STUDY GUIDE
of
(Ph.D Education)

Specialization in EPM

EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT
Course Code: 4783

Department of Educational Planning, Policy Studies and Leadership
Faculty of Education, Allama Iqbal Open University
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FOREWORD

The world today is the world of competition. The overwhelming developments in educational, technological and socio-economic sectors demand dynamic management and leadership in the institutions that create advancing educational schematics of producing competent human resource. The technology especially in communications has already transformed our globe into a small village. Thus the prevailing domestic and international scenario essentially needs a learning environment that promotes research and change. This course is designed to respond to the emerging events. It seeks to provide managers with insights into mechanics of leadership. The leadership needs to be value driven in character and therefore, in taking a leadership approach to manage people and teams, the leader has to be equipped with the latest concepts of management practices.

The department of Educational Planning, Policy and Leadership (EPPSL), incepted in 1976, has a vision to build the professional capacity of the academia, administrators and managers coming from public-private institutions and the armed forces of Pakistan.

The study guide on Educational Leadership and Management is an effort to provide current information and new guidelines to the Ph.D. scholars enrolled at AIOU in Educational Planning and Management (EPM) programme. It is hoped that the course will provide latest knowledge and prepare skilled institutional managers who can faster new and dynamic institutional structures to meet the emerging needs of the nation.

I extend my facilitations to the course coordinator on the development of this course which will be of great value to scholars of Ph.D-EPM.

Prof. Dr. Mahmood ul Hassan Butt
Vice Chancellor

PREFACE

The department of Educational Planning, Policy and Leadership (EPPSL), incepted in 1976, has a vision to build the professional capacity of the academia, administrators and managers coming from public-private institutions and the armed forces of Pakistan. The department has already launched M.Phil./M.S Leading to Ph.D-EPM Programme. The course “Educational Leadership and Management” has been developed as an integral element of the programme. This is about leadership and management approaches to manage people and terms taking the lead to strategize and set the culture of the organization. It seeks to provide leaders with insights into mechanics of leadership. The leadership needs to be value driven in character and therefore, in taking a leadership approach to manage people and teams, the leader has to be clear about his/her own values and the way these are demonstrated through culture and management practices of the organization.

The words “Management and Leadership” are the subject of warm debate. These debates are concerned with the relationship between leadership and management whether management is a fundamentally different activity from leading or whether the two are really inter-changeable. The questions ‘do leaders manage’ and ‘do managers lead’ are at the heart of the debate. We take the view that leading is about vision and strategy and providing the inspiration to the people working in the organization so that the aims of the organisation can be achieved. Management is about putting the vision into practice and enabling the organization to function. Managing people involves recognition of human nature, life choices and, importantly, feelings and emotions. This course provides an insight into learn these skills.

The writers have tried to establish link between the resource materials and the topics or subtopics of the content for maintaining the consistency among reading.

I hope you will find this style interesting and workable. The material and study guide are presented for pilot testing. Your feedback will enable the coordinator to improve the course.

Thanks.

Dr. Hamid Khan Niazi
Chairman EPPSL Deptt.

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Introduction

The Department of Educational Planning, Policy Studies and Leadership (EPPSL) offers programmes aimed at producing a cadre of planners, managers and administrators in the field of education for both the private and public sectors. Pakistan has been striving hard to bring changes and reforms in the education system to make this system more effective and to meet the needs of the society. One of the major problems of the system is to provide leadership who can lead the educational systems to achieve the national goals of education system in the country.

This course mainly focuses on the educational management at various levels, especially management at district level for both private and public sectors. This course, as one of the courses of Ph.D specialization in EPM will provide students a deeper insight into the areas of planning, management and leadership through Ph.D specialization in the field of Educational Planning and Management (EPM).

Objectives:

After going through this course you will be able to:

- Understand the concept of educational management and leadership.
- Appreciate the leadership theories and strategies.
- Analyze the current scenario of educational leadership in Pakistan.
- Explore and apply the contemporary approaches to motivate the educational management and leadership.

Unit–1

EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

Written by: **Dr. Hamid Khan Niazi**
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1. Introduction

The term ‘Management’ is originally borrowed from the private sector to public sector. Educational management is the process of attaining the objectives of educational institutions by effectively and efficiently planning, organizing, leading and controlling the human, physical and financial resources. In this regard it is necessary to understand the concepts of autonomy, self management, its types and its explanation in the context of theory and practice. This unit, “Educational Management” focuses on these areas of educational management.

2. Objectives

- After going through this unit you will be able to:
- Understand the concept of autonomy.
- Appreciate the concept of Identity and Conceptions of the Self.
- Comprehend Management styles.
- Explore and apply the Management styles.
- Understand management theory and its applications.

3. The concept of autonomy

In the western tradition, the view that individual autonomy is a basic moral and political value is very much a modern development. Putting moral weight on an individual's ability to govern herself, independent of her place in a metaphysical order or her role in social structures and political institutions is very much the product of the enlightenment humanism of which contemporary liberal political philosophy is an offshoot.

(For historical discussions of autonomy, please study Schneewind 1988, Lindley 1986, Part I).

As such, it bears the weight of the controversies that this legacy has attracted. The idea that moral principles and obligations, as well as the legitimacy of political authority, should be grounded in the self-governing individual (considered apart from various contingencies of place, culture, and social relations) invites skeptics from several quarters. Autonomy, then, is very much at the vortex of the complex (re)consideration of modernity.

Put most simply, to be autonomous is to be one's own person, to be directed by considerations, desires, conditions, and characteristics that are not simply imposed externally upon one, but are part of what can somehow be considered one's authentic self. Autonomy in this sense seems an irrefutable value, especially since its opposite — being guided by forces external to the self and which one cannot authentically embrace — seems to mark the height of oppression. But specifying more precisely the conditions of autonomy inevitably sparks controversy and invites skepticism about the claim that autonomy is an unqualified value for all the individuals.

Autonomy plays various roles in theoretical accounts of persons, conceptions of moral obligation and responsibility, the justification of social policies and in numerous aspects of political theory. It forms the core of the Kantian conception of practical reason (Korsgaard 1996, Hill 1989) connect to questions of moral responsibility (Wolff 1970, 12-19). It is also seen as the aspect of persons that prevents or ought to prevent paternalistic interventions in their lives (G. Dworkin 1988, 121-29). It plays a role in education theory and policy, on some views specifying the core goal of liberal education generally (Gutmann 1987, for discussion, see Brig house 2000, 65-111). Also, despite many feminists reservations concerning the ideal of autonomy (about which more below), it is sometimes seen as a valuable conceptual element in some feminist ideals, such as the identification and elimination of social conditions that victimize women and other (potentially) vulnerable people (Friedman 1997, Meyers 1987b, Chrisman 1995).

4. Identity and conceptions of the self

Autonomy, as we have been describing it, certainly attaches to (and only to) individual persons; it is not (in this usage) a property of groups or peoples. So the autonomy that grounds basic rights and which connects to moral responsibility, as this concept is thought to do, is assigned to persons without essential reference to other people, institutions, traditions, or the like, in which they may live and act. Critics claim, however, that such a view runs counter to the manner in which most of us (or all of us in some ways) define ourselves, and hence diverges problematically from the aspects of identity that motivate action, ground moral commitments, and formulate life plans. Autonomy, it is argued, implies the ability to reflect wholly on oneself, to accept or reject one's values, connections, and self-defining features, and change such elements of one's life at will (Sandal 1982, 15-65). But we are all not only deeply enmeshed in social relations and cultural patterns, we are also defined by such relations. For example, we use language to engage in reflection but language is itself a social product and deeply tied to those various cultural forms. In any number of ways we are constituted by factors that lie beyond our reflective control but which nonetheless structure our values, thoughts, and motivations (Taylor 1991, 33f; for discussion see Bell 1993, 24-54). To say that we are autonomous (and hence morally responsible, bear moral rights, etc.) only when we can step back from all such connections and critically appraise and possibly alter them flies in the face of these psychological and metaphysical realities.

In a different manner, critics have claimed that the liberal conception of the person, reflected in standard models of autonomy, under-emphasizes the deep identity-constituting connections we have with gender, race, culture, and religion, among other things. Such “thick” identities are not central to the understanding of the self-governing person who, according to standard liberal models, is fully able to abstract from such elements of her self-concept and to either identify with or to reject them. But such an ideal too narrowly valorizes the life of the cosmopolitan “man” — the world traveler who freely chooses whether to settle into this or that community, identify with this or that group, and so on (for discussion, see Meyers 2000b).

These challenges have focused most pointedly on the relation of the self to its culture (Margalit & Raz 1990, Tamir 1993). What is at issue from a policy perspective is that emphasis on the individual's self-government, with the cosmopolitan perspective that this entails, makes it difficult if not impossible to ground rights to the protection and internal self-government of traditional cultures themselves (Kymlicka 1994). This is problematic in that it excludes those individuals and groups whose self-identity and value commitments are deeply constituted by cultural factors from the protection of liberal principles and policies. Or, conversely, the assumption that the autonomous person is able to separate himself from all cultural commitments forestalls moves to provide state protection for cultural forms themselves, insofar as such state policies rely on the value of autonomy.

There have been many responses to these charges on behalf of a liberal outlook (e.g., Kymlicka 1989, Gutman 1985, Buchanan 1989; for general response to question of cultural identities see Kymlicka 1997). The most powerful response is that autonomy need in no way require that people be in a position to step away from all of their connections and values and to critically appraise them. Mere piecemeal reflection is all that is required. As Kymlicka puts it: "No particular task is set for us by the society, and no particular cultural practice has authority that is beyond individual judgment and possible rejection" (Kymlicka 1989, 50). The model of autonomy upon which liberalism relies need not require that a person can define herself in a way separate from all relations and connections, or that social structures such as language and culture do not construct her life plan, perspective and values. But it does require that no single element in that construction is beyond review.

There is a clarification that is needed in this exchange, however. For insofar as defenders of liberal principles (based on the value of autonomy) claim that all aspects of persons' self- concept be subject to alteration in order to manifest autonomy, they needlessly exaggerate the commitments of the liberal position. For such a view is open to the charge that liberal conceptions fail to take seriously the permanent and unalterable aspects of the self and its social position (I. Young 1990, 46). Our embodiment, for example, is not something which we can alter other than marginally, and numerous other self-defining factors such as sexual orientation (for some), language ability, identification with traditions, cultures and races, and the like are not readily subject to our manipulation and transformation, even in a piecemeal manner. To say that we are heteronymous because of this is therefore deeply problematic. What must be claimed by the defender of autonomy-based liberalism is that the ability in question is to change those aspects of oneself from which one is deeply alienated (or with which one does not identify, etc.). For in those cases where, upon reflection, one experiences one's body, culture, race, or sexuality as an externally imposed burden constricting one's more settled and authentic nature, and still one cannot alter that factor, then one lacks autonomy relative to it (see Chrisman 2001).

5. Management styles

There are three main types of management styles. These are autocratic, consultative and democratic.

i. Autocratic

The autocratic management style is one where the manager is used to give instructions. They tell people what to do instead of asking for their opinion on the matter in hand. The manager is the only person contributing to the decision making process in the business.

ii. **Consultative**

The consultative management style is where managers consult other people before making a decision. This management style is the opposite of autocratic. This type of management style wants to collect more sources of information and opinions before any final decision is made. To do this successfully the business will have good communication channels so that the employees are able to give their opinions easily. The consultative manager will have to have listening skills and also the ability to create the right sorts of channels to consult other people.

iii. **Paternalistic**

A more paternalistic form is also essentially dictatorial; however the decisions tend to be in the best interests of the employees rather than the business. The leader explains most decisions to the employees and ensures that their social and leisure needs are always met. This can help balance out the lack of worker motivation caused by an autocratic management style. Feedback is again generally downward; however feedback to the management will occur in order for the employees to be kept happy. This style can be highly advantageous, and can engender loyalty from the employees, leading to a lower labour turnover, thanks to the emphasis on social needs. It shares similar disadvantages to an authoritarian style; employees becoming dependent on the leader, and if the wrong decisions are made, then all employees may become dissatisfied with the leader. The leader always leads them into brushing the floor.

iv. **Democratic**

In a **Democratic** style, the manager allows the employees to take part in decision-making: therefore everything is agreed by the majority. The communication is extensive in both directions (from subordinates to leaders and vice-versa). This style can be particularly useful when complex decisions need to be made that require a range of specialist skills: for example, when a new ICT system needs to be put in place and the upper management of the business is computer-illiterate. From the overall business's point of view, job satisfaction and quality of work will improve. However, the decision-making process is severely slowed down, and the need of a consensus may avoid taking the 'best' decision for the business. It can go against a better choice of action.

v. **Laissez-faire**

In a **Laissez-faire** leadership style, the leader's role is peripheral and staff manages their own areas of the business; the leader therefore evades the duties of management and uncoordinated delegation occurs. The communication in this style is horizontal, meaning that it is equal in both directions, however very little communication occurs in comparison with other styles. The style brings out the best in highly professional and creative groups of employees, however in many cases it is not deliberate and is simply a result of poor management. This leads to a lack of staff focus and sense of direction, which in turn leads to much dissatisfaction, and a poor company image.

6. Management: Theory and practice

Discussion regarding theory and practice has been presented under the following paragraphs:

6.3 Managerial Work: Folklore and fact

The gulf between the myths about managerial work and the actual reality of it is eloquently discussed in Mintzberg's classic: 'The manager's job: folklore and fact' (see your Readings). Mintzberg's observational study of five chief executives, and previous surveys of managers, was used to support his argument that many definitions of managerial work are pure folklore, idealized versions of what managers try to do. Mintzberg concluded from the work activities he observed, that there is considerable similarity in the behaviour of managers at all levels. These behaviors, he suggests, can be best described "in terms of various 'roles' or organized sets of behaviors identified with a (job) position" (Mintzberg, 1975:54).

According to Mintzberg (1975), different aspects of a manager's job cause managers at all levels to be involved in a series of interpersonal, informational, and decisional roles. In Mintzberg's view, receiving and communicating information is perhaps the most important aspect of a manager's job. To get up-to-date, relevant information for decision making purposes the manager engages in a number of key liaison (networking), monitor and disseminator roles. Notice that these behaviours cross the role classes; as Mintzberg stresses, the ten roles are not easily separable, they form an integrated whole or 'gestalt'. Do you think Mintzberg's role classes provide a more realistic description of managerial work?

6.4 Types of managers

Another way of distinguishing managers, other than their level in the organisational hierarchy is by functional area and skill mix (Katz, 1974). Each functional area (e.g. finance, marketing, R & D) tends to require different types of specialized managers, experienced in that function's particular activities. Management skills also differentiate managers at different organisation levels. For example, technical skills (i.e. the ability to use tools, operate machinery, supervise the work of employees) are often associated with first-line or supervisory managers.

Interpersonal skills reflect a manager's ability to work effectively as a group member and to build cooperative effort within the team (i.e. motivate individuals and groups). Although important at every management level, this skill is often crucial at that level where the greatest amount of manager/employee interaction occurs. At the highest level, conceptual and diagnostic skills reflect the manager's need to see the big picture and take decisions that affect the whole organisation. This implies that managerial responsibility increases the further you move up the organizational hierarchy.

Activity

Now assess your own conceptual, social, and technical skills by completing the Management Aptitude Questionnaire at the end of this Study Guide. Ideally, you should be strong in all three abilities, though not necessarily equal.

6.5 Changing paradigm of management

Managers work within organisations, systems made up of interrelated parts that need to be designed and managed to achieve specific goals. This is what distinguishes an organisation from an unrelated collection of individuals: "people working together in a coordinated and structured fashion to achieve one or more goals" (Barney & Griffin, 1992: 5). Today the growing diversity of the workforce is placing increasing pressure on managers to understand the demands of women and people from diverse ethnic and cultural backgrounds for increased power and responsibility. To make the necessary structural changes to accompany these demands, managers have to learn to welcome and incorporate diversity in their thinking and behaviours. Fundamental changes in manager's mind sets, referred to as 'paradigm shifts', are vital if managers are to cope with major changes such as workplace diversity and globalization.

Globalization, workplace diversity, and increased competition are changing the nature of managerial work. Managers, faced by uncertain environments, little job security, and cutbacks in personnel and resources, are finding they can no longer realistically predict and control future events. They are being encouraged to accept the precepts of chaos theory and develop mind-sets that value fluidity, adaptability and innovation. From this paradigm of thinking, organisational structures are becoming flatter and frontline workers are encouraged to adopt new decision making roles. Essentially in the new paradigm, the primary responsibility of management is to create learning capability throughout the organisation. Learning is often encouraged in self-managed teams whereby individuals share knowledge and experiences across levels and departments (Moravec, Johannessen, & Hjelmas, 1997). In this environment, managers develop and clearly articulate core values for attaining organisational goals and long-term outcomes. Note that in the new paradigm, there is little movement vertically as a career path. In a learning organisation, managers move horizontally. Accepting new project management roles provides one opportunity to develop your own and others' capabilities.

To conclude, let us consider the scope of a manager's job. Management is a function that occurs throughout all types of organisations in a society. In your course text, Davidson and Griffin classify management in profit-seeking (i.e. large business, small business) and non-profit organisations (i.e. public sector, education, healthcare, non-traditional). Notice that whatever the organisational context, managers are responsible for employing practices that achieve organisational goals in an efficient and effective manner. Ultimately this activity necessitates a synthesis of management theory (rational objectivity) and practice (intuitive insight).
(For details study Unit 1 of the study materials)

7. Self-Assessment questions

1. Define management. How is this different from administration?
2. Elaborate different types of management with the help of suitable examples.
3. What are the essential elements of a good educational manager?
4. Review the myths about managerial word and actual reality.

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Unit–2

LEADERSHIP THEORIES

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Dr. M. Altaf Qureshi
Reviewed by: **Dr. S. Hassan Raza**

1. Introduction

Interest in leadership increased during the early part of the twentieth century. Early leadership theories focused on what qualities distinguished between leaders and followers, while subsequent theories looked at other variables such as situational factors and skill level. While many different leadership theories have emerged, most can be classified as one of eight major types:

2. Objectives

After going through this unit you will be able to:

- Understand the concept of educational management and leadership.
- Appreciate the leadership theories and strategies.
- Analyze the current trends in educational leadership in Pakistan.
- Explore and apply the process of development of competencies in educational leadership

3. Leadership theories

3.1 Great Man theories:

Great Man theories assume that the capacity for leadership is inherent – that great leaders are born not made. These theories often portray great leaders as heroic, mythic, and destined to rise to leadership when needed. The term "Great Man" was used because, at the time, leadership was thought of primarily as a male quality, especially in terms of military leadership.

3.2 Trait theories:

Similar in some ways to "Great Man" theories, trait theory assumes that people inherit certain qualities and traits that make them better suited to leadership. Trait theories often identify particular personality or behavioral characteristics shared by leaders. But if particular traits are key features of leadership, how do we explain people who possess those qualities but are not leaders? This question is one of the difficulties in using trait theories to explain leadership.

3.3 Contingency theories:

Contingency theories of leadership focus on particular variables related to the environment that might determine which particular style of leadership is best suited for the situation. According to this theory, no leadership style is best in all situations. Success depends upon a number of variables, including the leadership style, qualities of the followers, and aspects of the situation.

3.4 Situational theories:

Situational theories propose that leaders choose the best course of action based upon situational variable. Different styles of leadership may be more appropriate for certain types of decision-making.

3.5 Behavioral theories:

Behavioral theories of leadership are based upon the belief that great leaders are made, not born. Rooted in behaviorism, this leadership theory focuses on the actions of leaders, not on mental qualities or internal states. According to this theory, people can *learn* to become leaders through teaching and observation.

3.6 Participative theories:

Participative leadership theories suggest that the ideal leadership style is one that takes the input of others into account. These leaders encourage participation and contributions from group members and help group members feel more relevant and committed to the decision-making process. In participative theories, however, the leader retains the right to allow the input of others.

3.7 Management theories:

Management theories (also known as "Transactional theories") focus on the role of supervision, organization, and group performance. These theories base leadership on a system of reward and punishment. Managerial theories are often used in business; when employees are successful, they are rewarded; when they fail, they are reprimanded or punished.

3.8 Relationship theories (Transformational theories):

Relationship theories focus upon the connections formed between leaders and followers. These leaders motivate and inspire people by helping group members see the importance and higher good of the task. Transformational leaders are focused on the performance of group members, but also want each person to fulfill his or her potential. These leaders often have high ethical and moral standards.

3.9 Contingency Leadership Theory:

This theory is developed by Paul Hersey, the leadership guru and author of the "One Minute Manager". It is also referred as Situational Leadership theory although, as originally convened, the situational theory term is much more restrictive. The original situational theory argues that the best type of leadership is totally determined by the situational variables. Currently there are many styles of leadership. The first Transactional or authoritative leadership focuses on Power and status. A second leadership style, transformable or charismatic leadership focuses on "unique qualities surrounding charisma (Aldoory, Tooth). A third leadership style pluralistic leadership revolves around group decision making, this style values the opinions of others. The Situational Leadership theory argues that no one style of leadership pertains to all given workplace situations. Rather, "scholars have asserted that effective leaders change their leadership styles to fit the situation" (Aldorry, Tooth). Thus, a leader's style changes with both the situations they are faced with and the environment that they are in. The theory suggests that not only can leaders alter their leadership styles but that they should be depending on the situation at hand. . According to a recent study, successful use of Situational Leadership "relies on effectiveness in four communication components;

communicating expectations, listening, delegating, and providing feedback (Baker, Brown).

There are many ways in which a situation effects the method of leadership a supervisor would employee. In their study The Role of the Situation in Leadership, Doctors Victor H Vroom, and Arthur G Jago have identified three distinct roles in which the situation affects leadership. The first role the situation plays in affecting leadership is that situations outside a leaders control may affect the effectiveness of the overall organization. Often when the organization is in trouble the blame is placed on leaders. Many times these leaders have little to no control over the state of the organization. However, when measuring a leader's effectiveness in such situations one must look at how they respond to what they can control such as their subordinates. A second finding of Vroom and Jago is that Situations shape how leaders behave. According to Vroom and Jago, "Their research, showing that situation accounts for about three times as much variance as do individual differences." A third and final finding of Vroom and Jago is that Situations influence the consequences of a leader's behavior. According to Vroom and Jago "a leadership style that is effective in one situation may prove completely ineffective in a different situation" (Vroom and Jago). Thus, the choice of leadership style one uses may bring about either positive or negative consequences depending on the given situation. The Situational Leadership theory allows leaders to make a choice which ultimately predicts their effectiveness. Although this style of leadership is new, it views as highly successful, and thus, leaders who follow the situational model are considered successful leaders. Job satisfaction, willingness to work and performance were all rated highest with Situational Leadership. Four situational/contingency leadership theories appear more prominently in the recent years: Fiedler contingency model, Vroom-Yetton decision model, the path-goal theory, and the Hersey-Blanchard situational theory.

3.10 Social exchange theory

All relationships have give and take, although the balance of this exchange is not always equal. Social Exchange theory explains how we feel about a relationship with the another person as depending on our perceptions of:

- The balance between what we put into the relationship and what we get out of it.
- The kind of relationship we deserve.
- The chances of having a better relationship with someone else.

In deciding what is fair, we develop a *comparison level* against which we compare the give/take ratio. This level will vary between relationships, with some being more giving and others where we get more from the relationship. They will also vary greatly in *what* is given and received. Thus, for example, exchanges at home may be very different, both in balance and content.

We also have a comparison level for the alternative relationships. With a high such comparison level, we might believe the world is full of lovely people just waiting to meet us. When this level is low, we may stay in a high-cost relationship simply because we believe we could not find any better elsewhere.

4. Leadership development: Current trends

4.1 Leadership shortages

53% of organizations recently surveyed face leadership shortages, most of which are at the mid-management and director level (High-Impact Leadership Development: Best Practices, Industry Solutions, and Vendor Profiles, Bersin & Associates, 2007).

With this crisis in full swing, the survey reported the biggest business drivers for leadership development programs are to:

- increase the pool of internal leadership candidates
- reduce gaps in leadership skills
- grow leaders more quickly

Additional research from the Hay Group reports talent and leadership shortages for many businesses around the world. Consequently, focusing on identifying and managing the talents of high potential candidates will rise to the top of corporate agendas *(Hay Group, "Best Practices for Leaders," 2006).*

4.2 Leadership development creates significant business benefits

Enlightened companies, already working to address leadership shortages, have formalized leadership development programs in place. According to recent research, those with the most mature programs are realizing significant business benefits including:

- 600% increase in overall business impact from leadership development
- 640% improvement in leadership bench strength
- 480% improvement in leader engagement and retention
- 570% improvement in overall employee retention

(High-Impact Leadership Development: Best Practices, Industry Solutions, and Vendor Profiles, Bersin & Associates, 2007).

Additional research links leadership development to shareholder return. The research found that top companies who identify and foster leadership talent perform better on the stock market. Their average 5 year total shareholder return beat the S&P 500 over the same period by 3.53% *(Hay Group, "Best Practices for Leaders," 2006).*

5. Competencies for leadership development

(1) What is required for top leaders? A recent survey of 101 organizations reports the top 10 competencies chosen for leaders are:

  (a) Leading employees
  (b) Building and mending relationships
  (c) Risk-taking, innovation
  (d) Change management
  (e) Influencing, leadership, power
  (f) Communicating information, ideas
  (g) Brings out the best in people
  (h) Taking action, making decisions, following through listening

(i) Flexibility

(2) The competencies least chosen were:
(a) Sales
(b) Marketing
(c) Coping
(d) Innovator
(e) Decision maker
(f) Business knowledge
(g) International business
(h) Perspective taking
(i) Negotiator
(j) Cultural adaptability

(William Gentry and Jean Brittan Leslie, "Competencies for Leadership Development: What's Hot and what's Not When Assessing Leadership-Implications for Organizational Development," Center for Creative Leadership, 2007).

6. Critical success factors for leadership development

Research shows that leadership practices at global top companies are an inherent part of the culture, and that developing future leaders is simply a way of operating that must be intertwined with running the business *(Global Top Companies for Leaders, Hewitt Associates, 2007)*

Hewitt identified five key areas that set the Global Top Companies apart from other companies around the world – 3 of those focus on leadership development:

- A Strategic business commitment to developing leaders
  - 85% ensure that the selection and development of leaders is aligned with their business strategies, compared with only 32% of all other companies
  - 85% of Global top companies say leadership development is a high priority to senior management in the organization, compared to just 45% of other companies
- A senior-level commitment to developing leaders
  - 85% of senior management at Global Top Companies say they spend at least 20% of their time on leadership development initiatives, compared to only 52% of all other companies
- A clear expectation of desired leadership behaviors
  - 85% believe that the desired leadership behaviors are well understood at all levels of the organization, compared with just 37% of other companies.

7. Best practices for leadership development

Best practices for corporate leadership development, as determined by a recent study from the Hay Group, include:

- Having leaders at all levels who focus on creating a work climate that motivates employees to perform at their best.

- Ensuring that the company and its senior management make leadership development a top priority.
- Provide training and coaching to help intact leadership teams, as well as the individual leaders.

Also identified were best practices that need to start with mid-level managers:

- Rotational job assignments for high potential.
- External leadership development programs for mid-level managers.
- Web-based self-study leadership modules for mid-level managers.
  Executive MBA programs for mid-level managers.
- Self-Leadership: leadership that stresses the individual responsibility of employees to develop their own work priorities aligned with organizational goals

8. Self-Assessment questions

1. Appreciate the concept of leadership and power.
2. Compare and contrast different theorist leadership.
3. Critically analyze the situational theories.
4. Critically review current trends in leadership.

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Unit–3

LEADERSHIP AND STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT

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1. Introduction

As a leader responsible for the competitive development of your organisation, as well as a desire to keep ahead of the game, you have a responsibility to ensure that you are fully aware of new strategies and developments that can impact upon your personal growth as a leader of others. Strategy and leadership provide managers and insight in the following ways:

a *Strategy and leadership* gives you insight into your own leadership abilities without wasting your time. Each issue brings you informed opinion from leading specialists, gives you professional support and looks at strategies, tools and techniques from an objective position.

b *Strategy and leadership* explains the how and why in order to keep you clearly focused. Its thoughtful, in-depth analysis and advice tells where you should be going and what to avoid on your journey.

c *Strategy and leadership* is a bi-monthly briefing that brings you the thoughts, advice and analysis of some of the world's current revolutionary thinkers. Your subscription will show you:

- How to improve existing leadership skills and develop new skills
- Maintain a competitive position for your organisation
- Motivate your workforce
- Adapt strategies in the light of technological change
- Reassess current strategies based on practical insights into how other organisations have structured and managed change for a success
- Consider new theories that could reshape current thinking and create future success
- Benefit from the advice of prominent futurists
- Learn from the experiences of leading CEOs and avoid the pitfalls that they have encountered
- Select, develop and retain senior colleagues who will help you steer your organisation in the future
- Stay one step ahead of the competition - both internally and externally
- Gain an insight into competitors' strategies
- Keep abreast of the latest trends in strategic planning
- Implement successful strategies for your organization

2. Objectives

After going through this unit you will be able to:

– Understand the concept of organizational performance and strategic management process.
– Acquaint with salient terms like intent, mission, values, vision and strategy
– Analyze the factors affecting strategies.
– Explore and identify various values of an organization and evaluate the strategy implementation process of a programme and project.

3. Organizational performance:

A five-component approach to promote successful organizational performance is described below:

a. Vision formulation which leads to the statement of the Mission

b. The mission is then converted into performance Objectives

c. To achieve objectives you develop Strategies
d. Strategy Implementation
e. Evaluation of Performance

4. Strategic management process

a. This is a six-stage process, run in-house usually by a Strategic Management Group. It is supported by various consultants and accessible to external stakeholders. A useful method for public and voluntary organizations
   (1) Historical context, examination of previous trends and the emergence of a future vision for the way ahead
   (2) Situational Assessment, blame free SWOT Analysis of the present situation
   (3) Strategic Issue Agenda, identify issues from points 1 and 2 above and acknowledge the relationships that exist between points 4-7
   (4) Strategic Options, define as many positive solutions to meet the SWOT analysis and future vision. Define strategies, and outline costs, feasibility, acceptability and effectiveness.
   (5) Feasibility Assessment, a selection of strategies is examined through Stakeholder Analysis and Resource Analysis.
   (6) Implementation, to evaluate the stakeholders' predictions, a series of evaluation programmes is devised.
b. Within each stage above, 3 basic steps are followed
   (1) Search, for ideas and information
   (2) Synthesis, observation of patterns, trends
   (3) Selection, determine priorities for action
c Within these 3 basic steps, 4 alternative criteria are used to assist using the best technique
   (1) Quality
   (2) Acceptance
   (3) Innovation
   (4) Preservation

5. Strategic intent

Any successful business—large or small—didn't achieve success on good ideas alone. Succeeding in the business world requires what professors Gary Hamel and C.K. Prahalad term "strategic intent."
Strategic intent, they explain, is a business' long-term, far-reaching goal. In order to determine your business' strategic intent, you must not only consider what you want in the next five or ten years, but what you want to accomplish in a 50 year timeframe.

For example, decades ago, Coca-Cola's strategic intent was for there to be a Coke within the reach of every human being on the planet. This seemed like a crazy idea at the time, but think about how prevalent Coke products are these days. By developing a vision of the future and developing long-term goals, Coca-Cola made enormous strides in developing their brand.

The main tenets of strategic intent planning are direction, discovery and destiny.

5.1. Sense of direction includes an understanding about the long-term market or competitive position that a firm aims to build over the next decade. Your sense of direction should be a view of the future that conveys a unifying and personalizing sense of direction.

5.2. Sense of discovery. Your strategic intent should retain a sense of discovery and excitement about the future. This helps create a competitively unique outlook and gives employees the opportunity to explore new competitive territories.

5.3. Sense of destiny. Strategic intent has an emotional edge to it and it should be a goal that both you and your employees perceive as inherently worthwhile. However, strategic intent is not just a concept; it's also a three-step process.

5.3.1 Set the strategic intent (having all three characteristics stated above).

5.3.2. Set the challenges: find appropriate challenges and communicate them to the entire workforce. These challenges are the means to get into the Strategic Intent. (For example: Suppose the Strategic Intent of Google is: Allow end users to access all of the information of the Internet with the click of a mouse. A strategic challenge could be: Come up with a search engine capable of producing accurate search results.)

5.3.3. Empowerment of the strategic intent: The strategic intent works best when everyone is invested in its goals. Managers and business owners should keep in mind the "wisdom of the anthill" and challenge traditional downward communication styles.

5.3.4. Defining your strategic intent: It clarifies objectives for both you and your employees. By setting out your strategic intent, you make clear your company's goals and help set the path for future successes

6. Mission

The vision formulation which leads to the statement of the Mission

- What is business?
- What will be the business?
- It establishes long-term direction
- It needs to use simple terminology
- It needs to be inspirational
- Recognition of threats and opportunities
- Entrepreneur

6.1 Components of the mission statement

- The needs to be served by the company
- The targeted customer group
- How the company will provide the product/service

6.2 The mission is then converted into performance objectives

- Measurable statements
- Specified performance
- Specified time
- Short-range objectives
- Long-range objectives
- Top-down rather than bottom-up

7 Types of performance yardsticks

- Financial objectives
- Strategic objectives

8. Strategies: To achieve objectives you develop strategies

- Action steps
- The concepts of unified and consistent strategies
- The moves and approaches used to achieve objectives
- Dynamic
- Continual review and refinement
- Adjust to internal and external forces

8.1. Levels of strategies

- Corporate game plan for a diversified company
- Business game plan for single business
- Functional strategy initiatives of one part of a business
- Operating initiatives of key operating units

8.2. Factors affecting strategies

- Society forces
- Political and regulatory forces
- Citizenship considerations
- The industry and competitive conditions
- Opportunities and threats
- Organizational strengths and weaknesses
- Personal managerial ambitions
- Ethical considerations
- Company culture

9. Vision

Customers regard an organization's wholesale and retail formats as their first choice when buying those categories of merchandise offered by the formats. Suppliers will regard the organization as a valued partner in accessing and understanding their end consumers. Career retailers will regard the same organization as the preferred employer in the distribution industry, whereas the Investors will regard that organization as a portfolio rendering superior growth and total returns at relatively lower risk than alternative wholesale and retail investments. The community will regard it as a sensitive, caring, trustworthy, corporation. These are the visions of different categories about organization and thus the organization ultimately chalks out its mission statement accordingly.

10. Values

Different organizational values are diversity, dignity and respect, integrity and trust, stewardship and accountability and entrepreneurship.

11. Strategic implementation: It can be expressed as:

i. A process by which strategies and policies are put into action through the development of programs, budgets, and procedures is called strategic implementation.
ii. The methods by which strategies are operationalize or executed within the organization; it focuses on the processes through which strategies are achieved

Strategy Implementation involves the following:

a. making it happen
b. structuring an organization
c. budgeting
d. motivating
e. creating reward structures
f. creating work environment
g. information and reporting systems

12. Evaluation of Performance

- review process
- adjust mission
- adjust objectives
- adjust strategies
- initiate corrective measures

N.B: For details please study Unit 3 of the allied material.

13. Self-assessment questions

1. Differentiate between a leader and a manager.
2. Comment on the relationship between leadership and strategy.
3. Explain the process of strategic management.
4. Elaborate the internal and external environment of management.
5. Critically review the concepts of strategic vision and strategic outcomes.

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Unit–4

LEADERSHIP STRATEGIES

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1. Introduction

Leadership is the energy behind every court system and court accomplishment. Fortunately, and contrary to what many believe, leadership is not a mysterious act of grace. Effective leadership is observable and, to a significant extent, learnable. Academic debate about the difference between leadership and management has resulted in consensus that a difference exists, but it is not a matter of better or worse. Both are systems of action. In the memorable words of Warren Bennis, "Managers do things right. Leaders do the right things."

- Management deals with complexity. Leadership deals with change and growth. Managers oversee and use control mechanisms to maintain predictability and to ensure coordination, follow through, and accountability. They know how to get things done. Leaders think about, create, and inspire others to act upon dreams, missions, strategic intent, and purpose. Courts have an obvious need for both management and leadership.
- While leadership involves power and its use, at its best it is an influence relationship among leaders and followers that reflects mutual purposes and collective results more than hierarchy, and relations between superiors and inferiors. Clearly, many can and must be leaders. Leadership is defined by specific situations, contributions to enterprise-wide purposes, and relationships.
- Leadership that creates and sustains improvements has an ethical and inspirational dimension. Among many others, James MacGregor Burns in *Leadership* correctly asserts that "leadership exists, when one or more persons engage others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality." Court leaders, both judges and court managers, **must** work well in judicial executive teams. They must influence and be influenced by others.
- When circumstances demand it, leaders use power to guide the thoughts and actions of their followers, both inside and outside the court. Often, however, followers don't need or want to be led. Good leaders understand this. Leaders listen to, empower, and are moved by others. There is, however, more to court leadership than power, listening, empowering, and relating to others. Courts need leaders who at once create, protect, and maintain routines and take risks, question the status quo, and stimulate growth and change. Courts that succeed have leaders with enough intellectual and emotional intelligence to resist unwarranted intrusions on established routines and relationships in the short run and to insist on change that interrupts established routines and relationships in the interest of improved court performance in the long run. James Thompson, in his classic *Organizations in Action*, calls the necessary continuous striving for both certainty and flexibility "the paradox of administration." Courts need leaders equal to this challenge.
- Effective court leaders create, implement, and nurture a clear and compelling vision for the court. Leaders embody ethics and recognize and reward excellence on both sides of the predictability and flexibility challenge. Leaders model behavior courts need inside and outside the organization. Leaders empower others and encourage their hearts. Leaders understand themselves, work well with others, use effective group processes, and communicate effectively.

- Competent leadership improves people and tasks, two key variables in courts and court systems. Absent leadership excellence, courts and court systems cannot take or maintain effective action.

2. Objectives

- After going through this unit you will be able to:
- Understand the concept of educational leadership and tasks of an effective leader
- Appreciate the leadership strategies.
- Analyze different types of leadership in Pakistan.
- Explore different leadership types and their applications in various organizations
- Identify different mistakes that a leader can make and their corrective measures.

3. Strategies of a leader

A strong leader is always thinking ahead - anticipating - ready with solutions when problems arise. S/he has a finger on the pulse of staff and customers alike and uses that information to grow the department/company.

Here are 7 leadership strategies include in my coaching sessions with managers and entrepreneurs. They'll help you reach your potential too.

i. Effective leaders master their time

Effective leaders are relentless about clearing items their off to do list. What's more, it helps them control their time.

Once a focused leader decides that what is in front of him/her is important, they will focus and deal with it. If it takes 90 minutes instead of the scheduled 60 minutes, then so be it.

This habit can be frustrating to others, but it makes a major difference in a leader's effectiveness. Critical conversations and transactions are consistently brought to closure. Result? Fewer matters remain unresolved and leaders are free to focus their attention elsewhere.

ii. Three questions to boost productivity

As the number of knowledge workers continues to grow, it becomes increasingly urgent for managers and leaders to find ways to measure and boost their productivity. Ask your knowledge workers three questions:

- What tasks do you perform?
- What do you believe you should contribute to the organization?
- What prevents you from getting your work done?

Whether they are programmers, editors, surgeons, analysts or urban planners, knowledge workers almost always know the answers to these questions. Find ways to take action based on those answers and productivity will rise.

iii. Work/life balance a leadership issue

In times of uncertainty, employees often put in long, long hours. That leads to burnout. Workers suffer and so does their work.

To ensure that employees' personal time remains personal, take these anti-burnout measures:

Limit or do away with Friday meetings. Allow your employees to enter weekends free of work-related responsibilities.

Alter travel weekends. Limit employees' nights having away from their home.

Limit technological "tethers." It's difficult to be off the job if staff feels compelled to check voicemail, e-mail, their PDAs and pagers. Ban calls and emails that require a response on weekends, evenings or vacations unless it's an emergency. You can't grow a department/company on a foundation of exhausted staff.

Even in a tough economy, top performers often find new jobs. Don't lose your most valuable resource to stress and burnout.

iv. Silence is golden

You might be surprised to learn that many leaders' most harmful behavior is adding too much value. This behavior is triggered the moment an executive comes to the senior leader with an idea that s/he thinks is really good. "Great idea!" the leader enthusiastically agrees. But because s/he can't resist, the leader gives "input" about executing the idea.

This may improve the idea by 5 percent, but the incremental increase is drastically offset by as much as 30 percent. Why? The executive who conceived the idea feels a loss of ownership. His/her commitment to execute the idea is substantially weakened.

Express enthusiasm for fresh ideas while keeping improvements to you. I tell my coaching clients: The higher up you get on the corporate ladder, the more you need to make other people winners.

One of my clients really took that advice to heart. Once he got into the habit of curbing his impulse to "add value," the manager realized that half of what he had to offer wasn't worth mentioning. He realized he had more to gain by not winning.

That's for sure. His silent approach helped him win a CEO spot.

v. Put together a great problem-solving team

To meet the demands of one city's recycling plan, engineers designed a new truck with a hydraulic arm on the right side to pick up and empty specially designed trash barrels. But when the real experts - the drivers - saw the expensive new trucks, they immediately pointed out that they were useless for picking up trash on the left-hand side of the one-way streets!

Blunders like this are not uncommon and share the same root cause. Problem-solving teams often bring together all kinds of people to create a solution except the solution's ultimate users.

Eliminate this liability when you put together your next problem-solving team. Besides including the experts and decision-makers on your team, be sure to include one or more users

vi. Solve problems with the right question

A good strategy to finding the right answer to a problem is to start with a solution-oriented question that requires a simple "yes" or "no" answer.

If excessive staffing costs are cutting into profitability, don't ask, "How can we reduce overtime?" Instead ask, "Do we have a large enough workforce to keep up with the production that's required?"

To arrive at a simple answer, you must analyze several factors such as per-employee profit and sales, the overall workload and other objective measure.

If you conclude that yes, you do have a large enough workforce to keep up with the required production, then you have to keep probing to uncover the reason(s) for your excessive overtime costs.

But if the simple answer is no, you'll know that your system should begin reassessing your basic staffing needs. And your next question will be: "If we hire more people, will our staffing costs go down?"

vii. Smart leaders build bench strength

In baseball; managers often talk about their "bench strength" - their ability to call on any of a number of talented players throughout a game. Without bench strength, your company can't grow. When you have great players on your team, you have the freedom to make critical decisions that will ensure your company's growth.

Develop great bench strength by sticking to two simple rules:

Insist that every supervisor has his/her own trained replacement and ready to move up.

Defer salary increases and promotions for anyone who has not done his job.

These 7 strategies will strengthen your abilities as a manager, increase productivity within your department/company, and show others your true leadership qualities.

4. Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership is yet another attempt to define leadership in terms of style or personality rather than by function. Consider, for example, sales and marketing. These are organizational functions; we can define them in terms of the purpose they serve. Similarly, a functional definition of leadership states that it serves the purpose of moving a group in new directions. Transformational leadership is an exciting idea but it has its limitations. However, it can be useful if we think of it only as one among many leadership styles rather than as an attempt to state how the best leaders should behave.

4.1 What is transformational leadership?

Developed initially for political leaders by James McGregor Burns in the late 1970s, it was eagerly adopted for business leadership. It has four components: Charisma or idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. Being charismatic is like having sex appeal. It's having a dynamic, energetic and commanding presence. We idealize such people. Martin Luther King is a great example. Leaders who are inspirational motivators appeal to basic values with enthusiasm and an eloquent speaking style to offer a compelling vision. Intellectual stimulation means inspiring people to think differently or creatively by suggesting new ways of looking at things. Finally, showing individualized consideration means paying attention to people as individuals and helping them meet their needs.

Burns and his followers contrasted transformational leadership with "transactional leadership" which is based on simple exchange, rewarding followers for a job well done.

4.2 Limitations of transformational leadership

There is a great deal of perfectly effective leadership that is not transformational. It is possible to lead by citing hard facts in a quiet, soft or even assertive manner. Also, too much emphasis is placed on style over substance. Today, substance has become extremely important, including integrity or character and content (as in "content is king"). There is a growing demand for "evidence based" decision making where, to show leadership, you need to cite hard evidence. Whether you can present your business case in an inspiring manner is not as important as having solid facts to back you up. You can have great sales skills to get people on board but if you do so for unethical purposes, this style of leadership can be dangerous. Cult leaders, for example, are often transformational. Secondly, without good content, leaders have nothing worth saying so it doesn't matter powerfully they say it.

Participative leadership means involving employees in making decisions. To be a participative leader, it isn't necessary to be an inspirational speaker. Transformational leaders make their mark primarily by promoting a vision in an inspiring manner. We admire such leaders, but they aren't necessarily skilled at employee engagement. They are like skilled sales people or promoters so they want to sell you their vision. In today's knowledge intensive world, the participative leadership style is likely to be more engaging and motivating for knowledge workers

Another issue is the fact that transformational leadership has, for some people, become the very meaning of leadership while its transactional counterpart is identified with management. This is unfortunate. The beauty of a purely functional way of defining leadership and management (leadership promotes new directions; management executes them) is that you can leave the style question completely open. Now we can say that inspirational leaders move followers to change direction while inspirational managers motivate employees to work harder. That is, style pertains to how you influence people; it is not a way of defining leadership. Suppose you lead by example by just quietly being the first to try something new. There is no inspiring speech or vision offered here.

5. Benefits of transformational leadership

There is no doubt that being able to inspire people, stimulate them to think differently and pay attention to their needs are great ways for a leader to behave. If you have good content and integrity and can present a case for change with enough enthusiasm to inspire people, you are more likely to win them over than if your communication style is sleep-inducing. Being inspirational is most useful in situations where there is no evidence or the facts are unclear. This is especially true with clashes of values or standards of behavior. Martin Luther King appealed to a basic sense of fair play to move the U.S. Supreme Court to outlaw segregation on buses. The facts alone wouldn't have done it.

The truth is, however, that different influencing styles work better with different audiences. Also, we live in a much more knowledge-driven world today where knowing what you are talking about has become just as important as how you say it.

6. Facilitative leadership

Facilitative leadership is a special leadership style, one based on three major assumptions.

Assumption 1: Facilitator neutrality

One of the major differences between an autocratic leader and a facilitative leader is how each is perceived. Autocratic leaders typically take a position for which they are strong advocates. Facilitative leaders appear neutral and may really be neutral.

Assumption 2: The leader acts in the best interest of the group

In many respects the facilitative leaders function like a servant leader—they put the primary needs of the group ahead of their own selfish needs. A classic example is short-term profits over long term growth. The dominant view in capitalism is to stroke short-term results and to hell with the long-term. Such a view benefits the c-level executives and impatient investors at the expense of employees and patient investors.

It’s hard to act in the best interest of the group as a whole. Let's say that a corporation has set up a strategy council to determine fundamental business strategy. Since the CEO is too busy shepherding merger, the CIO is asked to chair the sessions. For that person to be successful as a facilitator, she would have to set aside her advocacy role for the use of information technology.

Assumption 3: It's important to build consensus
To understand facilitative leadership, one has to understand the nature of consensus. The Diocese of Greenburg defines it as, "A method of making decisions through which a group strives to reach substantial, though not necessarily unanimous, agreement on matters of overall direction and policy which can be supported by all."

Some might say it means one needs 100% agreement, others might say it means everyone agrees somewhat. Someone else might say, “You have consensus when they can live with it." A cynic might say Consensus is when someone is not actively sabotaging the efforts of the group."

Whatever definition is chosen, consensus is important since group members experiencing it support and are more committed to implementing the solution.

7. Consensus in the real world

There are some very powerful groups that must function by consensus. For example, policy developed by members of the G8, the European Union, and ASEAN are all based on consensus. If something is agreed to in a summit, individual states must voluntary carry it out.

8. Using the facilitative style during meetings

Facilitative leadership excels when one has to deal with complex problems. Its strength is its ability to meld the best ideas from different people. Use it when one needs the strong support and active cooperation. It's a natural style for project managers, board chairman, entrepreneurs, and team leaders. Unfortunately, if over used, it can create problems as well.

9. Visionary leadership

Visionary leaders are the builders of a new dawn, working with imagination, insight, and boldness. They present a challenge that calls forth the best in people and brings them together around a shared sense of purpose. They work with the power of intentionality and alignment with a higher purpose. Their eyes are on the horizon, not just on the near at hand. They are social innovators and change agents, seeing the big picture and thinking strategically. A visionary leader is effective in manifesting his or her vision because s/he creates specific, achievable goals, initiates action and enlists the participation of others.

There is a profound interconnectedness between the leader and the whole, and true visionary leaders serve the good of the whole. They recognize that there is some truth on both sides of most polarized issues in our society today. They search for solutions that transcend the usual adversarial approaches and address the causal level of problems. They find a higher synthesis of the best of both sides of an issue and address the systemic root causes of problems to create real breakthroughs.

10. Ethical leadership

Ethical leadership is leadership that is involved in leading in a manner that respects the rights and dignity of others. “As leaders are by nature in a position of social power, ethical leadership focuses on how leaders use their social power in the decisions they make, actions they engage in and ways they influence others”. Leaders who are ethical demonstrate a level of integrity that is important for stimulating a sense of leader trustworthiness, which is important for followers to accept the vision of the leader These are critical and direct components to leading ethically. The character and integrity of the leader provide the basis for personal characteristics that direct a leader’s ethical beliefs, values, and decisions. Individual values and beliefs impact the ethical decisions of leaders.

Leaders who are ethical are people-oriented, and also aware of how their decisions impact others and use their social power to serve the greater good instead of self-serving interests[7]. In ethical leadership it is important for the leader to consider how his or her decisions impact others. Motivating followers to put the needs or interests of the group ahead of their own is another quality of ethical leaders. Motivating involves engaging others in an intellectual and emotional commitment between leaders and followers that makes both parties equally responsible in the pursuit of a common goal. These characteristics of ethical leaders are similar to inspirational motivation, which is a style component of transformational leadership. Inspirational motivation “involves inspiring others to work towards the leader’s vision for the group and to be committed to the group”. Similarly, ethical leadership “falls within the nexus of inspiring, stimulating, and visionary leader behaviors that make up transformational and charismatic leadership”. Ethical leaders assist followers in gaining a sense of personal competence that allows them to be self-sufficient by encouraging and empowering them

11. Mistakes leaders tend to make

Most of the shortcomings and mistakes school administrators make fall into the category of poor human relations. Bulach, Boothe, and Pickett (1997) asked 375 Georgia educators who were enrolled in graduate programs to list and rank the types of mistakes their administrators made.

Fifteen categories of mistakes were identified:

- poor human-relations skills,
- poor interpersonal-communication skills,
- lack of vision,
- failure to lead,
- avoidance of conflict,
- lack of knowledge about instruction/curriculum,
- control orientation,
- lack of ethics or character,
- forgetting what it is like to be a teacher,
- inconsistency,

- showing favouritism,
- failure to hold
- staff accountability,
- failure to follow through,
- snap judgments, and
- Interrupting instruction with public-address-system announcements.

12. Self-assessment questions

1. Discuss different strategies of a leader
2. What is the concept of transformational leadership?
3. How is the facilitative leadership different from visionary leadership?
4. What are the common mistakes which an educational leader makes?

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Unit–5

EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

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1. Introduction

Effective leadership is best practiced when clear policies, procedures and achievements are emphasized through careful planning and implementation of well thought-out, rational decision-making. In the symbolic/artistic paradigm, effective leadership is best practiced when the leader helps the organization build meaning and commitment through a shared culture shaped by history, values and vision. Deal and Peterson make the case that the two approaches are not necessarily exclusive of each other. In fact, they assert that it is only by being a bifocal leader, one who manages well while still keeping in mind the symbolic meaning attached to each activity, that educational leaders are able to realize their best potential.

2. Objectives

After going through this unit you will be able to:

- Understand the concept and importance of educational leadership
- Appreciate and analyze Practical Leadership concepts.
- Explore and analyze different Educational Leadership models.
- Understand the concept of emotional intelligence and its application in educational leadership

3. Concept and importance of leadership in education

Today's educational leaders need to possess a broad variety of skills that enable them to function comfortably and effectively in changing environments and under highly politicized conditions. For better or for worse, this is a dynamic and exciting period in human history. Due to the fluidity of the situation, it is a period of unparalleled opportunity and of potential danger. To capitalize on the opportunities and to minimize the dangers regarding demands extraordinarily wise leadership in all sectors and in all enterprises, including education.

While pervasive social change affects persons in all walks of life, there is bound to be greater impact upon those in position of great social visibility and concern—such as persons holding administrative and supervisory responsibility for educational systems. Society has a right to expect adept performance from people in those positions. Under these conditions, proficient leadership cannot be a matter of copying conventional behavior. To advance education, there is a clear need for educational leaders to have and exercise: the ability to comprehend the dynamics of human affairs as a basis for relevant action under novel conditions; a better understanding of issues and processes in educational institutions; and greater originality and collaboration in designing strategic policies. Their approach to the opportunities and problems confronting them must remain hypothetical and open-ended so that more may be learned by what is done.

Graham (1999) saw the accomplishments of the new public schools during the first quarter of the twentieth century concentrating on assimilating the flood of immigrants pouring into the country. The middle years focused on broadening the curriculum, especially at the secondary level, to include vocational subjects and courses in social and personal adjustment that enabled secondary schools to address the educational needs of most of the student population.

The 1960s and 1970s addressed issues of equity and access among genders and ethnic groups. During the first three-quarters of the century, Graham concluded, the schools were much more successful in enrolling students than in teaching them (emphasis added). This practice is no longer acceptable. Schools must now set out to correct the situation by focusing on raising the achievement levels of all students.

Past assumptions used by educators in designing schools and school curricula no longer hold across the board. Children are less likely to come from majority backgrounds, they are more likely to be members of nontraditional families, and they are more likely to be poor. Education through high school and beyond is essential if graduates are to be employed in other than menial jobs and to enjoy comfortable standards of living. Well-paying employment opportunities increasingly require sophisticated intellectual skills. Educational leadership is being challenged to design new curricula that recognize the multicultural nature of students, provide institutional support for those at risk, and link schooling to employment and citizenship. Solving our "educational" crisis will require coordination of schools' efforts with those of other social agencies in the community.

Not only will school leaders of the future be working with a student body markedly different from that of the past, the organizational structures and professional and political relationships will also be quite different. These changes will produce a new climate for school organizations that demand a transformational rather than hierarchical leadership. Parents and community members are likely to have greater influence on the organization and operation of schools through membership on school councils or through parental choice of schooling. The relationships between teachers and administrators are likely to be collegial, not authoritarian. Principals and teachers are likely to have greater professional discretion as many decisions formerly made at the district, state, and federal levels are left to schools. Nevertheless, local, state, and federal authorities will continue to set certain parameters. We can expect states, in particular, to set achievement standards, to design curricula to meet those standards, and to administer examinations to identify schools failing to meet those standards.

For several years, the authors co-taught an introductory course for students of educational administration. We sought in vain to find an appropriate text that would be comprehensive in coverage, yet have sufficient depth to lead students to a fundamental understanding of relevant issues. We wanted a text that was eclectic, not ideological, in approach, and that would emphasize an "action-research" perspective, compelling readers to consider critically the theoretical underpinnings of current educational practice and motivating them to seek practical alternative approaches. Not finding such a text, we set out to create our own: Fundamental Concepts of Educational Leadership is the result.

The careful reader will quickly detect that we do not subscribe entirely to any particular philosophy of education. We attempt to report the best of what has been produced by researchers regardless of their paradigm and orientation. We view the study of leadership as a multiple-perspective activity. Theories of leadership should not be viewed as competing with one another in the quest for the "one best view" (Sergiovanni, 1984). Each approach, each theory, has inherent strengths and weaknesses. Each theory is better able to illuminate and explain certain aspects of each concept. Taken together, a more complete understanding of the concept is possible through the power of triangulation and perspective.

The second edition continues to set forth principles under girding the knowledge base of educational leadership, updated to address new and evolving thinking, learning, and organizational paradigms that are in a significant period of transformation. The book is still highly applicable to introductory courses in programs that prepare educational administrators, but is also recommended as a basic guide for all educational practitioners. As with the first edition, leadership principles are presented within a systems framework. The second edition maintains the thorough coverage of relevant theory of the first, but is more consistent in relating that theory to practice.

In the previous edition, we defined leadership as influencing the actions of others in achieving desirable ends. While that definition is historically based on a significant and important body of knowledge, new definitions reflect a major rethinking of the concept. Today, leadership is also thought of as an overall action/change orientation—a transformation occurring in and across numerous educational environments. Leadership in this new arena of transformation becomes less role-specific in the traditional sense, while it presents broad new elements that expand its overall character.

Today a leader (in whatever situation that might involve) can be thought of as a teacher, steward, facilitator, pathfinder, aligner, empowerer, appraiser, forecaster, enabler, and/or advisor. As this incomplete list expands to engulf a multitude of possibilities, you begin to sense the critical themes that further define leadership for the educational practitioner today. Under evolving conditions, leadership takes on an action-rich perspective. Leadership becomes the capacity to generate, operationalize and evaluate a continuously changing environment—to build feedback into environments in the process of continuous improvement.

With these new considerations becoming more apparent, we have reorganized the divisions of the book as our examination of the various aspects of leadership unfolds. Part One, whose title remains "Leadership in a Period of Dynamic Change," presents the current and projected contexts of educational leadership and discusses systems theory and leadership theory, which continue to serve as the under girding concepts of the book. Parts two, three, five, and six carry new titles reflecting added content and different Organization and emphases: "Schools as Learning Organizations: Communication and Human Interaction," "The Generation and Use of Information in a Learning Organization," "Strategy Formulation and Implementation," and "Leadership for a New Millennium."

4. Practical leadership concepts

Since the goal is to build a high performance EMS team, we first must describe what a generic high performing team resembles. Ken Blanchard, of the "One Minute Manager" fame, describes the elements of such teams with the acronym PERFORM (Purpose, Empowerment, Relationships and Communication, Flexibility, Optimal Productivity, Recognition and Appreciation, and Morale). How these elements can be applied to volunteer ambulance teams is what will be described in this chapter.

4.1 Purpose relates to whether all team members understand the clear, challenging and relevant goals and strategies of the organization. Volunteer work output in an ambulance service is tied directly to how much value the volunteer believes he or she is providing the organization. If the volunteer does not understand how his or her efforts fit into the organization, their output will drop. On the surface, this appears to be the simplest of the elements to introduce and accomplish. Yet the development of the organizational mission statement, goals and strategies should be done thoughtfully and, once prepared, communicated throughout the organization. Having all members "buy into" these beliefs can be challenging. Gaining consensus in any volunteer organization can be difficult.

4.2 Empowerment relates to whether team members feel a sense of personal and collective power in order to support the organizational objectives. Do members have access to the necessary skills and resources to be effective? This element of an effective team is not often seen in volunteer ambulance services. All too often, a handful of the civil or operations officers make many of the decisions that directly affect the members. This is particularly damaging to a volunteer member that has expertise in that subject area.

Building good relationships and communication is yet another aspect of building high performing teams. This aspect emphasizes the openness and understanding between members. Unfortunately, our experience leads me to believe that these attitudes do not flow through many volunteer services. As such, this aspect of building teams is one most services need to address. The member retention chapter of this text provides some ideas for enhancing the flow of communications through an organization.

4.3 Flexibility is another important element of a high performance team and its members. EMS has been, and continues to be, a rapidly evolving discipline. Services and their members that understand that and are willing to embrace it are easily spotted. For example, some services in America remain staffed by medics with Advanced First Aid training, while others are utilizing Paramedics. Successful services are willing to challenge themselves and their members and react appropriately. Flexibility is a key to service evolving within its industry.

4.4 Optimal Productivity is also integral to the performance of a team. As for volunteer ambulance members, optimal productivity is often not reached. This is due to the small number of calls most volunteer services respond to. Members typically never respond to enough calls to develop and maintain high productivity. This fact is discouraging to members who have high personal expectations of care. Those members, who believe they are not performing well, may leave because they feel they are of less value to the team. To combat this situation, services need to provide meaningful feedback to medics on their performance, good educational opportunities and, if possible, a chance to "ride along" with busier services.

4.5 Recognition and appreciation is an important aspect of volunteer team building. Since a salary is not delivered, recognition and respect from peers, the community and management is critical. The recipients must value Service Recognition awards, not necessarily that they are valued by management alone. The member retention chapter deals with recognizing members.

Building and maintaining morale is impossible in a volunteer service with poor leadership. Members must feel good about their membership on the team. Leaders must create an environment where members have confidence in their medical skills and are proud of it. Again, members who believe they are making a significant contribution to the team usually continue to volunteer.

It is easy to envision how Blanchard's elements of high performing teams relate to volunteer ambulance services. Each element is easily connectable to these services. Service leaders need to explore these elements and learn how to implement them.

4.6 Common leadership practices

Our search for developing strong leadership in volunteer ambulance services takes us to the work of Kouzes and Posner. Through their work, the two described five leadership practices successful leaders have in common. The first of these practices is known as "challenging the process". This can be described by explaining that those who lead others to greatness seek challenge. They are pioneers, and are willing to take risks. They are "brave enough to fail" and willing to learn from their mistakes. This concept relates very well to volunteer services. As previously stated, EMS is an extremely dynamic discipline. Biotechnology is enabling us to do more in the pre-hospital setting. Leaders need to not only be receptive to new concepts; they must seek them out. They must be brave enough and smart enough to implement these concepts. To do this, leaders must be willing to seek out fresh ideas. These ideas may come from within the membership, other ambulance services, in journals and texts, the Internet computer system, even other industries! All too often, service leaders are so narrowly focused that the answers to their problems often lie undiscovered just outside their own personal experience.

"You can't light a fire with a wet match" is an old Texan expression that is as descriptive in inspiring a shared vision as it is on the prairie. Good leaders choose to lead because they have a vision of how things should be. Since reaching this vision requires the work of the total organization, this vision needs to be effectively and enthusiastically communicated to the workers. Without effective communication, workers won't know why you are asking them to work so hard. The flames will not be lit in the hearts of the volunteers. We know they are not there for the money. They are there for the internal satisfaction and the rewards of helping others whom are in their greatest time of need.

As previously stated, successful leaders realize that obtaining high performance requires the total team to be productive, not just themselves. Enabling others to act encompasses encouraging collaboration and developing a sense of ownership by all members. If all members feel this way, performance can reach new heights.

Whether it is Blanchard saying, "walk your talk" or Kouzes and Posner saying "model the way," they should both mean the same to service leaders. The fact that a person holds the leadership position does not automatically translate into respect from the workers. Without respect, the leader's vision, no matter how laudable, is not likely to be implemented by the workers. The respect comes from workers who see their leaders living and working in the manner that is expected of them.

Blanchard, Kouzes and Posner share another common leadership element, celebration. Blanchard and his fellow company workers celebrate "every chance they get". Kouzes and Posner call this "encouraging the heart". Whatever it is called, it is used by leaders to deliver genuine acts of caring for their workers when an accomplishment has occurred. Celebration in volunteer ambulance services is usually limited to an annual recognition banquet typically held at the local banquet hall. Some members receive plaques or clocks to honor their service to the organization. This is followed by long speeches by persons the members do not know or respect and then they listen to a disc jockey spin top 40 music. Volunteer services need to discover or even invent interesting and meaningful ways to celebrate an organization's accomplishments in a timely manner. Celebrations need not be elaborate or expensive, but they must be in response to meaningful accomplishments.

Successful leaders use these leadership practices. Volunteer service leaders need to first recognize these practices, learn them, internalize them, practice them and live them! These practices do not rely on huge budget outlays, but they do consume time, perhaps the most valuable asset of the volunteer. Volunteer workers deserve this leadership and the survival of many services depends on it.

4.7 What followers expect and admire

To continue our examination of leadership in volunteer ambulance services, we look next at the expectations that followers have of their leaders. In two extensive surveys done by Kouzes and Posner, they determined that the majority of us admire leaders who are honest, competent, forward-looking and inspiring. It comes as no surprise that some of the characteristics are similar to the practices employed by successful leaders, as described in the previous section. In these surveys honesty was the most often selected characteristic. What message does this send to a leader of a volunteer service? The message should indicate that his/her practice must match his/her preaching. Promises must be kept, and the leader must have the confidence to follow their beliefs. All too often, volunteer managers enter office with grandiose ideas, only to become overwhelmed by the work involved or get pressure from the family to spend more time at home. As a result, projects aren't completed and the workers feel "let down" by their leaders. Even with the best of intentions and integrity, the perception by the workers is that the leader never planned to make these changes. Related to this perception is that of competency, the second most selected characteristic in the survey. When projects are not completed, workers also question the leader's competency. Once this occurs, even when the leader remains competent at delivering medical care, workers will distinguish between the two different types of competency in their leaders.

The next most frequently selected characteristic of good leaders is that of being forward-looking. To be admired, the leader must know where the organization is headed. This is much like Blanchard's concept of "if you don't know where you are going any road will get you there." Workers in any setting can quickly observe a leader that is not forward thinking. I have maintained for years that most volunteer service leaders are "too busy chasing the cows to fix the fence". For example, these service leaders will struggle with trying to recruit more new volunteers, while they disappoint the ones on board with the service.

Fourth on the survey list was inspiration. As discussed, the leader's vision must be communicated throughout the organization. This communication must be not only informative but also inspirational. If I, as a leader of a volunteer service, am not enthusiastic about my visions, how can I expect others to be? If I am not excited about the potential success of resurrection that a new defibrillator may bring to my service, why should my workers take the extra training required to use the device? All of these characteristics are ones that volunteers are seeking. When volunteers don't see them, they lose confidence in their leaders and the organizations, and ultimately themselves. This low confidence is very destructive to these organizations. It leads to members leaving, often taking friends with them. It also negatively impacts recruitment, because most recruitment occurs through existing members that are excited about being in the organization.

While widely recognized as an important need, there exists little opportunity for learning leadership for volunteer ambulance personnel. On the job education does occur, but often at a significant cost to the organization. It has been a goal of mine to design and deliver an appropriate educational program in this area. This education could examine how successful leadership concepts can be applied to volunteer ambulance services.

What is clear is that the leadership concepts discussed here are directly applicable to volunteer ambulance services. Leaders need to know the characteristics of high performance teams in order to know where to go. These same leaders need to learn how to get there. I am concerned that if these services do not invest in these efforts and the education is not made available to them, many services will continue to fall farther behind the standards and expectations of the public, the community and government.

5. Educational leadership models

The main idea in The Leadership Paradox (Deal and Peterson, 1994) is that effective school leaders must use both technical/managerial and symbolic/artistic leadership skills in order to be successful. The two paradigms differ in that they often see the role of leadership from very different paradigms. In the technical/managerial paradigm, effective leadership is best practiced when clear policies, procedures and achievement is emphasized through careful planning and implementation of well thought-out, rational decision-making. In the symbolic/artistic paradigm, effective leadership is best practiced when the leader helps the organization build meaning and commitment through a shared culture shaped by history, values and vision. Deal and Peterson make the case that the two approaches are not necessarily exclusive of each other. In fact, they assert that it is only by being a bifocal leader, one who manages well while still keeping in mind the symbolic meaning attached to each activity, that educational leaders are able to realize their best potential. The table below summarizes some of the differences between the technical and symbolic ways of seeing leadership.

	Technical/Engineer	**Symbolic/Artist**
Defining Paradigm	Structural, Managerially focused	Normative and Social dynamics
Goals/Benefits	Efficiency, standardization, evaluation, planning	Creating shared meaning, commitment and culture
Drawbacks	Loss of meaning, spontaneity, rigid, dehumanizing	Underachievement, lack of rigor, poor production
Leadership Roles	1. Planner 2. Resource allocator 3. Coordinator 4. Supervisor 5. Disseminator of information 6. Jurist 7. Gatekeeper 8. Analyst	1. Historian 2. Anthropological detective 3. Visionary 4. Symbol 5. Potter 6. Poet 7. Actor 8. Healer

In my own role as vice principal at Waluga Junior High School, I see that there are many responsibilities and functions which fit in each of these two categories.

Key Roles & Tasks at Waluga as Vice Principal	• Master Scheduling • Budget development • Special event planning: – Back to School Night, TAG Night, 6th Grade Parent Orientation, Building Connections Leaders Day, assemblies • School Improvement Plan development • Discipline	• Ceremonial leadership at functions – assemblies, first day of school, 6th Grade Parent Orientation Night, etc. • Tells stories – end of year retirements, special events • Informal networking to catch the pulse of the school – Friday morning basketball • Newsletter articles • E-mail correspondence • Words of Wisdom announcements each morning • Office as symbol – pictures, quotes • Lunch supervision

Thomas Sergiovanni conceived of a similar dichotomy of leadership styles based on function, form, emphasis and conceptual paradigm. His leadership models can best be understood as a contrast between two ways of seeing leadership; ways he calls *gesellschaft* and *gemeinschaft*. The two paradigms in many ways parallel those of Deal and Peterson. Both share a contrast between models based on a mechanistic, non-humanistic, task and goal-oriented model and a human-centered, meaning-making, relationship-based model.

	High Performance (TQM, Pyramid Model, Railroad Model)	**Constructivist**
Orientation of Model	Customer-Supplier Model using interpersonal leadership skills of leaders	Moral Connections grounded in cultural norms
Rationality Paradigm	Rationality as self-interested, goal attainment behavior	Rationality as constructed knowledge, often shared and collaborative
Design Metaphor	Factory or business organization	Learning community
Management Plan	Top-down, centralized management	Self-managing
Motivation	Individual rewards/sanctions	Sense of obligation/moral commitment to do the right thing
Ideal types of relationships	*Gesellschaft*	*Gemeinschaft*
Defining characteristics	Roles and expectations	Communities of relationships, place, mind, and memory
Leadership Bases	Authority based on Position/Power/Function	Moral Authority
Leadership Functions/Tasks		Ministerial • Purposing • Maintaining Harmony • Institutionalizing values • Motivating • Managing • Explaining • Enabling • Modeling • Supervising

While Sergiovanni's models are similar in their contrasted differences, his outlook differs from Deal and Peterson's in that Deal and Peterson ultimately believe that the most effective leaders are bifocal – that is they use elements of both models at appropriate times and in appropriate circumstances. Sergiovanni essentially argues that the constructivist approach is better than the other.

6. Emotional intelligence

A form of intelligence relating to the emotional side of life, such as the ability to recognize and manage one's own and others' emotions, to motivate oneself and

- Originated by Daniel Goleman, psychologist, denoting the cluster of traits/abilities relating to the emotional side of life
- major components of emotional intelligence: knowing our own emotions, managing our own emotions, motivating ourselves, recognizing the emotions of others, and handling relationships

Emotional intelligence is defined as a person’s self-awareness, self-confidence, self-control, commitment and integrity and a person’s ability to communicate, influence, initiate change and accept change (Goleman, 1998). Studies have shown that emotional intelligence impacts a leader’s ability to be effective (Goleman, 1998). Three of the most important aspects of emotional intelligence for a leader’s ability to make effective decisions are self-awareness, communication and influence and commitment and integrity. (Goleman, 1998).

7. Self-assessment questions

1. Explain the concept and scope of leadership in education.
2. What factors make leadership a success?
3. Identify characteristics of an effective educational leadership
4. Elaborate different modes of educational leadership.
5. What is the relationship between leadership and emotional intelligence?

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Unit–6

MANAGING FINANCE AND RESOURCES

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1. Introduction

These definitions of efficiency are not equivalent, but they are all encompassed by the idea that nothing more can be achieved given the resources available.

An economic system is more efficient if it can provide more goods and services for society without using more resources. Market economies are generally believed to be more efficient than other known alternatives. The first fundamental welfare theorem provides some basis for this belief, as it states that any perfectly competitive market equilibrium is efficient (but only if no market imperfections exist).

Microeconomic reforms is policies that aim to reduce economic distortions and increase economic efficiency. However, there is no clear theoretical basis for the belief that removing a market distortion will always increase economic efficiency. The Theory of the Second Best states that if there is some unavoidable market distortion in one sector, a move towards greater market perfection in another sector may actually decrease efficiency.

2. Objectives

After going through this unit you will be able to:

- Understand the concept of efficiency and equity
- Appreciate and analyze the concept of autonomy.
- Understand the concept of resource allocation and application of resource utilization.
- Understand the concept of marketing and apply the concept of four Ps in marketing

3. Efficiency In general is defined as %age ratio between output and input of a system. However the concept varies in different perspective described as given below:

a. In Science and Technology

- Efficiency (statistics), a count of desirability of an estimator
- Algorithmic efficiency, optimizing the speed and memory requirements of a computer program
- Efficiency factor, in data communications

b. **In economics**

- Economic efficiency, a general term, capturing the amount of waste or other undesirable features
- Financial market efficiency, how efficient is the trading going on the financial markets
  - Pareto efficiency, making one individual better off, without making any other individual worse off
  - Kaldor-Hicks efficiency, like a less stringent Pareto efficiency
  - Allocative efficiency, an optimal distribution of goods
  - Efficiency wages, paying workers more than the market rate for increased productivity
- Business efficiency, expenses as a percentage of revenue, etc.

c. **Economic efficiency** is used to refer to a number of related concepts. It is the using of resources in such a way as to maximize the production of goods and services. A system can be called economically efficient if:

- No one can be made better off without making someone else worse off.
- More output cannot be obtained without increasing the amount of inputs.
- Production proceeds at the lowest possible per-unit cost.

4. Concept of equity

i. Ownership interest in a corporation in the form of common stock or preferred stock. It also refers to total assets minus total liabilities, in which case it is also referred to as shareholder's equity or net worth or book value. In real estate, it is the difference between what a property is worth and what the owner owes against that property (i.e. the difference between the house value and the remaining mortgage or loan payments on a house). In the context of a futures trading account, it is the value of the securities in the account, assuming that the account is liquidated at the going price. In the context of a brokerage account, it is the net value of the account, i.e. the value of securities in the account less any margin requirements.

ii. Ownership interest in a corporation in the form of common stock or preferred stock.

iii. Total assets minus total liabilities; here also called shareholder's equity or net worth book value.

iv. The value of a property minus the owner's outstanding mortgage balance.

v. Fairness in law.

5. Autonomy

Autonomy (Ancient Greek: αυτονόμος autonomous, Modern Greek: αυτονομία autonomia, from auto "self" + nomos, "law": one who gives oneself his/her own law) is a concept found in moral, political, and bioethical philosophy. Within these contexts, it refers to the capacity of a rational individual to make an informed, un-coerced decision. In moral and political philosophy, autonomy is often used as the basis for determining moral respectability for one's actions. One of the best known philosophical theories of autonomy was developed by Kant. In medicine, respect for the autonomy of patients is an important goal, though it can conflict with a competing ethical principle, namely beneficence. Politically, it is also used to refer to the self-governing of a people.

i. Politics

In politics, autonomy refers to one's own self-governance. In the past few decades, a large movement of autonomism has emerged in the form of social democracy, anarchism and the anarcho-capitalist movement.

ii. Restrictions on autonomy

Autonomy can be and usually is to one extent or another, waived to another authority, such as by agreeing to follow governing laws. The actions available to an autonomous unit can be restricted by a more powerful authority, such as when a cattleman sets a fence around his herd, or a court sentences a criminal to prison. The decisions of an autonomous unit can be coerced and its actions forced. Autonomy can be restricted through the aspect of the ability to act, as in the case of a newborn or through the aspect of the ability to decide as in the case of a person in a coma.

6. Resource allocation

The process of allocating resources among the various projects or business units. Resource allocation is used to assign the available resources in an economic way. It is part of resource management.

7. Strategic planning

In strategic planning, resource allocation is a plan for using available resources, for example human resources, especially in the near term, to achieve goals for the future. It is the process of allocating resources among the various projects or business units.

The plan has two parts: Firstly, there is the basic allocation decision and secondly there are contingency mechanisms. The basic allocation decision is the choice of which items to fund in the plan and what level of funding it should receive. Similarly which to leave unfunded: the resources are allocated to some items, not to others.

There are two contingency mechanisms. There is a priority ranking of items excluded from the plan, showing which items to fund if more resources should become available; and there is a priority ranking of some items included in the plan, showing which items should be sacrificed if total funding must be reduced.

8. Resource leveling

The main objective is to smooth resource requirements by shifting slack jobs beyond periods of peak requirements. Some of the methods essentially replicate what a human scheduler would do if he had enough time; others make use of unusual devices or procedures designed especially for the computer. They of course depend for their success on the speed and capabilities of electronic computers.

9. Resource utilization

A supply chain network uses resources of various kinds: manufacturing resources (machines, material handlers, tools, etc.); storage resources (warehouses, automated storage and retrieval systems); logistics resources (trucks, rail transport, air-cargo carriers, etc.); human resources (labor, scientific and technical personnel); and financial (working capital, stocks, etc.). The objective is to utilize these assets or resources efficiently so as to maximize customer service levels, minimize lead times and optimize inventory levels

10. Marketing

Marketing is defined by the American Marketing Association as the activity, set of institutions, and processes for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging offerings that have value for customers, clients, partners, and society at large. [1] The term developed from the original meaning which referred literally to going to market, as in shopping, or going to a market to buy or sell goods or services.

The Chartered Institute of Marketing defines marketing as "The management process responsible for identifying, anticipating and satisfying customer requirements profitably."

Marketing practice tended to be seen as a creative industry in the past, which included advertising, distribution and selling. However, because marketing makes extensive use of social sciences, psychology, sociology, mathematics, economics, anthropology and neuroscience, the profession is now widely recognized as a science, allowing numerous universities to offer Master-of-Science (MSc) programmes. The overall process starts with marketing research and goes through market segmentation, business planning and execution, ending with pre and post-sales promotional activities. It is also related to many of the creative arts. The marketing literature is also infamous for re-inventing itself and its vocabulary according to the times and the culture.

Seen from a systems point of view, sales process engineering views marketing as a set of processes that are interconnected and interdependent with other functions [3], whose methods can be improved using a variety of relatively new approaches.

a. The marketing concept

The term *marketing concept* pertains to the fundamental premise of modern marketing. This can be laid out as recognizing consumer needs/wants, then designing products and services that correlate with consumer desires.

b. The four Ps

In the early 1960s, Professor Neil Borden at Harvard Business School identified a number of company performance actions that can influence the consumer decision to purchase goods or services. Borden suggested that all those actions of the company represented a “Marketing Mix”. Professor E. Jerome McCarthy, at the Michigan State University in the early 1960s, suggested that the Marketing Mix contained 4 elements: product, price, place and promotion.

- ***Product***: The product aspects of marketing deal with the specifications of the actual goods or services, and how it relates to the end-user's needs and wants. The scope of a product generally includes supporting elements such as warranties, guarantees, and support.
- ***Pricing*****:** This refers to the process of setting a price for a product, including discounts. The price need not be monetary; it can simply be what is exchanged for the product or services, e.g. time, energy, or attention. Methods of setting prices optimally are in the domain of pricing science.
- ***Placement*** (or distribution): refers to how the product gets to the customer; for example, point-of-sale placement or retailing. This third P has also sometimes been called *Place*, referring to the channel by which a product or service is sold (e.g. online vs. retail), which geographic region or industry, to

which segment (young adults, families, business people), etc. also referring to how the environment in which the product is sold can affect sales.

- ***Promotion*:** This includes advertising, sales promotion, including promotional education, publicity, and personal selling. Branding refers to the various methods of promoting the product, brand, or company.

These four elements are often referred to as the marketing mix, [4] which a marketer can use to craft a marketing plan.

The four Ps model is most useful when marketing low value consumer products. Industrial products, services, high value consumer products require adjustments to this model. Services marketing must account for the unique nature of services.

As a counter to this, Morgan, in *Riding the Waves of Change* (Jossey-Bass, 1988), suggests that one of the greatest limitations of the 4 Ps approach "is that it unconsciously emphasizes the inside–out view (looking from the company outwards), whereas the essence of marketing should be the outside–in approach".

11. Self-assessment questions

1. Elaborate the concepts of efficiency, equity and autonomy.
2. What is meant by resource acquisition?
3. Critically review the process of allocation of resources and their utilization in the context of educational management in Pakistan
4. Discuss the role of marketing with special reference to managing finances of education at different levels.

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Unit–7

EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT AND DEVOLUTION PLAN

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1. Introduction

Local Government plan (LG 2000) introduced the devolution of power to the grass-roots level including the same in the education sector of the country. However, strains between the local, provincial and central government layers are working as constraints to the true implementation of devolution in education. Furthermore, the development of a devolved culture at the local level is also a challenge and blocking the spread of benefits of devolution of power in education to the grass roots. No doubt, cultural development is a long term strategy however; the issue of relations between local government and the provincial and central governments can be taken as a short term strategy. There is need to construct a long term plan of education, training and awareness to gradually develop a new culture which sustains tolerance for the devolution of power. But the damages coming from the local-center relations can instantly be solved provided the will and wisdom of the ruling class are in place.

2. **Objectives**:

After going through this unit you will be able to:

- Understand the concept and importance of centralization
- Understand the concept and importance of De-centralization
- Appreciate and analyze organizational and political theory.
- Explore and analyze different aspects of Devolution
- Understand and appreciate the concept of educational devolution with special reference to Pakistan.

3. Centralization

Centralization is the process by which the activities of an organization, particularly those regarding decision-making, become concentrated within a particular location and/or group.

In political science, this refers to the concentration of a government's power - both geographically and politically, into a centralized government.

In neuroscience, centralization refers to the evolutionary trend of the nervous system to be partitioned into a central nervous system and peripheral nervous system.
In business studies centralization and decentralization is about where decisions are taken in the chain of command.

4. Decentralization

Decentralization is the process of dispersing decision-making governance closer to the people or citizen. It includes the dispersal of administration or governance in sectors or areas like engineering, management science, political science, political economy, sociology and economics. Decentralization is also possible in the dispersal of population and employment. Law, science and technological advancements lead to highly decentralized human endeavors.

"While frequently left undefined (Pollitt, 2005), decentralization has also been assigned many different meanings (Richard & Borgonovi, 2007), varying across countries (Steffensen & Trollegaard, 2000; Pollitt, 2005), languages (Ouedraogo, 2003), general contexts (Conyers, 1984), fields of research and specific scholars and studies." (Dubois and Fattore 2009)

A central theme in decentralization is the difference between hierarchies, based on:

- authority: two players in an unequal-power relationship; and
- an interface: a lateral relationship between two players of roughly equal power.

The more decentralized a system is, the more it relies on lateral relationships and the less it can rely on command or force. In most branches of engineering and economics, decentralization is narrowly defined as the study of markets and interfaces between parts of a system. This is most highly developed as general systems theory and neoclassical political economy.

5. Organizational theory

Decentralization also called departmentalization is the policy of delegating decision-making authority down to the lower levels in an organization, relatively away from and lowers in a central authority. A decentralized organization shows fewer tiers in the organizational structure, wider span of control and a bottom-to-top flow of decision-making and flow of ideas.

In a centralized organization, the decisions are made by top executives or on the basis of pre-set policies. These decisions or policies are then enforced through several tiers of the organization after gradually broadening the span of control until it reaches the bottom tier.

In a more decentralized organization, the top executives delegate much of their decision-making authority to lower tiers of the organizational structure. As a correlation, the organization is likely to run on less rigid policies and wider spans of control among each officer of the organization. The wider span of control also reduces the number of tiers within the organization, giving its structure a flat appearance. One advantage of this structure, if the correct controls are in place, will be the bottom-to-top flow of information, allowing all decisions among any official of the organization to be well informed about lower tier operations. For example, an experienced technician at the lowest tier of an organization might know how to increase the efficiency of the production, the bottom-to-top flow of information can allow for this knowledge to pass up to the executive officers.

6. Political theory

Some political theorists believe that there are limits to decentralization as a strategy. They assert that any relaxation of direct control or authority introduces the possibility of dissent or division at critical moments, especially if what is being decentralized is decision-making among human beings. Friedrich Engels famously responded to Bakunin, refuting the argument of total decentralization, or anarchism, by scoffing "how these people propose to run a factory, operate a railway or steer a ship without having in the last resort one deciding will, without single management, they of course do not tell us".

However, some anarchists have, in turn, responded to his argument, by explaining that they *do* support a (very limited) amount of centralization, in the form of freely elected and recallable delegates. More to the point from the majority of anarchist perspectives are the real-world successes of anarchist communities, which for the majority only ended when they were defeated by the overwhelming military might of the State or neighboring States. All in all, we do not know what a truly decentralized society would look like over a long period of time since it has never been permitted to exist, however the Zapatistas of Mexico are proving to be quite resilient.

In "*On Authority*", Engels also wrote of democratic workplaces that "particular questions arise in each room and at every moment concerning the mode of production, distribution of material, etc., which must be settled by decision of a delegate placed at the head of each branch of labour or, if possible, by a majority vote."

Modern trade unions and management scientists tend to side strongly with Engels in this debate, and generally agree that decentralization is very closely related to standardization and subordination, e.g. the standard commodity contracts traded on the commodity markets, in which disputes are resolved all according to a jurisdiction and common regulatory system, within the frame of a larger democratic electoral system which can restore any imbalances of power, and which generally retains the support of the population for its authority.

Notable exceptions among trade unions are the Wobblies, and the strong anarcho-syndicalist movement of Spain. However, a strategy of decentralization is not always so obviously political, even if it relies implicitly on authority delegated via a political system. For example, engineering standards are a means by which decentralization of supply inspection and testing can be achieved—a manufacturer adhering to the standard can participate in decentralized systems of bidding, e.g. in a parts market. A building standard, for instance, permits the building trades to train labour and building supply corporations to provide parts, which enables rapid construction of buildings at remote sites. Decentralization of training and inspection, through the standards themselves, and related schedules of standardized testing and random spot inspection, achieves a very high statistical reliability of service, i.e. automobiles which rarely stall, cars which rarely leak, and the like.

In most cases, an effective decentralization strategy and correspondingly robust systems of professional education, vocational education, and trade certification are critical to creating a modern industrial base. Such robust systems, and commodity markets to accompany them, are a necessary but not sufficient feature of any developed nation. A major goal of the industrial strategy of any developing nation is to safely decentralize decision-making so that central controls are unnecessary to achieving standards and safety. It seems that a very high degree of social capital is required to achieve trust in such standards and systems, and that ethical codes play some significant roles in building up trust in the professions and in the trades.

The consumer product markets, industrial product markets, and service markets that emerge in a mature industrial economy, however, still ultimately rely, like the simpler commodity markets, on complex systems of standardization, regulation, jurisdiction, transport, materials and energy supply. The specification and comparison of these is a major focus of the study of political economy. Political or other decision-making units typically must be large and leveraged enough for economy of scale, but also small enough that centralized authority does not become unaccountable to those performing trades or transactions at its perimeter. Large states, as Benjamin Franklin observed, were prone to becoming tyrannies, while small states, correspondingly, tended to become corrupt.

7. Administrative decentralization

Administrative decentralization seeks to redistribute authority, responsibility and financial resources for providing public services among different levels of government. It is the transfer of responsibility for the planning, financing and management of certain public functions from the central government and its agencies to field units of government agencies, subordinate units or levels of government, semi-autonomous public authorities or corporations, or area-wide, regional or functional authorities. The three major forms of administrative decentralization -- deconcentration, delegation, and devolution -- each have different characteristics.

7.1 Deconcentration

Deconcentration--which is often considered to be the weakest form of decentralization and is used most frequently in unitary states-- redistributes decision making authority and financial and management responsibilities among different levels of the central government. It can merely shift responsibilities from central government officials in the capital city to those working in regions, provinces or districts, or it can create strong field administration or local administrative capacity under the supervision of central government ministries.

7.2 Delegation

Delegation is a more extensive form of decentralization. Through delegation central governments transfer responsibility for decision-making and administration of public functions to semi-autonomous organizations not wholly controlled by the central government, but ultimately accountable to it. Governments delegate responsibilities when they create public enterprises or corporations, housing authorities, transportation authorities, special service districts, semi-autonomous school districts, regional development corporations, or special project implementation units. Usually these organizations have a great deal of discretion in decision-making. They may be exempt from constraints on regular civil service personnel and may be able to charge users directly for services.

7.3 Devolution

A third type of administrative decentralization is devolution. When governments devolve functions, they transfer authority for decision-making, finance, and management to quasi-autonomous units of local government with corporate status. Devolution usually transfers responsibilities for services to municipalities that elect their own mayors and councils, raise their own revenues, and have independent authority to make investment decisions. In a devolved system, local governments have clear and legally recognized geographical boundaries over which they exercise authority and within which they perform public functions. It is this type of administrative decentralization that underlies most political decentralization.

8. Devolution in education

(a) Decentralize decisions on educational content and allow material not currently addressed in the national curriculum by:
    (1) Abolishing the National Syllabus and Provincial Textbook Boards that have monopolies over textbook production;
    (2) Requiring each provincial education ministry to advertise competitive contracts and call for draft submissions for public school textbooks, pursuant to general guidelines from the Curriculum Wing;
    (3) Forming committees in each province, comprised of provincial education ministers, secretaries and established academics, to review submissions based on the recommended guidelines, and to award contracts to three selected private producers; and
    (4) Empowering all public schools to choose between the three textbooks selected for their province.

(b) Improve the monitoring capacity of provincial education departments by:
    (1) Increasing education department staff at the provincial level;
    (2) Providing adequate transport for provincial education staff required to monitor and report on remote districts; and
    (3) Linking funding to education performance indicators, including enrolment rates, pass rates, and student and teacher attendance levels.

(c) Take steps to devolve authority over education to the district level by:
    (1) Directing public schools to establish Boards of Governors, elected by parents and teachers and with representation from directly elected district government officials, teachers, parents, and the community; and
    (2) Giving these Boards greater power to hire and fire public school teachers and administrators on performance standards and to recommend infrastructure development projects.

(d) Hire public school teachers and administrators on short-term, institution-specific contracts that are renewable based on performance, to be reviewed annually by the Board of Governors, rather than as tenured civil servants.

(e) Facilitate and encourage formation of active parent-teacher associations (PTAs) by providing technical and financial support for their activities, conducting public meetings highlighting the importance of parent involvement in education, and scheduling regular PTA meetings and activities both within schools and between PTAs of multiple district schools.

(f) Give school heads flexibility to run their schools, including adjusting schedules to accommodate working children and to encourage teachers both to use educational material that supplements the curriculum and to organize field trips that better acquaint students with the social dynamics and everyday necessities of their districts.

(g) Facilitate access to public schools by:
    (1) Ensuring that any new public schools, especially girls schools, are established close to communities, especially in less developed rural areas; and
    (2) Providing transport to students and teachers commuting from remote areas of the district.

(h) Ensure there are enough middle schools to accommodate outgoing primary school students.

(i) Follow through on the language policy announced in December 2003 that makes English compulsory from Class 1 by providing all schools with adequate English-language teaching materials and English-trained teachers.

9. Self-assessment questions

1. Critically review the educational system of Pakistan.
2. Compare and contrast centralization and decentralization of Primary Education in Pakistan.
3. Critically discuss devolution of power in education in Pakistan.
4. What is the role of community participation in sustainable development?
5. Differentiate between devolution and deconcentration.

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Unit–8

MANAGING QUALITY IN EDUCATION

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1. Introduction

Oregonians have struggled with the issue of school funding for generations. From the beginning, decisions have been based on a combination of high ideals, politicking and guesswork. Now, for the first time in the state's history, parents, teachers, school board members and legislators have the tools they need to make informed, fact-based choices.

One of the most powerful of these tools is the Quality Education Model (QEM). Developed in the late 1990s and recently updated and refined, the QEM provides a detailed framework for understanding what it takes -- and how much it costs -- to provide students with quality education.

Oregon's Educational Act for the 21st Century sets statewide standards for student performance and establishes high levels of accountability for schools and districts. The Oregon Constitution requires the Legislature to appropriate enough money to make sure the state's school system meets these goals. And the QEM provides the "road map" for getting there.

The Quality Education Commission was formed in 1997 to answer three questions:

- What is quality education?
- How much does it cost?
- What results can we expect if we spend the money?

To find answers, the commission looked at educational research, classroom practice, public values and professional opinion. Using this data, a model was developed that sets a cost per student at a prototype elementary, middle and high school, then multiplies that cost by the number of students at each level across the state.

Each prototype provides a vision of a high-performing school with goals for class size, number of teachers and specialists, help for students having trouble, materials and supplies, technology and more. By factoring in different elements such as reducing class size or adding more computers for students, school officials can weigh the impact and calculate the cost of each funding decision.

"In the past, we weren't able to look at school funding line by line," says Commission Chair Ken Thrasher. "The QEM gives us a way to do that and shows which cuts will have the least impact on students."

The prototypes are not richly staffed, but they are designed to provide the instruction, tools and support that will enable all Oregon students to meet the educational goals set by law.

2. Objectives

After going through this unit you will be able to:

– Understand the meaning of quality in education
– Appreciate the concept of managing change for improvement in learning.
– Analyze mix of different learning opportunities.

- Explore and define the concept of quality assurance.
- Appreciate the efforts of different organizations towards achievement of quality assurance.

3. The meaning of education quality

The precise meaning of education quality and the path to improvement of quality are often left unexplained. Examined within context, education quality apparently may refer to inputs (numbers of teachers, amount of teacher training, number of textbooks), processes (amount of direct instructional time, extent of active learning), outputs (test scores, graduation rates) and outcomes (performance in subsequent employment). Additionally, quality education may imply simply the attaining of specified targets and objectives. More comprehensive views are also found and interpretation of quality may be based on an institution’s or program's reputation, the extent to which schooling has influenced change in student knowledge, attitudes, values and behavior, or a complete theory or ideology of acquisition and application of learning (Adams 1998).

As education system grows and the numbers of stakeholders and clients involved in education decisions change, the potential for misunderstanding, disagreement, and conflict regarding the meaning of quality increases. Full agreement among parents, teachers, administrators and students as to the ingredients of quality, how to measure it and how to initiate and sustain improvement, is unlikely.

4. Managing change to improve learning

Universities today are in transition. Much of the change we see is driven by economic pressures and demands for graduates who will be able to function in a knowledge society. To cope with these pressures and demands, the majority of universities are turning to the use of the internet and intranets to deliver courses at distance as well as to enhance on campus educational programs. Information technology (IT) has the potential to solve many of the problems associated with these societal pressures and the concurrent changes in the higher education sector (costs, quality of materials, focus on customer needs, and response to competitive pressures). IT can change the roles of students and teachers, facilitate more student-centered learning and expand the scope and content of the curriculum (Horgan, 1998). The concept of lifelong learning and its merging with post-tertiary work is a reality and education needs to take on a more societal-based outlook to provide for these demands. New models to address issues such as increased student mobility and choice, the merging of work and learning, affordable communication systems must be developed.

There are important issues confronting academics teaching in large first year science courses, such as student retention and progression, equity of access to resources as well as the changing needs of incoming students. Many of these issues arise from the increasing number and diversity of students, concurrent with the reduction in recurrent resources. We are all struggling with a reduction in tenured staff and an increase in casual teaching in first year, along with the added pressure to increase research output. For many staff, working with first year students is now seen to be a less valuable activity than supporting the learning environments of higher year students (which yield honours and postgraduate candidates), as is previously recognized by Christopoulos, Rohwer & Thomas (1987). The ability of many students to attend campus is often compromised by their need to seek paid employment (McInnis, James & McNaught, 1995). Students juggle university commitments with employment, potentially missing some of the structured teaching and learning sessions and, more importantly, not being able to take advantage of campus-based course materials and face-to-face assistance from staff. Part-time work makes it extremely difficult for some students to fulfill course expectations (McInnis, James & McNaught, 1995). Demographic data from over 700 first year biology students at the University of Sydney show that students are not only taking a full time university load but are working long hours in paid work (Peat & Franklin, 2000). These surveys show that since 1998 both the percentage of students in work and the number of hours worked has increased. In 1998, 48% of students undertook casual work during the semester and worked on average 5-10 hours per week, whilst in 2000 the number of students in casual paid work had increased to 67%, averaging from 5-15 hours per week. This is in agreement with a recent Australia wide survey (McInnis, James & Hartley, 2000).

A small shift away from courses comprising all face-to-face student teacher activities to courses with a mix of face-to-face and on-line activities has the potential to help those very students who may otherwise give up when the pressure of time and other commitments increases. It is also acknowledged that students have different study skills and therefore we need to use a variety of techniques to assist their learning, which must be embedded in the teaching and learning environment (Lewis, 1993).

Changes that would allow a more flexible approach include: improved access to learning resources; provision of flexible student support systems including counseling services etc. (Lewis, 1993). Computer learning resources delivered on the Web can fit these descriptors, but to be effective courseware must offer an opportunity for learners to address a topic through a range of activities appropriate to all learning styles (Valley, 1997).

Some of the recent moves in on-line presentation have been to develop Virtual Learning Environments (VLEs). Virtual learning environments can be described on-line domains that permit synchronous, collaborative interaction among teachers and students, while also providing asynchronous learning resources for individual use by students at any time (Barajas & Owen, 2000). VLEs thus offer a learning system made up of many components, with all the advantages of computer-based learning but with the added advantages of access and use over the internet. VLEs today include a plethora of alternative teaching spaces including the Internet-based courses, tele-conferencing courses and virtual reality courses. The common link for all environments is that students come to a' place' or use a technology to link them to a place to acquire new knowledge (Peat, 2000).

5. The mix of learning opportunities

For more than ten years there has been a move within our first year units of study to change the philosophy from teaching students to facilitating student learning, especially within the laboratory experience. Early changes involved organizational and structural issues, such as the way the laboratory classes were designed or reviewing which activities best suited a student-centered learning approach. Teaching methodologies and scenarios have been put in place that emphasized small group teaching and student- centered learning, and facilitates the development of teach communities in class, all of which encourage peer-assisted learning, communication skills and socialization of the students (Franklin & Peat, 1996). Delivering learning materials on computer, firstly within the laboratory class and then on the Internet, improved the access of student to the learning opportunities. With the development of a virtual learning environment on the web we are now in a position to exploit best practice in web-based delivery.

The design of the VLE uses a building metaphor, the building representing the School of Biological Sciences. On completion of the VLE students will enter the foyer of the building and take the lift to any of Levels 1 to 3, representing the three years of undergraduate study. Currently our first year students log on directly to the VLE at the Level 1 Lobby (representing first year studies). Once in the First Year Lobby students are presented with access to general materials and help functions.

6. Concept of quality assurance

Quality Assurance may be defined as a system in which the delivery of a service or the quality of a product is assessed and compared with that required

Quality assurance is the process of verifying or determining whether products or services meet or exceed customer expectations. Quality assurance is a process-driven approach with specific steps to help define and attain goals. This process considers design, development, production, and service.

Quality assurance encompasses all planned and systematic actions and programs that are designed to provide confidence that a product or service will meet customer expectations.

Quality assurance also refers to the activities necessary to ensure that a module, component or system conforms to established technical requirements. The following activities are typically part of a quality assurance program: design, development, production, distribution, installation, servicing and/or documentation. Many companies have entire departments devoted to quality assurance.

A quality assurance system can help increase a company's credibility and enable them to compete better with others. One of the most widely used methodologies in quality assurance management is the Plan-Do-Check-Act (PDCA) approach. This quality assurance paradigm is a repetitive cycle designed to improve business processes. Failure testing is a primary component of quality assurance, which exposes weaknesses in a product, service or component.

In manufacturing and construction, quality assurance practices are primarily defined by the International Standards contained in the ISO 9000 series.

7. Organization ensuring quality assurance: Following organizations function towards this end:

7.1. Pakistan Institute of Quality Control (PIQC)

PIQC is a trusted name and a leading Institute in Pakistan in the field of Quality Assurance and Management, Human Resource Management and Industrial Management in Pakistan. Since the last 18 years, it is providing high level of professional development and certification programs, Masters degree programs, seminars, consulting and advisory services, conferences and publications in the field of TQM (including Six Sigma, ISO 9001, ISO 14000, OHSAS 18000, ISO 17025, QA in Schools and Higher Education, TPM, QCC, and 5S); Human Resource Management (Training & Development, OB, Organizational Design, and IR); and Industrial Management (including Production Management, Supply Chain Management, etc). It has so far provided training to more than 30,000 persons in the country and abroad.

7.2. Higher Education Commission (HEC)

The Higher Education Commission has been set up by the Government of Pakistan to facilitate the development of indigenous universities to be world-class centers of education, research and development. Through facilitating this process, the HEC intends to play its part in spearheading the building of a knowledge-based economy in Pakistan.

Following past decades of underinvestment, the renewed realization of the Government of Pakistan of the importance of the higher education sector towards fuelling economic growth led to the establishment of the Higher Education Commission in 2002. Founded by Presidential Ordinance No.LIII in September 2002, the Commission has been entrusted with a broad mandate to evaluate, improve and promote the higher education and research sector in Pakistan. The reform agenda has been supported through the granting of a large array of powers to the Commission to fulfill its mandate, and record increases in financial resources by the Government to support this process.

Since its establishment, the Higher Education Commission has undertaken a systematic process of implementation of the five-year agenda for reform outlined in the HEC Medium Term Development Framework (MTDF), in which Access, Quality and Relevance have been identified as the key challenges faced by the sector. To address these challenges a comprehensive strategy has been defined that identifies the core strategic aims for reform as (i) Faculty Development, (ii) Improving Access, (iii) Excellence in Learning and Research, and (iv) Relevance to National Priorities. These strategic aims are supported by well-integrated cross-cutting themes for developing Leadership, Governance and Management, enhancing Quality Assessment and Accreditation and Physical and Technological Infrastructure Development.

Mission statement

The Higher Education Commission will facilitate Institutions of Higher Learning to serve as Engines for the Socio-Economic Development of Pakistan

7.3. ISO-9000

It is an international standard that many companies use to ensure that their quality assurance system is in place and effective. Conformance to ISO 9000 is said to guarantee that a company delivers quality products and services. To follow ISO 9000, a company's management team decides quality assurance policies and objectives. Next, the company or an external consultant formally writes down the company's policies and requirements and how the staff can implement the quality assurance system. Once this guideline is in place and the quality assurance procedures are implemented, an outside assessor examines the company's quality assurance system to make sure it complies with ISO 9000. A detailed report describes the parts of the standard the company missed, and the company agrees to correct any problems within a specific time. Once the problems are corrected, the company is certified as in conformance with the standard.

8. Self-assessment questions

1. What is meant by quality of education?
2. Which factors affect learning process?
3. How can we improve learning?
4. How can we assure the quality of education in Pakistan?

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Unit–9

EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN PAKISTAN

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1. Introduction

Leadership is complex and deeply relevant to educational effectiveness. It has been heavily researched: Stogdill's (1974) analyzed some 3,000 selected studies; Bass (1981) added two thousand further studies; and research publications have further increased up to date. We can sum up the general conclusions thus: Leaders with courage and vision make a great difference to their organizations, whereas weak leaders cannot exploit the potential of talented subordinates nor contribute towards institutional effectiveness. Successful leaders motivate their subordinate in such a way that they give a hundred percent to achieve the ultimate objectives of the organization.

2. Objectives

After going through this unit you will be able to:

- Understand the concept of Educational Leadership Philosophy
- Appreciate the key issues and problems of educational system in Pakistan
- Identify different new challenges emerging in educational system in Pakistan.
- Explore and define the concept of motivation
- Appreciate different fundamentals of motivation.
- Appreciate and analyze contemporary theories of motivation

3. Educational leadership philosophy

The Philosophy of bringing children of diverse back-grounds together and putting them through a guided and character building curriculum, effective class room situation, proper look after in the boarding house, encouraging them to do simple chores on their own, professional guidance in the play ground, an all round evening programme of hobbies, indoor games and entertainment will go a long way in directing the students' efforts along paths on which a rapid and rewarding progress can be made.

The teachers are mentored and educational leadership skills are inculcated in them through continuous on-job training. This leads to effective in-class grooming of the students. The school aims to produce students with honesty and integrity providing the base for the professional growth in their careers.

Today's students are leaders of tomorrow. The team spirit displayed by the staff members disseminates into the students. The evening group exercises help students how to work in teams while the emphasis of teachers in self-learning home works and class exercises builds self confidence and provide the students with the tools for a glowing future.

4. Education in Pakistan: The key issues, problems and the new challenges

Education plays a vital role in human capital formation. It raises the productivity and efficiency of individuals and thus produces skilled manpower that is capable of leading the economy towards the path of sustainable economic development. Like many other developing countries, the situation of the education sector in Pakistan is not very encouraging.

The low enrolment rates at the primary level, wide disparities between regions and gender, lack of trained teachers, deficiency of proper teaching materials and poor physical infrastructure of schools indicate the poor performance of this sector.

The extremely low level of public investment is the major cause of the poor performance of Pakistan's education sector. Public expenditure on education remained less than 2 percent of GNP before 1984-85. In recent years it has increased to 2.2 percent. In addition, the allocation of government funds is skewed towards higher education so that the benefits of public subsidy on education are largely reaped by the upper income class. Many of the highly educated go abroad either for higher education or in search of better job opportunities. Most of them do not return and cause a large public loss. In Pakistan, the quality of primary and secondary education has a declining trend. It is realized that science education in particular is reaching lowest ebb and needs to be improved urgently. At the time of independence and thereafter there remained acute shortage of teachers, laboratories were poor and ill equipped and curriculum had little relevance to present day needs (Behrman, 1976).

The results suggest that certain minimum levels of enrolment at primary and secondary level represent a necessary condition for the development of functioning higher education. For relevant participation rates at university level, a net primary enrolment rate of 80 percent seems to be the minimum required. Similarly, about 80 percent of secondary net enrolment typically seems to be the minimum to develop higher education institutions with the potential to be listed in international university rankings, to employ the considerable number of researchers and to develop significant new ideas. Another relevant result of analysis is that the strong differences between educational institutions at secondary level may be detrimental for tertiary education quality (Katharina, 2006).

The Education Sector in Pakistan suffers from insufficient financial input, low levels of efficiency for implementation of programs, and poor quality of management, monitoring, supervision and teaching. As a result, Pakistan has one of the lowest rates of literacy in the world, and the lowest among countries of comparative resources and social/economic situations. With a per capita income of over $450 Pakistan has an adult literacy rate of 49%, while both Vietnam and India with less per capita income have literacy rates of 94% and 52%, respectively (Human Development Centre, 1998). Literacy is higher in urban areas and in the provinces of Sindh and Punjab, among the higher income group and in males.

5. New challenges

Although Pakistan experienced massive growth in enrollment soon after independence, such exponential growth has been accompanied by manifold challenges and dilemmas. This section discusses some of the issues surrounding the challenges and dilemmas to the initiatives at getting everybody in school and provides them with quality education.

5.1. Efficiency and quality

Teachers are perhaps the most critical component of any system of education. How well they teach depends on motivation, qualification, experience, training, aptitude and a host of other factors, not the least of these being the environment and management structures within which they perform their role. Schwille et al. (1991) presented a detailed causal model to explain grade repetition. They hypothesized that student characteristics such as gender, family influence, place of residence, age, prior repetition, national policies regarding language, school entrance, quality of instruction, and school characteristics such as management policies, coverage of syllabus, etc. act to influence repetition. They observed that these in turn affect student learning, student motivation, and self-esteem, the examination success rate, the enrolment rate, the dropout rate and the mean time required to produce a graduate.

5.2 Relevance of education

Policy makers in Pakistan have been preoccupied in seeking ways of making the content of education more meaningful and the methods of delivery more cost-effective within the context of nation building and economic development. The attention has been on the role of education in preparing children to participate actively and productively in national building. The literature is full of such attempts at making education more relevant. The lack of social demand for education is related to the fact that families and communities do not value or are ambivalent about formal education. Serpell (1993) pointed to the parental disillusionment with the present education systems and expressed support for more relevant curricula; more closely related to the daily lives of students and providing practical skills for students. Odaga and Heneveld (1995) contended that the problem is even more acute with girls where gender biasness in subject choices together with cultural factors limits girls' chances of progress.

5.3 Inadequate research activities

Research gives rise to curiosity and a desire to look for and find, better solutions to our everyday problems or better explanations for whatever happens. Over the years, numerous manuscripts have been written about lack of research in Pakistan. The issue is discussed frequently in academic institutions too. In nearly all such discussions, lacks of funding and of adequate facilities are presented as the major reasons for the research not been conducted. Perhaps the single most significant impediment in Pakistan to research and also quality higher education, is the near-zero tolerance for dissent in educational institutions. We have in place a hierarchical system, which operates at every level of the society — at home, school, college, university and workplace. Research thrives best where there is a group with which one can interact — a 'critical mass' of critical thinkers. Ideally, the group should not comprise people from the same narrow field but from different areas. This promotes cross-fertilization of ideas. This is where universities have an edge over single-discipline institutes. Now that the government is providing substantial research funds to public-sector universities, a major hurdle has been removed. The step is long overdue and thus commendable. It is now up to the universities to produce the desired results.

6. Motivation

Motivation refers to forces either within or external to a person that arouse enthusiasm and persistence to pursue a certain course of action. Needless to say, employee

motivation affects productivity and one part of a manager's job is using this productivity towards the accomplishment of organizational goals. The study of Motivation helps managers to understand what prompts people to initiate action, what influences their choice of action and why they persist in that action over time.
If we try to express motivation process as a simple model, we can describe it in three steps: (1) people have basic needs (food, achievement, monetary gain), (2) these needs increase and become tense to create behaviors to fulfill them, (3) the more the behavior is successful, the better the individual is satisfied or rewarded. Individuals can be rewarded in two ways, either by intrinsic rewards (receive personal satisfaction in performing an action) or by extrinsic rewards (receive rewards from other people for performing that action). The reward also tells the person that the behavior is appropriate and can be used again. The manager's attitude about motivation and the way they use rewards depends on his perspective on motivation.

7. Fundamentals of motivation

The following aspects may be taken into account for the motivation of employees:

7.1 Select the right people for the job:

Employees don't automatically know what is expected of them. They feel abandoned and uncomfortable when they aren't taught what they need to know to do the job right. Develop trust by providing the training necessary to employees to succeed in their jobs. Minimal performance frequently results from employees not knowing that anything more is expected of them. Continue to offer employees training to develop new skills, challenges and opportunities.

7.2 Treat employees well

Respect employees and treat them as if they were your friends, partners or clients and they will respond in kind. Know your employees' names and families and talk to them. When a "thank you" is in order, be perceptive to what motivates your employee. Thank them personally, in writing or publicly...give credit. Help employees achieve what they want and to conquer their fears. Treat each element of an employee's performance separately, praising what's good and coaching in areas that need improvement. Responsibility brings out the best in people. Hold employees to a high, but realistic standard. Be honest and coach them if necessary. At the core of accountability is feedback. If you don't care enough to provide honest feedback, they won't think it's important to put forth much effort.

7.3 Enrich employees' jobs

Leaders are those who empower others by giving employees the resources, information and authority to make decisions. Provide clear expectations and then get out of the way. Allow employees as much control as possible after you have provided the tools and training necessary to do the job. Involving employees, especially in decisions that affect them, is respectful to them and those will also increase their commitment to implementing new ideas or changes. People who are closest to the problem or customer, typically have the best insight as to how to improve a situation.

7.4 Develop a sense of ownership and empowerment: Require accountability:

If you want motivated employees, give them motivating work. Everyone should have at least part of their job be interesting and challenging. Find out what tasks your employees enjoy most and use this information in future work assignments. Give employees choices. Whenever possible, allow flexibility in their jobs. Giving people freedom to do their job as they see fit brings additional initiative, ideas and energy to their jobs. Help employees learn, grow and take on added responsibilities. Provide opportunities for skill development. Investing in their growth and marketability will improve their loyalty and performance.

7.5 Communicate

There are two ways to communicate—to listen and to respond. Share business goals and seek input from employees to connect employees to the bottom line and get everyone pulling in the same direction. Get employees' input. **ASK** what would they do differently? How can we put your ideas into action? Where do we want to go from here? What help do you need from me? Focus on the results wanted, provide what is needed and get out of the way. Allow success.

7.6 Different perspectives on motivation

Since the work of Fredrick Taylor on scientific management, people have been dealing with employee performance and searching for the ways of improving it for the sake of improving organizational performance and hence organizational profits. Although the approaches and the ways they perceive workers have changed, the ultimate goal has always been the same. By satisfying employee's needs, the managers wanted to achieve higher productivity and lead this performance towards the achievement of organizational objectives.

Within the traditional approach, economic rewards were provided to workers to increase their performance as they viewed workers as economic people and hoped they would work harder for higher pay. With the Human relations approach to motivation, the economic man who was assumed to have only economic needs was replaced by the concept of the social man in the manager's mind and with this assumption in mind, employees were tried to be motivated by using non economic rewards. The Human Resource Approach has combined the concepts of the economic man and the social man and viewed employees as complex and motivated by many factors. While the Traditional and Human Relations approaches were trying to manipulate the workers through economic and social rewards, the Human Resources approach assumed that employees are competent and able to make major contributions for the enhancement of organizational performance. In fact, this approach has laid the groundwork for the contemporary approaches on employee motivation contributions for the enhancement of organizational performance. In fact, this approach has laid the groundwork for the contemporary approaches on employee motivation

8. Contemporary theories of motivation

Under this broad topic of Contemporary Theories on employee motivation, there are three distinct groups of Motivation theories which are grouped according to different perspectives they apply to employee motivation. These three groups of motivational theories are Content Theories which stress the importance of underlying human needs in employee motivation, Process Theories which concentrate on the thought processes of individuals that influence their behavior and Reinforcement Theories which focus on observable actions or employee learning of desired work behavior, rather than what is happening inside the employee's head.

9. Reward system

In neuroscience, the **reward system** is a collection of brain structures which attempts to regulate and control behavior by inducing pleasurable effects.

9.1 Psychological reward

A psychological reward is a process that reinforces behavior — something that, when offered, causes a behavior to increase in intensity. Reward is an operational concept for describing the positive value an individual ascribes to an object, behavioral act or an internal physical state. Primary rewards include those that are necessary for the survival of the species, such as food, water, and sex. Some people include shelter in primary reward. Secondary rewards derive their value from the primary reward and include money, pleasant touch, beauty, music etc. The functions of rewards are based directly on the modification of behavior and indirectly on the sensory properties of rewards. For instance, altruism may induce a larger psychological reward, although it doesn't cause sensations. Rewards are generally considered more effective than punishment in enforcing positive behavior. Rewards induce learning, approach behaviour and feelings of positive emotions.

Communication and learning are important components of the change process. However even if the change message is well communicated and well received, and people are given the opportunity to learn so they can behave differently in the new environment, it doesn't follow that anyone is going to change their behavior. First, they'll look to see on what basis the carrots and gold stars are going to be distributed. If they see that the rewards are going to be handed out the way they always were - then they're going to behave the way they always did - and they're not going to change.

Communication and learning systems can be a bit theoretical. Of course it may cost something to produce a communication package and to put the learning system in place, but these activities don't actually hurt anyone. It's only when the change process begins to change the reward system that people are going to be in danger of getting hurt and everyone will be able to see if management is really serious about implementing change.

Why is this question of the reward system so important? This is because people only work for the reward. For some people the reward may be mainly financial, but for others it will be a question of good company, good coffee, status, brain stimulation, good resorts and restaurants, and free tickets for Buckeye games.

Rewards are great aren't they? But remember, people are enjoying their rewards and having a good life because you're rewarding them for working the way you wanted them to work in the past. Now you want them to work differently and to behave differently. So you'll need to reward them differently. First, you'll need to reward them to change, and then you'll need to reward them to work the way you want them to work in the future. You'll want to reward them for changing - getting the right skills and behaving the right way. You'll want to reward them for going a bit further than average and doing things really right. Don't forget, they are thinking - if I've got to work to get new skills, what's in it for me? How's it going to work if I'm doing a great job, but the other team members aren't - why should I lose out because the others aren't performing? And how am I going to move ahead if there are fewer levels in the organization? What sort of reward will I get? Is it worth the effort to change? Make it plain upfront to the people who do the rewarding that if they don't give a reward that is due, they will be in deep trouble - because it will give the impression that you're not serious about change. Once people start thinking that you're not serious about change and begin to doubt your integrity then no one is going to change their behavior.

10. Partnerships for education

Partnership for Education (PfE), a joint initiative of the World Economic Forum Global Education Initiative and UNESCO, was formally launched in January 2007. Its goals are to enhance global understanding of the value of Multi-stakeholder Partnerships for Education (MSPEs), focusing particularly on the roles of governments and the private sector and to support the delivery of such partnerships to help achieve Education for All (EFA) goals.

11. Self-assessment questions

1. What are major trends and issues related to educational leadership in Pakistan?
2. Differentiate between educational issues and problems.
3. Elaborate fundamental of motivation.
4. Compare and contrast different approaches to motivation.

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