, from pre-school program directors to academic deans at universities. At the college or university level, educational leaders are employed as department chairs, athletic directors or curriculum directors. In elementary and secondary schools, educational leaders work as principals, assistant principals, athletic directors, headmasters, lead teachers or deans. Other educational leaders work with advocacy groups, lobby groups or other non-profit organizations to create or reform policy and educational systems.

Educational Leadership Education Programs

Educational leadership programs are usually offered at the graduate level. These programs award Master of Educational Leadership or Doctor of Philosophy in Educational Leadership degrees. Aspiring principals will typically need a master's degree, while superintendents and university provosts will generally need a doctoral degree. Online programs are also offered by several institutions so these professionals can maintain their current roles while also advancing their education. Programs cover the theory and practice of education, the role of education in society, teaching methods, psychology, school law and technology used in educational settings.

.

“Leadership is the initiation of acts which result in insistent pattern of group interaction directed towards the solution of mutual problem.” — Hemphill, J.K.

“Leadership is a process of influence on a group in a particular situation at a given point of time, and in a specific set of circumstances that stimulates people to strive willingly to attain organisational objectives and satisfaction with the type of leadership provided.”— Jame J. Cribbin.

“Leadership is not making friends and influencing people i.e., salesmanship. It is the lifting of man’s visions to higher sights, the raising of man’s personality beyond its normal limitations.”— Peter Drucker.

In the various definitions of leadership the emphasis is on the capacity of an individual to influence and direct group effort towards the achievement of organisational goals. Thus, we can say that leadership is the practice of influence that stimulates subordinates or followers to do their best towards the achievement of desired goals.

Nature and Characteristics:

An analysis of the definitions cited above reveals the following important – characteristics of leadership:

1- Leadership is a personal quality.

2. It exists only with followers. If there are no followers, there is no leadership.

.

3. It is the willingness of people to follow that makes person a leader.

4. Leadership is a process of influence. A leader must be able to influence the behaviour, attitude and beliefs of his subordinates.

Leadership Styles or Types of Leaders:

The term ‘leadership style, refers to the consistent behaviour pattern of a leader as perceived by people around him. Every leader develops a pattern in the way he handles his subordinates or followers in various situations. The leadership style is the result of the philosophy, personality and experience of the leader. It also depends upon the types of followers and the conditions prevailing in an organisation.

I. Leadership Style Based on Attitude and Behaviour:

According to their attitude and behaviour patterns leaders are classified as under:

1. Autocratic or authoritarian style leader.

2. Laissez-faire or Free-rein style leader.

3. Democratic or participative style leader.

4. Paternalistic style leader.

1. Autocratic or Authoritarian Style Leader:

An autocratic also known as authoritarian style of leadership implies yielding absolute power. Under this style, the leader expects complete obedience from his subordinates and all decision-making power is

.

centralized in the leader. No suggestions or initiative from subordinates is entertained. The leader forces the subordinates to obey him without questioning. An autocratic leader is, in fact, no leader. He is merely the formal head of the organisation and is generally disliked by the subordinates. The style of leadership may be practiced to direct those subordinates who feel comfortable to depend completely on the leader.

2. Laissez-faire or Free-rein Style Leader:

Under this type of leadership, maximum freedom is allowed to subordinates. They are given free had in deciding their own policies and methods and to make independent decisions. The leader provides help only when required by his subordinates otherwise he does not interfere in their work. The style of leadership creates self-confidence in the workers and provides them an opportunity to develop their talents. But it may not work under all situations with all the workers and under all situations. Such leadership can be employed with success where workers are competent, sincere and self-disciplined.

3. Democratic or Participative Style Leader:

The democratic or participative style of leadership implies compromise between the two extremes of autocratic and laissez-fair style of leadership. Under this style, the supervisor acts according to the mutual consent and the decisions reached after consulting the subordinates. Subordinates are encouraged to make suggestions and take initiative.

.

It provides necessary motivation to the workers by ensuring their participation and acceptance of work methods. Mutual trust and confidence is also created resulting in job satisfaction and improved morale of workers. It reduces the number of complaints, employee's grievances, industrial unrest and strikes. But this style of leadership may sometimes cause delay in decisions and lead to indiscipline in workers.

4. Paternalistic Style Leader:

This style of leadership is based upon sentiments and emotions of people. A paternalistic leader is like a father to his subordinates. He looks after the subordinates like a father looks after his family. He helps guides and protects all of his subordinates but under him no one grows. The subordinates become dependent upon the leader.

II. Formal and Informal Leader:

Leadership style based on official Recognition/Relationship:

From the view point of official recognition from top management, leaders may be classified as under:

1. Formal Leader

2. Informal Leader

1. Formal Leader:

A formal leader is one who is formally appointed or elected to direct and control the activities of the subordinates. He is a person created by the formal structure, enjoys organisational authority and is accountable to those who have elected him in a formal way. The

.

formal leader has a two-fold responsibility. On the one hand, he has to fulfill the demands of the organisation, while on the other he is also supposed to help, guide and direct his subordinates in satisfying their needs and aspirations.

2. Informal Leader:

Informal leaders are not formally recognized. They derive authority from the people who are under their influence. In any organisation we can always find some persons who command respect and who are approached to help guide and protect the interest of the people. They are known as informal leaders.

The informal leaders have only one task to perform, i.e., to help their followers in achieving their individual and group goals. Informal leaders are created to satisfy those needs which are not satisfied by the formal leaders. An organisation can make effective use of informal leaders to strengthen the formal leadership.

III. The Managerial Grid:

Leadership style based on concern for production v/s concern for people:

Robert R. Brake and Jone S. Mounton developed the Managerial Grid which has been used as a means of managerial training and of identifying various combinations of leadership: (i) Concern for people; and (ii) concern for production.

There are five representative styles of leadership on the managerial grid:

.

1. Impoverished Management:

The first style (1.1) is the impoverished management under which the manager is least concerned with either people or production. "Exertion of minimum effort to get required work done is appropriate to sustain organisation members."

2. Country Club Management:

The country club management as shown in grid at 1.9 is one in which the management (leaders) have great concern for their people but lack production orientation. "Thoughtful action to needs of people for satisfying relationships leads to a comfortable friendly organisation atmosphere and work tempo."

3. Task Management:

"Efficiency in operations result from arranging conditions for work in such a way, that human elements interfere to a minimum degree." As shown in the grid at 9.1, the leaders with high concern for production fall under this style. Their concern for people, however, is minimum.

4. Team Management:

"Work accomplishment is from committed people, interdependence through a common stake in organisation purpose leads to relationships of trust and respect." As shown in the grid at 9.9, the leaders having high concern for production as well as people fall under this style.

5. Middle of the Road:

.

“Adequate organisation performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get out work while maintaining morale of people at a satisfactory level.” This has been shown in the grid at 5.5. The leaders of this style have medium concern for both people and production and try to maintain a balance in the two.

The managerial grid implies that the most desirable leader behaviour is team management (9.9) in which the leader has high concern for production as well as people. The managerial grid is useful for identifying various combinations of leadership styles. But it is unable to point out the factors which lead the manager to such a style.

V. Leadership Style Based on Decision Making:

Rensis Likert was the Director of Michigan Institute of Social Research, U.S.A. He conducted extensive research for fourteen years with the help of 40 researchers in the field of leadership. His famous writings include: New ‘Patterns of Management’ published in 1961 and ‘Human Organisation’ published in 1967.

Likert treats the organisation as a complex system based on the principle of supporting relationships, in which decision-making, leadership, motivation, communication and control move together. He was of the view that these variables are measurable and could be related to production and profit over time. He recognized the organisation as a social system made up of interrelated work groups having group loyalties. He was also of the view that traditional job oriented supervision was the cause of low productivity and low morale.

.

He suggested participating management in the field of decision-making.

He classified leadership styles into four categories:

(i) Exploitative Autocratic:

In this style, there is no participation of workers because these leaders have no confidence and trust in subordinates.

(ii) Benevolent Autocratic:

There is no proper confidence in subordinates and the relationship is that of a master and servant.

(iii) Participative:

The subordinates are allowed to participate in decisions involving their lives. Leader does not have full confidence in them.

(iv) Democratic:

In this style the confidence and trust in subordinates is full and they meaningfully participate in decision-making.

Leadership Functions:

Following are the important functions of a leader:

1. Setting Goals:

A leader is expected to perform creative function of laying out goals and policies to persuade the subordinates to work with zeal and confidence.

2. Organizing:

.

The second function of a leader is to create and shape the organisation on scientific lines by assigning roles appropriate to individual abilities with the view to make its various components to operate sensitively towards the achievement of enterprise goals.

3. Initiating Action:
The next function of a leader is to take the initiative in all matters of interest to the group. He should not depend upon others for decision and judgement. He should float new ideas and his decisions should reflect original thinking.

4. Co-Ordination:
A leader has to reconcile the interests of the individual members of the group with that of the organisation. He has to ensure voluntary co-operation from the group in realizing the common objectives.

5. Direction and Motivation:
It is the primary function of a leader to guide and direct his group and motivate people to do their best in the achievement of desired goals. He should build up confidence and zeal in the work group.

6. Link between Management and Workers:
A leader works as a necessary link between the management and the workers. He interprets the policies and programmes of the management to this subordinate and represent the subordinates' interests before the management. He can prove effective only when he can act as the true guardian of the interests of the subordinates.

.

Traits and skills for effective leadership

1. Self-aware

A good educational leader needs a solid understanding of oneself and should also have confidence. When you believe in yourself, you can accomplish so much more. Have confidence in the decisions you make, don't be nervous, and don't be afraid of what others may think. Plan how you'll start each and every day in ways that will lead your students, school, and colleagues in the right direction to achieve their goals.

2. Excellent communication skills

You can't lead a group of people if you don't speak with others! The best educational leaders are excellent communicators and know how to reach a variety of people in many different ways. For instance, a principal might have one-on-one chats with teachers each week and also send out a daily email update. This way, the principal takes the time to communicate in-person but also makes communication convenient by emailing the teachers as well. No matter what your job title is at your school, make sure you're constantly communicating with your colleagues, students, and others.

3. Resourceful

To be an effective leader, you need to be resourceful and open to new ideas. Especially during tough economic times, technology helps to change classrooms, and you need to be open to new ideas that will improve the way students absorb and retain information. You also need to know how to use the resources you have to the best of your ability—if you aren't sure, ask someone in the know. Take an online course. Get the answers you need; others around you will benefit greatly from this type of leadership mentality.

4. Lead by example

The best leaders in the educational system make it a point to lead by example, and not simply by words. It's easy to spell out rules and dictate them from an ivory tower, but this type of leadership will not have a large impact in your school. As an educator, you have *so* much influence on students. If you want students to speak kindly to one another in the hallways, you must always

.

speak kindly, too. If you want your students to show respect, *show* them what that means. This method is effective and powerful, and helps you teach students skills they will need for the rest of their lives.

5. Power of teaching and learning

Perhaps the most important trait of being an educational leader is believing in your students and the power of education. If you don't believe in your students or your colleagues, then everyone is doomed for failure. It's vital to believe in what your school is trying to accomplish each and every day, and to convey your enthusiasm for change, your own motivation to make things better, and your confidence in those around you. Your words and actions directly impact morale—show others your passion for education, and they'll feel it too.

Interpersonal Effective Leadership Skills

[Effective leadership](#) skills often focus on teams and team building for a reason: Business owners rely on their team and stakeholders to help them achieve success. Without buy in from your team, meeting your goals can be significantly harder.

1. Respect your employees.

Effective leadership often requires respect. You often have to give respect to your team in order to earn it back from them.

And if you don't have the respect of your team, then you may not be able to get the best possible work from them when it comes to supporting your business.

2. Be generous with your resources.

Generosity can also be a great trait for a leader. There are many different ways to express this trait to your team and other stakeholders. This can mean **supporting causes** or charity organizations. It can mean being generous in terms of team compensation. Or it can even mean being generous with your time or expertise.

.

Though many businesses may not have the means to provide tons of money to team members and causes, if you can show a willingness to help and support people in any way you can, people are likely to take notice.

3. Establish trust as an important value for your team and your customers.

Trust can be important when it comes to managing a team, as well as communicating with your customers, clients or prospects.

Aside from just being honest with your team and anyone else you communicate with throughout the course of running your business, this also means holding up your end of the deals you make. If you commit to an event or a new product launch, for example, sticking with those commitments can go a long way toward building trust with a variety of different stakeholders. As far as **effective leadership** skills go, it is one that you may not want to overlook.

4. Have some fun!

You might not think that fun is an essential leadership trait. But your team members are likely to spend a great deal of time working for your business. And if that doesn't include any fun, then they probably won't stick around or work as hard as they might otherwise.

However, if you're able to create an environment that includes just the right amount of **fun for your team**, you can potentially keep everyone happy and productive as they work toward achieving your business's goals.

5. Practice empathy with your team members.

Your team members are also likely to make mistakes or have other issues from time to time. Practicing empathy can help you create a more understanding environment where you treat each of your team members as individuals. If you

.

expect them to be perfect and leave them no room for learning or growth, you may hurt your team's morale and productivity.

UNIT-III

EDUCATIONAL POLICY AND ITS FORMULATION

a)Education policy consists of the principles and government policies in the educational sphere as well as the collection of laws and rules that govern the operation of education systems.

Or simply we can say that An Education Policy is a past or up to date statement or series of statements which explain, recommend or exclude a course of action or actions to be taken to run the system of education. These statements are usually written, but they could be oral.

Education occurs in many forms for many purposes through many institutions. Examples include early childhood education, kindergarten through to 12th grade, two and four year colleges or universities, graduate and professional education, adult education and job training. Therefore, education policy can directly affect the education people engage in at all ages.

Examples of areas subject to debate in education policy, specifically from the field of schools, include school size, class size, school choice, school privatization, tracking, teacher selection, education and certification, teacher pay, teaching methods, curricular content, graduation requirements, school infrastructure investment, and the values that schools are expected to uphold and model.

Issues in education policy also address problems within higher education. The Pell Institute analyzes the barriers experienced by teachers and students within community colleges and universities. These issues involve undocumented students, sex education, and federal grant aides.

There are several aspects to transition-related policies, including initial education, in particular vocational training in all its forms; continuing education, special arrangements for young people experiencing problems (underskilled, long-term unemployed, etc.); and incentives to hire young labour market entrants or take on trainees. The purpose of transition indicators is to help to identify those policies (in particular education policies) that are more effective than others.

There is probably no point in aiming for effectiveness by trying to fit the initial education system to the production system. Production is constantly evolving, and enterprises find it very hard to define their medium-term labour requirements in terms of quality or quantity. In any case, school-leavers will meet only part of those needs. Furthermore, career guidance and information procedures in today's world are persuasive rather than directive. It also takes time to introduce a new programme of initial education, and several years will pass before the first students qualify and enter the labour market. Their initial education would obviously be out of sync with developments occurring over the forty years of their working lives. So the effectiveness of initial education should be judged not on its capacity to give immediate access to employment but on its capacity to equip individuals to learn and adapt on a lifelong basis.

.

An analysis of the indicators also shows how difficult it is, even when making allowance for the social and economic context in each country, to identify stable causal links that could suggest universally successful policies. What is clear is that, in any country, high educational attainment is an asset in transition. Even if it were possible to raise youth attainment sharply, however, transition problems would still not be solved, in the short term at least. Besides, many apparently similar policies clearly produce different outcomes.

Apprenticeship is often cited as an effective policy and countries where it is common have fewer problems with access to the labour market. But a correlation is not necessarily a causal link. We must look at the reasons why apprenticeship is widespread and effective: apprentices are given training, to some extent by those in the trade; they hold jobs and receive wages. The capacity of the production system to invest in young people probably explains why apprenticeship is successful, and why transition status does not deteriorate as badly when the economic situation declines. But countries without any form of apprenticeship, even those with no school-based vocational pathways at all, also perform well when it comes to transition because enterprises invest differently, by hiring young people and training them on the job.

Transition from initial education to working life

The term "transition" is generally used to describe the complex process that leads young people out of initial education and into working life. The very word suggests a passage from an initial to a final state. Yet it is hard to suggest a precise definition that would be identical in every country (and operational in statistical surveys) for this transition from school to the world of work. Increasingly, but to differing degrees across countries, young people's lives are being marked by alternating periods of work and education and by periods of combined work and study, and their status often changes. The borders between work and education are blurred.

Transition is a process

With regard to transition, we have opted to be very pragmatic and extend the period of observation from the end of compulsory schooling to the end of the longest training courses (generally in higher education). In other words, observing and analysing transition amounts to observing and analysing what happens to young people between the ages of 15 and 29, be it education and training, employment or unemployment. The word "process" indicates the emphasis in this analysis on consecutive or combined spells of education, work, inactivity and unemployment. This is also a time when the young experience other transitions (moving out, setting up home alone or with a partner), which may have some impact on initial job options and mean switches from the pathways they have in many cases chosen before leaving compulsory education.

Components of the transition process

Continuing education beyond compulsory schooling is a significant feature of the transition process. Educational attainment, measured in terms of the highest qualification achieved or years of schooling, is a highly discriminatory variable[1]. Continuing education takes various forms (not all of them available in every country), including general education, school-based vocational training, apprenticeship, on-the-job training, and courses for young jobseekers.

The second feature of transition is work experience. This can be gained in a number of ways, i.e. time spent in work environment while still at school (usually organised by the school, but without a

.

real contract of employment), holiday work (or part-time jobs while studying), work as an apprentice, and stable or insecure jobs held without training.

Many young people experience spells of inactivity or unemployment during the transition process. This is a feature of youth mobility, whereas adult mobility can mean moving from job to job, without leaving the labour market or becoming unemployed. But while these spells are more common in the youth population, their number and duration can be extremely variable between the ages of 15 and 29. A distinction should be made between intentional mobility (job shopping) and unintentional mobility (jobs lost when firms close down; fixed-term contracts); the latter is far more detrimental, and more frequent among younger workers. The distinction is not unrelated to educational attainment, in that young people whose qualifications are recognised on the labour market have more control over their career development than those with fewer educational resources.

Policy formulation process: creating policies for the organization is an integral part of the process of planning. In order to ensure that the operations of the organization run smoothly, proper policies have to be formulated by the managers. However, a comprehensive process is involved in creating the most suitable policies for an organization. Therefore, the below mentioned process needs to be followed by the managers while creating policies for their organization:-

1. Identifying the policy area: first of all the managers are required to identify the particular field for which they are going to formulate the policy. At the same time, the managers are also required to consider the objectives as well as the demands of the organization. For example, when the managers are formulating policy related with marketing, they should keep in mind the expectations and the thrust areas of marketing for the organization. In the same way, the scope of the policy formulated by them depends on the area that such policy is going to cover. Therefore, it is a very important that first of all the managers identify the particular area that is going to be covered by the policy that they're going to create.

2. 2. Identifying various alternative policies: while creating a policy for the organization, the managers should identify all the policy alternatives that are available to them in a particular case. The available alternatives can be decided with the help of analyzing the external as well as internal environment of the organization. While the internal environment of the organization can help in describing the strengths and weaknesses of the organization, the external environment can help in identifying the opportunities and threats that are being faced by the organization. Therefore the alternative selected by the managers

should be capable of ensuring that the policy formulated by the managers can achieve its objectives.

3. 3. Assessing the alternatives: the various alternatives that are available to the managers need to be evaluated, keeping in mind the goals of the organization. The managers should evaluate how these alternatives can contribute towards the achievement of its goals by the organization. Therefore the factors like resource requirements, costs and benefits provided by each alternative have to be carefully examined by the managers. In the same way, while creating a policy, the managers should also evaluate the impact of different alternatives on the environment of the organization.

4. 4. Selecting the most appropriate policy: after the managers have carefully examined all the available alternatives, they should select the alternative that is most appropriate for their organization. In this regard, it needs to be noted that selecting a policy for the organization involves a long-term commitment. Therefore if the managers feel that a particular alternative may not be satisfactory, then they should work to find out other alternatives.

5. 5. Testing a policy: before implementing a policy in the organization, the managers should first implement the policy on a trial basis. This can help the managers in evaluating if the policy selected by them can achieve the objectives for which it was created. At the same time, when the policy has been implemented on a trial basis, valuable suggestions may be received from other members of the organization regarding the policy. These suggestions can help in introducing the necessary changes in the policy due to which it becomes even more effective. Therefore it is very important that the policy implemented in the organization should achieve the goals due to which it was implemented otherwise the managers should consider the implementation of a new policy.

6. Implementation of the policy: If it has been found during the trial period that the policy will prove to be successful in achieving its objectives, the policy should be implemented in the organization. However, it is very important that such a policy should be explained in detail to all the persons who are responsible for implementing the policy. For this purpose, a detailed discussion can also be held

regarding the probable implications as well as the impact of different provisions of the policy. Therefore if the policy has been properly communicated to the employees, the employees will be aware of the purpose and objective behind the policy and it will also help in the proper implementation of the policy.

7. **Main Considerations in Policy Formulation**: There are certain aspects that have to be kept in mind while formulating policies for the organization. These are:-
8. 1. Proper participation: while framing policies for the organization, it should be made sure that the members of organization working at different levels should take part in this process. On the other hand if the policies are created at the highest level of management without being aware of the views of the persons for whom these policies are being created, it is likely that the policy may not be successful in achieving the desired results. Therefore in order to ensure the successful implementation of policies, participation from all the concerned members of the organization is required while creating the policies.

9. 2. Organizational goals: Policies are created with a view to achieve the goals of the organization. These goals can be described as the targets which have to be achieved by the organization and in this way; the policies provide the methods through which these goals can be achieved. Policies should assist in achieving the organizational goals if they are based on relevant facts and figures and if they have not been created on the basis of guesswork.

10. 3. Reflect business environment: while creating the policies, the internal as well as the external environment of the organization needs to be considered. The reason is that the situations prevailing within and outside the organization can provide a realistic basis for these policies. At the same time, it is also necessary that the policy should be flexible enough so that it can be adjusted accordingly in case any change takes place in the business environment of the organization. On the other hand, the rigidity in policies may result in fulfilling the objective of the policies.

11. 4. Proper communication: it is also very important that the policies should be properly communicated to the members of the organization at all the levels. On

.

the other hand, if the persons who have to implement the policies are not aware of these policies, then the purpose of creating the policies will be defeated. In some cases, the members of the organization may not properly understand the purpose behind the policies or they may have certain doubts regarding the policies. Under these circumstances, it becomes the responsibility of the management to properly communicate these policies so that all the members of the organization are aware of the purpose behind the policies.

12. 5. Consistency: it is also necessary that the different policies adopted by the organization should confirm with each other. As a result, there should not be any inconsistency between the different policies adopted by the organization. In case of such an inconsistency, the policies could not be adopted properly. Therefore it is very important to make sure that all the policies are related with the objectives of the organization and at the same time they should not provide any conflicting guidelines.

5. In writing: a policy should always be in writing. This makes sure that the policy is implemented properly and correctly. On the other hand, if a policy is not available in writing, there can be a dispute regarding the purpose of the contents of such a policy. At the same time, it is also necessary that a policy should be written in simple language so that it can be easily understood by all the concerned persons.

POLICY RESEARCH

Researchers, research managers, policy advisers and service planners are all faced with a growing need for research that is timely and relevant. This programme builds on the links between research and policy in developing the particular skills and capacities needed by policy-oriented researchers, professionals and postgraduate students interested in carrying out public policy, social policy and social welfare research. We believe this is vital if researchers are to maximise the impact of their work in addressing issues of real concern to policy-makers.

The programme provides core research training in philosophy and research design in the social sciences, along with introductions to and further approaches in quantitative

.

and qualitative methods in the social sciences. It also offers optional units in areas of the school's particular research expertise, such as child and family welfare, gender and violence, health and social care, poverty and social exclusion, and policy-oriented evaluation.

We recognise that students will be joining with relevant - albeit varied - experience. Therefore, there will be opportunities for you to draw on your own experiences as researchers, managers and policy advisers and to share these with other participants on the programme. Those who have recently embarked on a career in policy research, or who hope to do so, will find the programme offers a unique combination of academic rigour, up-to-date policy content and relevant skills development.

Core units are taught in collaboration with other postgraduate programmes, providing a co-learning environment and giving you the opportunity to interact and share insights with other interest groups.

UNIT-IV

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

1. Introduction Planning in education is a continuous and a dynamic process and has to be closely monitored, updated, with respect to planning for equitable access such as infrastructure and expanding reach through ICT, related recruitment and deployment of teachers and other human resources; for quality such as training and continuous professional development of teachers, curriculum reforms, use of ICT, standardisation of pedagogy, examination etc. In addition, areas of planning like professional development, optimum utilization and rationalization of time, enhancing creative pursuits through research, interactivity etc. also are important and needs to be supported by planning for suitable infrastructure, vacancies and financial requirements. In addition, the planning tool should gradually and eventually become a tool for self-monitoring, self-appraisal and self-reflection. While, improving the access, equity and quality parameters of secondary education has been the focus of RMSA, equal importance is needed to demonstrate outcomes. The National Resource Group of RMSA therefore strongly recommends to transition towards a theme based approach than an activity based approach. ‘Whole

school based planning and implementation' becomes critical to ensure that all schools covered under RMSA benefit from all the components of the scheme.

National Education Priorities Recognising the importance of education in national development, the Twelfth Plan places an unprecedented focus on the expansion of education, on significantly improving the quality of education imparted and on ensuring that educational opportunities are available to all segments of the society (XII Plan, Govt. of India). The country has made big strides during the last six decades in the field of school education, with unprecedented expansion of school infrastructure and student enrolment. What initially began as a move towards universalising elementary education through Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan got greater fillip and a new perspective with the Right to Education Act. Consequent to these developments there has been an increasing demand for secondary education in the country1. Despite many gains, education in India faces several challenges. A matter of particular concern is the steep dropout rate after the elementary level. The sharp drop-off in enrolment at the middle school level and the increasing enrolment gap from elementary to higher secondary suggests that the gains at the elementary level have not yet impacted the school sector as a whole. Disadvantaged groups are worse off with the dropout rates for SCs and STs higher than the national average. Further, quality of education and learning outcomes at each stage of education is the central challenge facing the Indian education sector today. This is particularly critical since both macro- and micro-level evidence suggests that what matters for both national economic growth as well as individuals' ability to participate in this growth process is not the total years of education as much as the quality of education and value-addition for each successive year in school as represented by continuously improving learning outcomes and skills. Improving learning outcomes is crucial for inclusive growth and, therefore, a major focus of the Twelfth Plan is on measuring and improving learning outcomes for all children, with a clear recognition that increasing inputs (number of schools, classrooms, teachers and so on) will by themselves not be enough to ensure quality education for all children(XII Plan, Govt. of India). In this context, the launch of the 'Rashtriya Madhyamik Shiksha Abhiyan (RMSA)' in 2009 to achieve universal secondary education in a mission mode marked a major step in this direction. The vision of this programme is to make good quality education available, accessible and affordable to all young persons in the age of 14-18 years.

The major objectives of the RMSA are: (i) to ensure that all secondary schools have physical facilities, staffs and supplies at least according to the prescribed standards through financial support in case of Government/ Local Body and Government aided schools, and appropriate regulatory mechanism in the case of other schools; (ii) to improve access to secondary schooling to all young people's according to norms – through proximate location (say, Secondary Schools within 5 kms, and Higher Secondary Schools within 7-10 kms) / efficient and safe transport arrangements/residential facilities, depending on local circumstances including open schooling. However in hilly and difficult areas, these norms can be relaxed. Preferably residential schools may be set up in such areas; (iii) to ensure that no child is deprived of secondary education of satisfactory quality due to gender, socio-economic, disability and other barriers; and (iv) to improve quality of secondary education resulting in enhanced intellectual, social and cultural learning.

The 12th Plan document emphasizes the need for convergence of other secondary schools related schemes under the RMSA (as umbrella programme) and to subsume the four (4) other centrally Sponsored Schemes viz. ICT in Schools, Girls Hostel, IEDSS and Vocational Education under RMSA. Benefits to aided schools as of now are being limited to the current interventions under other schemes and to the exclusion of the core (infrastructure and salary) components of the existing RMSA provisions. At the State level, the convergence would certainly bring an integrated and inclusive (aided schools and higher secondary classes) planning and implementation. Since 2013-14, the State/UT level RMSA Society has been made the nodal agency for planning, implementation and monitoring of all components of RMSA and the four additional schemes In addition to integration, the planning norms across schemes can be innovatively allocated at the state level. For example, use of technology which cuts across districts and institutions could be optimized through standardised procurement guidance by the State and prioritized to districts and institutions which could really get benefitted through its use. For example, it may be very useful for blocks or districts which are facing serious teacher crunch.

.

The formulation of the New Education Policy (NEP) is an opportunity for the government to propose measures to improve the quality of school education in India. It is pertinent that this policy is based on evidence and constant experimentation, and is focused on improving the learning standards of all children.

To facilitate this discussion, I have identified five broad priorities for the NEP. These are: tracking the learning trajectories of all children, strengthening the role of school leadership[1] and school management committees (SMC)[2], improving school readiness by a strong preschool intervention, engaging private sector for innovation, and use of technology for implementing successful initiatives at scale. These policy interventions have the capacity to improve achievement levels of the children and provide opportunities for innovation, experimentation and scale.

Ensure timely and reliable learning data on all children

The emphasis on improving learning outcomes through the NEP is opportune. An important pre-condition to do so is to improve the capacity to design, administer and use data from robust and standardised learning assessments. We need to strengthen the entire framework of assessments - from classrooms to the district, state and national levels.

At the national level, the National Achievement Survey (NAS)[3] should be reformed and strengthened to provide a national benchmark for education, compare state performance, and monitor improvement. This could usher in a new generation of inter-state sharing of innovative programmes and policies which improve learning. At the state level, a similar role could be played by the State Learning Achievement Surveys (SLAS). They provide flexibility to the states to adapt assessments to the requirements of their own programmes and conditions, and provide granular and in-depth analysis.

.

Robust assessments would require strengthening of the enabling conditions (guiding policy documents, adequate funding, dedicated teams etc.) and improving technical capacity[4] Also, the assessments should be periodic (say, once every two years at the national level and annually at the state one), and cover both government and private schools with results made publicly available.

Strengthen school-based management

School management rests on the twin pillars of school leadership and SMCs. Unfortunately, the centralising tendency of the bureaucracy has ensured that decisions which can and should be taken at the school level are regularly 'passed up'. NEP should explicitly aim to institute a merit-based selection process for school leaders (which is the international norm and current policy in states like Gujarat), and put in place a continuous professional development programme for school leaders. Evidence suggests that involving communities through information dissemination, capacity building and devolution of authority can improve broad school parameters such as parental engagement and student attendance (Bruns et al. 2011). It should be ensured that the composition of SMCs is representative and there is clarity regarding their functions, roles and responsibilities[5]. This exercise needs to be guided by a rigorous external and internal evaluation of school quality, the results of which should be made available to parents and administrators.

Integrate early childhood education into the school system

India's previous policy goals have been primarily focused on universalising primary education. The NEP could break from the past by including early childhood education (ECE) as one of the critical levers. Global research establishes the significance of ECE for a child's future success (Heckman et al. 2009. It is critical that we introduce two years of free and compulsory pre-primary education and build awareness about the importance of ECE among parents. We also need a 'School Readiness Framework' that helps identify learning strengths and gaps of children entering grade 1 and assists the

.

teachers in providing focused support to students. To support this, we need to create a strong ECE curriculum with age-relevant skill development delivered by a well-trained and experienced cadre of teachers.

Engage the private sector

In recent years, the rapid growth of private schools across urban and rural areas has marked a dramatic change in the education landscape in India. In 2007-08, in grades 1 to 8, about 72% children were enrolled in government schools and 28% children in private schools; in 2013-14 these figures were 61% and 39% respectively. The share of private school enrolment for grades 1 to 8 has been growing at an annual rate of close to 6%. Given the size and scope of the private sector, there is a strong case for it to play a vital role in education provision[6]. The government needs to provide support through an effective regulatory environment, enabling clear autonomy and accountability norms.

We should start by simplifying the current regulatory framework and making it more outcome-focused. For example, changing input-focused norms for school recognition to a more nuanced system based on child learning and well-being could incentivise high-potential operators and entrepreneurs to enter the education sector. Also, providers need autonomy in admissions, fees and teacher deployment that allows them to innovate, particularly in customisation of instruction, staffing and other decisions affecting student outcomes. Increased school autonomy should ideally be accompanied by greater transparency and accountability in operations, with policymakers responsible for monitoring school quality (on the lines of Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted), UK or Knowledge and Human Development Authority (KHDA), Dubai)[7].

Leverage technology to bridge the ‘capacity gap’

Technology has the potential to provide personalised learning opportunities to students, scale-high quality training solutions for teachers and school leaders, and use real-time data for accountability and efficiency[8]. To achieve its true

.

potential, we must ensure universal access to reliable hardware and internet connectivity, and develop high-quality contextualised digital content and innovative tech-enabled learning models for delivering high-quality learning. Education departments should build robust data and management information systems at student, school and teacher levels and use them to guide policymaking, planning and resource allocation.

Conclusion

The NEP is an opportunity to create a roadmap for education excellence for the whole country. As education is a concurrent subject (falls under the purview of central and state governments), it is important that the Centre and states work on creating this roadmap together. The central government should incentivise the states to adopt some of the above-mentioned reforms and proactively invest in states with innovative ideas for improving learning and strong intent to execute them. The states should become laboratories for experimenting and tweaking reforms, which later could be scaled up. A well-designed NEP, with a strong focus on improving student learning, would do exactly that.

Notes:

1. School leadership recognises the role of a principal beyond that of an administrator. It includes providing academic leadership, teacher training and focus on student achievement.

2. Section 21 of the Right to Education (RTE) Act mandates the formation of School Management Committees (SMCs) which are elected bodies at the school level. They comprise parents, teachers and local administration. It is intended to provide parent members a platform to engage actively in school-level decision making.

3. The National Achievement Survey (NAS) is conducted by the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) every three years for different grades. For example, the cycle 3 for NAS (2009-2012) was for grades 3, 5 and

.

8. State Learning Achievement Surveys (SLAS), usually conducted by SCERTs, are state-level assessment with different timelines than NAS.

4. For more detail on implementing robust large-scale assessments, please seeGuidelines for Large-Scale Learner Assessments: Practices for Design, Implementation and Use of Assessments by States
5. There is a lot of innovation and local adaptation of the SMC model by state governments and non-governmental organisations (NGOs). Please see thisreport for details.
6. One important way in which the private sector could become involved in education is through its Corporate Social Responsibility programme. Also Section 12(1)(c) of the Right to Education (RTE) Act states that 25% of seats in private schools are to be reserved for economically and socially disadvantaged groups; the aim is to involve the private sector in achieving education for all. Yet there are considerable bottlenecks in its effective implementation.
7. World Bank has developed a framework for school systems to engage the private sector. It maps the policies and assesses them on their orientation towards promoting learning for all.