

## **UNIVERSITY GRANTS COMMISSION**

EDUCATION

CODE:09

### **Unit 9: Educational Management, Administration and Leadership**

#### **SUB UNIT - 1**

SL. NO.	TOPICS
1	9.1.1. Educational Management (Meaning, Principles, Functions and importance)
2	9.1.2. Educational Administration (Meaning, Principles, Functions and importance)
3	9.1.3. Institutional building
4	9.1.4. POSDCORB
5	9.1.5. CPM
6	9.1.6. PERT
7	9.1.7. Management as a system
8	9.1.8. SWOT analysis
9	9.1.9. Taylorism
10	9.1.10. Administration as a process
11	9.1.11. Administration as a bureaucracy
12	9.1.12. Human relations approach to Administration
13	9.1.13. Organisational compliance
14	9.1.14. Organinsational development
15	9.1.15. Organisational climate

**SUB UNIT - 2**

SL. NO.	TOPICS
16	9.2.1. Leadership in Educational Administration: Meaning and Nature
17	9.2.2. Trait approach to leadership
18	9.2.3. Transformational approach to leadership
19	9.2.4. Transactional approach to leadership
20	9.2.5. Value based approach to leadership
21	9.2.6. Cultural approach to leadership
22	9.2.7. Psychodynamic approach to leadership
23	9.2.8. Charismatic approach to leadership
24	9.2.9. Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid Model of Leadership
25	9.2.10. Fiedler's Contingency Model of Leadership
26	9.2.11. Tri-dimensional Model of Leadership
27	9.2.12. Hersey and Blanchard's Model of Leadership
28	9.2.13. Leader-Member Exchange Theory Model of Leadership

**SUB UNIT - 3**

S.L. NO.	TOPICS
29	9.3.1. Concept of Quality
30	9.3.2. Quality in Education: Indian and International perspective
31	9.3.3. Evolution of Quality: Inspection
32	9.3.4. Quality Control
33	9.3.5. Quality Assurance
34	9.3.6. Total Quality Management (TQM)
35	9.3.7. Six sigma
36	9.3.8. Quality Gurus: Walter Shewart
37	9.3.9. Edward Deming
38	9.3.10. C.K Pralhad

**SUB UNIT - 4**

S.L. NO.	TOPIC
39	<b>9.4.1. Change Management: Meaning</b>
40	<b>9.4.2. Need for Planned change</b>
41	<b>9.4.3. Three-Step-Model of Change (Unfreezing, Moving, Refreezing)</b>
42	<b>9.4.4. The Japanese Models of Change: Just-in-Time</b>
43	<b>9.4.5. Poka yoke</b>
44	<b>9.4.6. Cost of Quality: Appraisal Costs, Failure costs and Preventable costs</b>
45	<b>9.4.7. Cost Benefit Analysis</b>
46	<b>9.4.8. Cost Effective Analysis</b>
47	<b>9.4.9. Quality Assurance Agency: NAAC</b>
48	<b>9.4.10. Performance Indicators</b>
49	<b>9.4.11. Quality Council of India [QCI]</b>
50	<b>9.4.12. International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education [INQAAHE].</b>



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## Section – 1 : Unit at a Glance

### SUB UNIT – 1

#### Educational Management

**Meaning:** The verb 'manage' comes from the Italian *maneggiare* (to handle, especially tools), which derives from the Latin word *manus* (hand).

The French word *mesnagement* (later *ménagement*) influenced the development in meaning of the English word *management* in the 17th and 18th centuries.

**Educational Management** is the process of planning, organising, directing and controlling the activities of an institution by utilising human and material resources so as to effectively and efficiently accomplish functions of teaching, extension work and research.

#### Educational Management aims at the following:

- Achieving an institution's objectives
- Improving the processes of planning, organising and implementing within the institution
- Creating, enhancing and maintaining a positive public image of the institution.
- Optimal utilisation of human resources
- Enhancing the efficiency and effectiveness of infrastructure
- Enabling job satisfaction
- Creating and maintaining a congenial and cohesive atmosphere
- Managing interpersonal conflicts, stress
- Improving interpersonal communication.
- Building a relationship with the community.

#### Educational Administration:

According to Graham Balfore, "Educational Administration is to enable the right pupils to receive the right educational administration is to enable the right teacher at a cost within the means of the state under conditions which will enable the pupils best to profit by their training."

J.B. Sears, to him "Educational Administration contains much that we mean by the word government and is closely related in content to such words as supervision, planning, oversight, direction, organisation, control, guidance and regulation."

**Scope Educational Administration:**

1. Production
2. Assuring Public
3. Finance and Accounting
4. Personnel, and
5. Co-ordination

**Characteristics of Educational Administration:**

The term educational administration is characterised in the following grounds:

1. Making all efforts and agencies work together in joint venture.
2. Assisting in the realization of the aims and objectives of education.
3. Rendering service to society in its progress and progress of individuals.
4. Educational Administration is concerned with diverse human beings, the teachers, students, parents and public and co-ordination of their efforts.
5. It is concerned with all those activities undertaken and fullest utilization of resources for education.

**Educational Administration influences the following:**

1. The preparation of curriculum for different classes according to their diverse abilities and aptitudes.
2. The time table and academic calendar
3. The co-curricular programmes
4. Organisation and distribution of work
5. Establishment and working of infrastructure
6. The organisation and conduct of examinations
7. The organisation and functioning of guidance and counselling cells on the campus
8. The organisation of community reach programmes
9. The provision of auxiliary services like midday meals, school uniforms, books medical checkups etc

**Institutional building:**

It simply refers to any structure that fulfils a role related to education, recreation, healthcare, public works. Institutional buildings are often grand in design and subject to a lot of public scrutiny and input during their design process.

**Government institutional building:** it generally includes court houses, judicial centers, city halls, detention facilities, police headquarters, military camps, educational buildings, transportation terminals like air ports, railway stations, bus stands etc.

**Private institutional buildings:** it includes all types of public buildings funded by NGOs, other private supports, community funds etc. For example public art galleries, cultural centres etc.

**POSDCORB:**

Luther Gulick ,classical theorist, coined the term POSDCORB that refers to seven functions of management. These functions are planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting.

**CPM:**

Critical path method is based on mathematical calculations and it is used for scheduling project activities. This method was first introduced in 1950s as a joint venture between Remington Rand Corporation and DuPont Corporation.

**Steps of PERT :**

1. Identify the specific activities and milestones.
2. Determine the proper sequence of the activities.
3. Construct a network diagram.
4. Estimate the time required for each activity.
5. Determine the critical path.
6. Update the PERT chart as the project progresses.

**Usefulness of PERT:**

1. Expected project completion time;
2. Probability of completion before a specified date;
3. The critical path activities that directly impact the completion time;
4. The activities that have slack time and that can be lend resources to critical path activities;
5. Activity start and end date.

**Management as a system:**

Management as a system is a set of policies, processes and procedures that an organization used to ensure a number of sub functions like planning, decision making, implementing plans, guiding, integrating, motivating, supervising and so on. Spreigel told that administration is the 'determinative function' and management is 'executive function'. It is a collection of processes, including such things as problem solving, action planning etc.

**SWOT Analysis:**

**Strengths:** characteristics of the business or project that give it an advantage over others.

**Weaknesses:** characteristics of the business that place the business or project at a disadvantage relative to others.

**Opportunities:** elements in the environment that the business or project could exploit to its advantage.

**Threats:** elements in the environment that could cause trouble for the business or project.

**Taylorism:**

The theory of scientific management is the brainchild of Frederick Winslow Taylor. This theory emphasized on management of work and workers. In its simplest form, the theory follows the idea that there is one best way to do a job and that is to use scientific method. In his view, if a task is scientifically managed it will increase the productivity by increasing efficiency and wages of workers. Scientific management in terms of time study standards, separation of administrative and employee duties and incentive systems would correct the performance of labours.

**Administration as a bureaucracy:**

Max Weber proposes the concept of Bureaucracy in a context in which he considers rationalisation of society as inevitable (Pollitt, 2008), causing a growing impersonality in the social relationship, disenchantment of the world (Aron, 1994; Giddens, 1997). In short, bureaucracy is the “phenomenon of affirmation of the rationalisation of the world” (Paiva, 2014, p. 439).

**The major assumptions of the human relations approach:**

- Employees are motivated by social and psychological needs and by economic incentives.
- These needs, including but not limited to recognition, belongingness and security, are more important in determining worker morale and productivity than the physical conditions of the work environment.
- An individual's perceptions, beliefs, motivations, cognition, responses to frustration, values and similar factors may affect behaviour in the work setting.



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## SUB UNIT – 2

### Leadership in Educational Administration:

**Meaning:** Leadership can be defined as the process or concept of leading or simply the act of leading. It can be put under two categories - Actual Leadership and Potential Leadership. The actual leadership involves giving guidance or direction while potential leadership is the capacity or ability to lead as in the concept "born to lead".

The Oxford English Dictionary defines leadership as:

‘The action of leading a group of people or an organization, or the ability to do this.’

**Competency / Trait perspective** - It is one of the oldest perspectives known and six traits on which leaders differ from non-leaders. Key leader traits identified include achievement orientation, motivation, ambition, energy, tenacity, initiative; leadership motivation with the desire to lead but not seek power as an end in itself; honesty and integrity coupled with self-confidence and all these associated with emotional and cognitive stability and last but not least, business knowledge.

### Transformational Approach:

This perspective of leadership views how leaders can transform teams and organizations by creating a compelling vision and inspiring employees to attain that vision. Transformational leaders act on the vision by building employee commitment towards the vision.

A transformational leader is a person who stimulates, inspires and transforms followers to achieve extraordinary outcomes and pays attention to the concern and developmental needs of followers; they are able to arouse, excite and inspire followers to put extra effort to achieve group goals.

**Transactional Leadership** focuses on the role of supervision, organization and group performance; this is a style of leadership in which the leader promotes compliance of his followers through both rewards and punishments.

**Value based approach** to leadership theory asserts that people are mostly motivated by values. They strongly care about their personal values and live accordingly. Values are most natural motivators. As a philosophy it assumes that an organization based around shared values is likely to be more flexible and more productive than one working towards an aim that few people care about.

**Cultural Approach:**

Culture plays a vital role in any educational approach. Attitude, behaviour, respect for others, self respect, value, straight forwardness, fellow feeling, we feeling, sharing, cooperation etc play a vital role in effective leadership. These culture influences various aspects of society like work together, helping subordinates, open mindedness etc.

Leading the cultural sector is practised in two different ways:

1. It concerns competently managing the organisations of the cultural sector, ensuring that they are financially viable, legal and with well-organised staff.
2. It means leading culture itself- making work, production and projects which show different ways of thinking, feeling and experiencing the wider society and world economy.

**The psychodynamic approach** has no single model or theory. The main concept behind this approach is personality. It is important that leaders becoming aware of their own personality type and the personalities of their followers. The psychodynamic approach has its roots in the works of Sigmund Freud's psychoanalysis and also influenced by the theory of Carl Jung.

The fundamental goal of this approach is to raise the awareness of leaders and followers to their own personality types. This approach emphasizes our past experiences, feelings, self understanding, sub consciousness etc.

A **charismatic leader** has people follow him not because of who he is and definitely not because of him being the business successor or for his good management skills of participation, partnership and empowerment. It is all about his "Charisma" or "Human Magnetism". However, it is important to note that what looks charismatic to Americans may not necessarily appear so to others. Charisma is a critical dimension of leadership.

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**Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid:**

A popular framework for thinking about a leader's 'task versus person' orientation was developed by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton in the early 1960s, called the Managerial Grid, or Leadership Grid. It plots the degree of task-centredness versus person-centredness and identifies five combinations as distinct leadership styles, namely, Country club, Team Leader, Impoverished, Produce or Perish, and Middle of the road.

**The Fiedler Contingency Model:** It was created in the mid-1960s by Fred Fiedler, a scientist who studied the personality and characteristics of leaders.

The model states that there is no one best style of leadership. Instead, a leader's effectiveness is based on the situation. This is the result of two factors – "leadership style" and "situational favourableness". Fiedler termed this combination (of leadership style and 'situational favourableness') as Situational Contingency.

**Tri-dimensional Model:**

The 3-D Theory of Managerial Effectiveness is developed by William Reddin, containing four basic types of leadership style, namely, High relationship orientation and high task orientation called ***Integrated Type***; High relationship orientation and low task orientation called ***Related Type***; Low relationship orientation and high task orientation called ***Dedicated Type***; and Low relationship orientation and low task orientation called ***Separated Type***.

Thus, by measuring the level of effectiveness of each style, Reddin developed this basic model into eight leadership styles. This modified model is called ***The 3-D Theory of Managerial Effectiveness***.

**Hersey and Blanchard's Model:**

Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard first published their Situational Leadership Model in the late 1960s. The model focuses on followers, rather than on wider workplace circumstances, and asserts that leaders should change their behaviour according to the type of followers. It proposes a 'continuum' or progression of leadership adaptation in response to the development of followers.

**Leader-Member Exchange Theory:**

The leader-member exchange theory of leadership as formulated by Graen (1976) focuses on the two-way relationship between supervisors and subordinates. It is linked to the social exchange theory which explains social change and stability as a process of negotiated exchanges between parties. Leaders usually have special relationships with an inner circle called the '***in-group***' and these employees work harder and are more committed to task objectives besides handling all the administrative duties. They are expected to be totally committed and loyal to their leader.

## SUB UNIT – 3

### Concept of Quality:

The Oxford Dictionary (1999) defines quality as “*the value and degree of excellence*”.

The gurus in the TQM area, define quality as:

- conformance to requirements (Crosby, 1979)
- the characteristics through which the product and service meet the expectations of the customer (Feigenbaum, 1983)
- whatever the customer needs and wants (Deming, 1986)
- fitness for use, product features which respond to customer needs, and freedom from deficiencies (Juran, 1951).

### Evolution of Quality:

**Inspection:** The quality inspection stage started about 1910 when the Ford Motor Company, then one of the world’s largest manufacturers, employed teams of inspectors to check the quality of the T-model car. The idea behind quality inspection was that poor quality products could be found by inspection and then either scrapped, reworked or sold as lower quality products.

### Quality Control:

By the 1920s and 1930s, Statistical Quality Control (which was developed, mainly by Walter A. Shewhart), was being adopted by Ford and many other manufacturing companies in order to identify problems earlier and control the manufacturing process, instead of rejecting or repairing afterwards. However, despite the work of Shewhart [1931, 1939] on variation and its causes playing a fundamental role in the evolution of quality management to this day quality inspection continues to be used in many companies. Quality control measures lead to greater process control and lower incidence of non-conformances.

### Quality Assurance:

The Quality Assurance stage focuses on pre-production activities and relies on quality standards [most notably, ISO 9000] or instructions to assist with the reduction of the risk of failures and mistakes in the processes used to produce a product or service. ISO 9000, which was first published by the International Organization for Standardization (ISO) in 1987, is now used extensively throughout the world. Today, more than 670 000 organizations worldwide are third party certified to ISO 9001:2000.

**Total Quality Management (TQM):**

Total quality management (TQM) is the fourth level of quality management. The major source the Japanese success was TQM implementation in all aspects of business. Comprehensive efforts were made to promote quality control in Japan in the 1940s through the establishment of the Japanese Union of Scientists and Engineers. Some significant considerations by the Japanese in implementing TQM have been found to be: top management direct involvement; emphasis on training and education; a formal organisation of quality; the use of informal quality control circles, giving awards, lots of patience. TQM is a term that was initially coined by the Department of Defence in the United States (Evans and Lindsay, 2001).

**Six sigma:**

Six Sigma is another concept within Quality Management that has spread throughout the world. It has strong similarities with TQM. Six Sigma has often been presented as something completely different to TQM, but it has been shown that Six Sigma and TQM have many traits, methodologies and values in common and few differences. The Six Sigma movement stems from the quality journey experienced by Motorola, an American corporation that in the late 1970s and early 1980s saw Japanese competition gaining a significant market share with products superior to those of Motorola. A notable difference between TQM and Six Sigma is that Six Sigma has a stronger emphasis on monetary success and an elite workforce doing the improvement work.

**Walter Shewart:**

Dr. Walter A. Shewhart is often referred to as the “grandfather of quality control”. He studied randomness and recognized that variability existed in all manufacturing processes. He developed quality control charts that are used to identify if the variability in the process is random or due to an assignable cause (operator, equipment, tools, etc.) He also stressed that eliminating variability improves quality. His work created the foundation of today’s Statistical Process Control.

**Edward Deming:**

Deming is considered by many researchers as the founding father of the quality movement. Deming began on quality endeavour in the 1940s. He focused on the earlier statistical sampling techniques, based on the work of W A Shewhart. Deming stressed that quality problems are caused mainly by processes and systems, including poor management.

**Deming’s “Seven Deadly Diseases of Management”:**

1. Lack of consistency of purpose
2. Emphasis on short-term profits
3. Evaluation by performance, merit rating, or annual review of performance
4. Mobility of management
5. Running a company on visible figures alone
6. Excessive medical costs
7. Excessive costs of warranty, fuelled by lawyers who work for contingency fees

**C.K Pralhad:**

Coimbatore Krishnarao Prahalad (8 August 1941 – 16 April 2010) was the Paul and Ruth McCracken

Distinguished University Professor of Corporate Strategy at University of Michigan Stephen M. Ross School of Business.

Prahalad was co-founder and became CEO of Praja Inc. ("Praja" from a Sanskrit word "Praja" which means "citizen" or "common people").

He was the first recipient of the Lal Bahadur Shastri Award for contributions to Management and Public Administration presented by the President of India in 1999.

In 2009, he was named Padma Bhushan 'third in the hierarchy of civilian awards' by the Government of India.

In 2011, the Southern Regional Headquarters of Confederation of Indian Industry (CII) was named as Prof C K Prahalad Center.



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## SUB UNIT – 4

### Change Management:

#### Meaning:

Change Management is a systematic activity to prepare an organization for and implement ongoing environmental changes in a business operation. Change Management is about innovative strategies and speedy activities to deal with variable and sudden changes.

Successful Change Management not only improves the governance structure but also raises productivity up to the maximum level by modifying the existing organization system to meet the customer satisfaction.

### Need for Planned change:

#### External Factors:

Market situation or market place

Technology

Government laws and regulations

Economics

#### Internal Factors:

Corporate strategy

Workforce

Technology and equipment

Employee attitudes

### Three-Step-Model of Change:

Kurt Lewin proposed a three stage theory of change commonly referred to as Unfreeze, Change (or Transition), Freeze (or Refreeze).

### The Japanese Models of Change:

**Just-in-Time:** The just-in-time (JIT) inventory system is a management strategy that minimizes inventory and increases efficiency.

Just-in-time (JIT) manufacturing is also known as the Toyota Production System (TPS) because the car manufacturer Toyota adopted the system in the 1970s.

Kanban is a scheduling system often used in conjunction with JIT to avoid overcapacity of work in process.

The success of the JIT production process relies on steady production, high-quality workmanship, no machine breakdowns, and reliable suppliers.

### Poka yoke:

Poka-yoke means "mistake-proofing". Its purpose is to eliminate product defects by preventing, correcting, or drawing attention to human errors as they occur. The concept was formalised, and the term adopted, by Shigeo Shingo as part of the Toyota Production System.

**Cost of Quality:**

In his book, Total Quality Control, Feigenbaum listed a number of categories of cost incurred while manufacturing products. Quality planning, scrap, re-work, inspection, test and so on. He called them quality costs.

Feigenbaum divided them into four distinct groups. Prevention, Appraisal and Internal and External failure.

quality cost = Appraisal cost + Failure Cost + Prevention cost

**Cost Benefit Analysis:**

This is a technique that has been used for the purpose of choosing a project from among a number of projects on the basis of a consideration of their cost benefit relationship. In applying this technique, one has to be careful about both the concepts of costs and benefits as well as their measurement. Cost benefit analysis provides a measure of the profitability of education as an investment for society, or for the individual student or his/her family. It will act as a general guide for resource allocation and enable the comparison of the profitability of different types of education.

**Cost Effective Analysis:**

Cost-effectiveness is a concept which is useful in measuring the success of an educational system in meeting the intended benefits (direct and indirect or intangible).

Cost-effectiveness is concerned with both the quantitative and qualitative relationship between inputs and outputs. The cost effectiveness approach is more appropriate at the level of the institution, the classroom or even the lectures delivered in the classrooms, as at such levels, objectives can be more precisely defined. It can be particularly used to decide about teaching methods when the objective is to bring the students up to some measurable level of competence.

**National Assessment Accreditation Council [NAAC]:**

National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC) is an autonomous institution under University Grants Commission (UGC) of India, established in the year 1994.

It has been entrusted with the responsibility of Assessment and Accreditation of Colleges and Universities in India for promotion of quality of teaching-learning and research.

**Performance Indicators:**

Every organizations have their own aims and objectives and goals. In order to fulfil their objectives and goals organizations have to keep check over their performance.

The performance indicators may include the following:

Quality

Flexibility

Time

Safety

Financial performance

Cost

Employee's satisfaction

Learning and growth



**Quality Council of India [QCI]:**

- Cabinet decision to establish Quality Council of India, in 1996
- formed in January 1997.
- Non-profit autonomous society
- Joint initiative of the Government of India, and the Indian Industry, namely ASSOCHAM, CII and FICCI.
- PPP – 50% seed money by Govt; 50% by the industry bodies
- Purpose: To establish & operate national accreditation structure and to promote Quality through nation wide quality campaign
- Mission – Quality for the National Well Being

**The International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education (INQAAHE):** It is a world-wide association of organisations with a major interest in evaluation, accreditation and quality assurance in higher education. INQAAHE was established in 1991 with only 8 members. Today the total membership exceeds 300 members.



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## Section – 2 : Key Statements

### BASIC POINTS:

Educational Management – Meaning, Principles, Functions and importance (9.1.1.), Educational Administration – Meaning, Principles, Functions and importance (9.1.2.), Institutional building (9.1.3.), Management as a system (9.1.7.), Administration as a process (9.1.10.), Human relations approach to Administration (9.1.12.), Organinsational development (9.1.14), Leadership in Educational Administration: Meaning and Nature (9.2.1.), Trait approach to leadership (9.2.2.), Transactional approach to leadership (9.2.4.), Value based approach to leadership (9.2.5.), Cultural approach to leadership (9.2.6.), Concept of Quality (9.3.1.), Evolution of Quality: Inspection(9.3.3.), Quality Control(9.3.4.), Quality Assurance(9.3.5.), Change Management: Meaning (9.4.1.), Need for Planned change(9.4.2.), [NAAC] (9.4.9.),

### SATNDARD POINTS:

POSDCORB (9.1.4.), CPM (9.1.5.), PERT (9.1.6.), Administration as a bureaucracy (9.1.11.), Organisational compliance (9.1.13), Organisational climate (9.1.15), Transformational approach to leadership (9.2.3.), Psychodynamic approach to leadership (9.2.7.), Leader-Member Exchange Theory(9.2.13.), Quality in Education: Indian and International perspective(9.3.2.), Total Quality Management (TQM) (9.3.6.), Six sigma(9.3.7.), Three-Step-Model of Change (Unfreezing, Moving, Refreezing) (9.4.3.), The Japanese Models of Change: Just-in-Time(9.4.4.), Poka yoke(9.4.5.), Cost of Quality: Appraisal Costs, Failure costs and Preventable costs(9.4.6.), Cost Benefit Analysis(9.4.7.), Cost Effective Analysis(9.4.8.), Performance Indicators(9.4.10.),

### ADVANCED POINTS:

SWOT analysis (9.1.8.), Taylorism (9.1.9.), Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid(9.2.9.), Fiedler's Contingency Model(9.2.10.), Tri-dimensional Model(9.2.11.), Hersey and Blanchard's Model(9.2.12.), Walter Shewart(9.3.8.), Edward Deming(9.3.9.), C.K Pralhad(9.3.10.), [QCI] (9.4.11.), [INQA AHE] (9.4.12.).

## **SUB UNIT – 1**

### **9.1.1. Educational Management**

#### **Meaning:**

Management is an academic discipline. It is a social science whose object of study is the social organization. It is an art, a science, an organisation, a discipline, or a process. Educational Management is the process of planning, organising, directing and controlling the activities of an institution by utilising human resources (like children, parents, teachers, other employees) and material resources (money, building, grounds etc) so as to effectively and efficiently accomplish functions of teaching, extension work and research. Thus Educational Management is a comprehensive effort intended to achieve some specific educational objectives. It is the dynamic side of education.

#### **Principles:**

Henry Fayol's 14 Principles of Educational Management are the following:

1. Division of work
2. Authority
3. Discipline
4. Unity of command
5. Unity of direction
6. Subordination of individual interests
7. Remuneration
8. Centralisation
9. Scalar chain
10. Material and social order
11. Equity
12. Stability
13. Initiative
14. Esprit de corps

**Functions:**

**1. Planning:** Planning is the process of setting objectives and determining the actions in order to achieve them. It is anticipatory in nature and sets priorities. It is proactive rather than passive. Planning asks the following questions: What? When? Where? By whom? How? while following a series of steps:

Defining Objectives (setting objectives or goals)



Determining the current status with respect to the objectives (being aware of opportunities)



Determining planning premises (analysing the situation for external factors and forecasting future trends; generation of future scenarios)



Identifying alternative (best alternative to accomplish the objectives)



Choosing an alternative (selecting the course of action to be pursued)



Formulating support plans (arranging for human and material resources)



Implementing the plan (action stage which also involves evaluation)

**2. Organising:** Organising is the process of combining the work which individuals or groups have to perform with facilities necessary for its execution. So that the duties performed must provide the best channels for systematic, efficient, positive and co-ordinated application of available effort.

**3. Directing:** Directing is the art or process of influencing people. So that they willingly strive to achieve the proposed goals. It focuses on the development of willingness to work with confidence, provides adequate guidelines to complete the task, and motivates individuals to achieve goals in a coordinated and supportive manner. It also focuses on exercising leadership while determining responsibility and accountability.

**4. Controlling:** Controlling involves measuring and monitoring performance in accordance with plans and taking corrective action when required. It establishes performance standards based on the objectives, measures and reports actual performance compares the two and takes corrective or preventive action as necessary.

**5. Evaluating:** Evaluating is the process of measuring and assessing the achievement of objectives while providing an insight into strengths and weaknesses. It is the planning for future endeavours.

It helps to determine the effectiveness of plans for both administrators and other stakeholders (like teachers, staff, students and parents), as also the extended community. It seeks to document the objectives that have been met and to provide information to all concerned.

Thus it focuses upon Process (how is the plan being carried out), Outcome (achievement of objectives), and Impact (effect of the plans initiated).

**Importance:**

**Educational Management focuses on the following:**

- The study of theories of management science which define and describe the roles and responsibilities of the educational manager and the development of managerial skills.
- Planning of curricular and co-curricular activities, curriculum and academic calendar
- Maintenance of school records, evaluation of students' achievement
- The study of educational planning at macro levels, its goals, principles, approaches and processes and on institutional planning and educational administration at the micro level.
- Decision making, problem solving, communication, information management and effective team building.
- Effective allocation of financial resources and the planning of the budgets of institutions.

### 9.1.2. Educational Administration:

**Meaning:**

Educational administration plays a vital role in making management of every educational programme grand success. It is a specialized set of organisational functions. Its primary purpose is to ensure the effective and efficient delivery of relevant educational services. It also focuses on the implementation of legislative policies through planning, decision making and leadership behaviour.

Graham Balfore: Educational Administration is to enable the right pupils to receive the right educational administration is to enable the right teacher at a cost within the means of the state under conditions which will enable the pupils best to profit by their training.

J.B. Sears: Educational Administration contains much that we mean by the word government and is closely related in content to such words as supervision, planning, oversight, direction, organisation, control, guidance and regulation.

**Principles:****Functions:**

1. To delegate authority and responsibility.
2. To strengthen local initiative and local control.
3. To determine policies and implement them.
4. To utilise special capacities of personnel and material resources.
5. To secure the greatest return from the money spent.
6. To secure the goodwill of personnel, public education department and other social agencies and institutions.
7. To implement a democratically determined programme.

**Importance:**

Educational Administration involves the following aspects associated with an institution:

**Planning:** Planning results in

1. Recognition of goals
2. Optimal use of resources
3. Prevention of wastage, duplication of effort and unhealthy practices
4. Orderly execution of plans

Educational planning in our country is carried out at the central level, the state level, the local level and at the school level.

**Budgeting:** Budgeting is an essential facet of a successful organisation and administration. It calls for an estimated account of revenues and expenditure with scope to embrace contingencies when required.

**Organising:** Organisation focuses on two main aspects: material equipment (infrastructure) and human equipment (stakeholders) with the main aim of maintaining efficiency, productivity, effectiveness and utility in the teaching-learning environment.

**Educational Administration further influences the following:**

- The preparation of curriculum for different classes according to their diverse abilities and aptitudes.
- The organisation and functioning of guidance and counselling cells on the campus
- The organisation of community reach programmes
- The provision of auxiliary services like midday meals, school uniforms, books medical checkups etc
- The time table and academic calendar
- The co-curricular programmes
- Organisation and distribution of work
- Establishment and working of infrastructure
- The organisation and conduct of examinations

**9.1.3. Institutional building:**

It simply refers to any structure that fulfils a role related to education, recreation, healthcare, public works. The term has been used both in relation to the process of internal development of an institution, as well as to its capacity to promote its impact on the society. Institutional buildings are often grand in design and subject to a lot of public scrutiny and input during their design process. These often have public accessible spaces and private staff spaces.

Every institutional building is unique. There is no true 'one size fits all' approach. These are civic buildings that can be publicly or privately funded.

**Government institutional building:** it generally includes court houses, judicial centers, city halls, detention facilities, police headquarters, military camps, educational buildings, transportation terminals like air ports, railway stations, bus stands etc.

**Private institutional buildings:** it includes all types of public buildings funded by NGOs, other private supports, community funds etc. For example public art galleries, cultural centres etc.



#### 9.1.4. POSDCORB:

Luther Gulick , classical theorist, coined the term POSDCORB that refers to seven functions of management. These functions are planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting.

- Planning: It involves developing an outline of things that must be accomplished, and methods for accomplishing them.
- Organizing: it establishes the formal structure through which work divisions are arranged and coordinated to implement the plan.
- Staffing: it involves the function of selecting and training the staff, maintaining the favorable and congenial conditions for the enhancement of professional efficiency of staff.
- Directing: it includes continuous task of making, communicating and implementing decisions.
- Coordinating: it includes all efforts that are needed to bind together the organization in order to achieve a common goal.
- Reporting: it includes verification of progress through records, research and inspection. It insures that things happen according to the planning.
- Budgeting: it involves all the activities that accompany budgeting, including fiscal planning, accounting and control.

#### 9.1.5. CPM:

Critical Path Method (CPM) is based on mathematical calculations and it is used for scheduling project activities. This method was first introduced in 1950s as a joint venture between Remington Rand Corporation and DuPont Corporation.

The initial critical path method was used for managing plant maintenance projects. Although the original method was developed for construction work, this method can be used for any project where there are interdependent activities. Critical path is the sequential activities from start to the end off a project.



## **Key Steps in Critical Path Method:**

### **Step 1: Activity specification**

In activity specification, only the higher-level activities are selected for critical path method. When detailed activities are used, the critical path method may become too complex to manage and maintain.

### **Step 2: Activity sequence establishment**

In this step, the correct activity sequence is established.  
Which tasks should take place before this task happens.  
Which tasks should be completed at the same time as this task.  
Which tasks should happen immediately after this task.

### **Step 3: Network diagram**

Once the activity sequence is correctly identified, the network diagram can be drawn (refer to the sample diagram above).

Although the early diagrams were drawn on paper. But today there are a number of computer software, such as Primavera, for this purpose.

### **Step 4: Estimates for each activity**

This could be a direct input from the WBS based estimation sheet. Most of the companies use 3-point estimation method or COCOMO based (function points based) estimation methods for tasks estimation.

**Step 5: Identification of the critical path**

Earliest start time (ES) - The earliest time an activity can start once the previous dependent activities are over.

Earliest finish time (EF) -  $ES + \text{activity duration}$ .

Latest finish time (LF) - The latest time an activity can finish without delaying the project.

Latest start time (LS) -  $LF - \text{activity duration}$ .

The float time for an activity is the time between the earliest (ES) and the latest (LS) start time or between the earliest (EF) and latest (LF) finish times.

During the float time, an activity can be delayed without delaying the project finish date.

The critical path is the longest path of the network diagram. The activities in the critical path have an effect on the deadline of the project. If an activity of this path is delayed, the project will be delayed.

In case if the project management needs to accelerate the project, the times for critical path activities should be reduced.

**Step 6: Critical path diagram to show project progress**

Critical path diagram is a live artefact. Therefore, this diagram should be updated with actual values once the task is completed.

This gives more realistic figure for the deadline and the project management can know whether they are on track regarding the deliverables.

**Advantages of Critical Path Method:**

1. It offers a visual representation of the project activities.
2. Presents the time to complete the tasks and the overall project.
3. Tracking of critical activities.

### 9.1.6. PERT:

Program (Project) Evaluation and Review Technique (PERT) is a project management tool used to schedule, organize, and coordinate tasks within a project. PERT is basically a method to analyze the tasks involved in completing a given project, especially the time needed to complete each task, and to identify the minimum time needed to complete the total project.

The main objective of PERT is to facilitate decision making and to reduce both the time and cost required to complete a project. PERT is intended for very large-scale, one-time, non-routine, complex projects with a high degree of inter-task dependency, projects which require a series of activities, some of which must be performed sequentially and others that can be performed in parallel with other activities.

#### **PERT planning involves the following steps:**

- Identify the specific activities and milestones.
- Determine the proper sequence of the activities.
- Construct a network diagram.
- Estimate the time required for each activity. For each activity, the model usually includes three time estimates:
  - a. Optimistic time – generally the shortest time in which the activity can be completed. It is common practice to specify optimistic time to be three standard deviations from the mean so that there is a approximately a 1% chance that the activity will be completed within the optimistic time.
  - b. Most likely time – the completion time having the highest probability. Note that this time is different from the expected time.
  - c. Pessimistic time – the longest time that an activity might require. Three standard deviations from the mean is commonly used for the pessimistic time.

PERT assumes a beta probability distribution for the time estimates. For a beta distribution, the expected time for each activity can be approximated using the following weighted average:

$$\text{Expected time} = ( \text{Optimistic} + 4 \times \text{Most likely} + \text{Pessimistic} ) / 6$$

This expected time may be displayed on the network diagram.

To calculate the variance for each activity completion time, if three standard deviation times were selected for the optimistic and pessimistic times, then there are six standard deviations between them, so the variance is given by:  $[ ( \text{Pessimistic} - \text{Optimistic} ) / 6 ]^2$

- Determine the critical path. If the critical path is not immediately obvious, it may be helpful to determine the following four quantities for each activity:

- ES – Earliest Start time
- EF – Earliest Finish time
- LS – Latest Start time
- LF – Latest Finish time.

These times are calculated using the expected time for the relevant activities.

- Update the PERT chart as the project progresses.

### Advantages of PERT:

1. It compels managers to plan their projects critically and analyse all factors affecting the progress of the plan. The process of the network analysis requires that the project planning be conducted on considerable detail from the start to the finish.
2. It provides the management a tool for forecasting the impact of schedule changes and be prepared to correct such situations.
3. A lot of data can be presented in a highly ordered fashion.
4. The PERT time ( $T_e$ ) is based upon 3-way estimate.
5. It results in improved communication.

### Limitations of PERT:

1. Uncertainty about the estimate of time and resources. These must be assumed and the results can only be as good as the assumptions.
2. The costs may be higher than the conventional methods of planning and control.
3. It is not suitable for relatively simple and repetitive processes such as assembly line work which are fixed-sequence jobs.

### 9.1.7. Management as a system:

Management as a system is a set of policies, processes and procedures that an organization used to ensure a number of sub functions like planning, decision making, implementing plans, guiding, integrating, motivating, supervising and so on. Spreigel told that administration is the 'determinative function' and management is 'executive function'. It is a collection of processes, including such things as problem solving, action planning etc.

Management as a system performs the following functions:

1. **Planning:** It is the process of setting objectives and determining the actions in order to achieve them. Planning is anticipatory in nature and sets priorities. It is proactive rather than passive.  
Planning asks the following questions: What? When? Where? By whom? How?
2. **Organising:** It is the process of combining the work which individuals or groups have to perform with facilities necessary for its execution such that the duties performed provide the best channels for efficient, systematic, positive and co-ordinated application of available effort.
3. **Directing:** It is the art or process of influencing people such that they willingly strive to achieve group goals. It focuses on the development of willingness to work with zeal and confidence, provides adequate guidelines to complete the task, and motivates individuals to achieve goals in a coordinated manner. It also focuses on exercising leadership while determining responsibility and accountability.
4. **Controlling:** It involves measuring and monitoring performance in accordance with plans and taking corrective action when required. It establishes performance standards based on the objectives, measures and reports actual performance compares the two and takes corrective or preventive action as necessary.
5. **Evaluating:** It is the process of measuring and assessing the achievement of objectives while providing an insight into strengths and weaknesses and planning for future endeavours.  
Evaluation helps determine the effectiveness of plans for both administrators and other stakeholders like teachers, staff, students and parents, as also the extended community. It seeks to document the objectives that have been met and to provide information to all concerned stakeholders regarding achievement, obstacles and corrective action or improvements.

### 9.1.8. SWOT Analysis:

**Strengths:** characteristics of the business or project that give it an advantage over others.

**Weaknesses:** characteristics of the business that place the business or project at a disadvantage relative to others.

**Opportunities:** elements in the environment that the business or project could exploit to its advantage.

**Threats:** elements in the environment that could cause trouble for the business or project.

### SWOT analysis aims to identify the key internal and external factors:

**1. Internal factors** - the strengths and weaknesses internal to the organization.

**2. External factors** - the opportunities and threats presented by the environment external to the Organization.

### A SWOT analysis can be used to:

Explore new solutions to problems

Identify barriers that will limit goals/objectives

Decide on direction that will be most effective

Reveal possibilities and limitations for change

To revise plans to best navigate systems, communities, and organizations

As a brainstorming and recording device as a means of communication

To enhance "credibility of interpretation" to be used in presentation to leaders or key supporters.

### Advantages:

1. It is a source of information for strategic planning.
2. Builds organization's strengths.
3. Overcome organization's threats.
4. It helps in identifying core competencies of the organization
5. It helps in setting of objectives for strategic planning.
6. Reverse its weaknesses.
7. Maximize its response to opportunities.
8. It helps in knowing past, present and future so that by using past and current data, future plans can be chalked out.

**Limitation:**

There are certain limitations of SWOT Analysis which are not in control of management. These include:

1. Price increase
2. Economic environment
3. Inputs/raw materials
4. Government legislation
5. Searching a new market for the product which is not having overseas market due to import restrictions etc.

**Internal limitations may include:**

1. Insufficient research and development facilities
2. Poor industrial relations
3. Faulty products due to poor quality control
4. Lack of skilled and efficient labour etc.

**9.1.9. Taylorism:**

The theory of scientific management is the brainchild of Frederick Winslow Taylor. This theory emphasized on management of work and workers. The theory follows the idea that there is one best way to do a job and that is to use scientific method. In his view, if a task is scientifically managed it will increase the productivity by increasing efficiency and wages of workers. Scientific management in terms of time study standards, separation of administrative and employee duties and incentive systems would correct the performance of labours.

**The main features of this theory are:**

1. It finds out best method for performing each job.
2. It uses division of labour.
3. It selects employees by using scientific selection procedure.
4. It believes in having close relationship with management and employees.
5. It tries to produce maximum output by fixing performance standards for each job and by having a differential piece rate system for each job for payment of wages.



## Principles :

In the year 1911, Taylor gave four principles for scientific management:

1. **Scientific Job Analysis:** Job should be analyzed through observation, data gathering, careful measurement and management. Such job analysis will replace the old rule-of-thumb method.
2. **Selection of Personnel:** Once the job is analyzed, the next step is to scientifically select, train, teach and produce workers. Previously, workers chose their own work and train themselves.
3. **Management Cooperation:** Managers should cooperate with workers to ensure that all work being done should be in line with the principles of Science i.e. scientific method.
4. **Functional Supervising:** Managers assume planning, organizing, and decision-making activities, whereas workers perform their jobs. In the past, almost all work and the greater part of the responsibility were thrust on workers.

Besides above mentioned principles, Taylor has also given two more Principles of scientific management.

1. **Performance Standards:** Taylor introduced time and motion studies to fix performance standards. For bringing uniformity of work, he fixed performance standards for time cost and quality of work. As a result, the efficiency of workers could be compared.
2. **Differential Piece Rate System:** Under differential piece rate system, a standard output was first fixed. Taylor studied that workers did as little work as possible. He felt that under existing wage system, an efficient worker gained nothing extra. Then two wage rates were fixed.  
These are: (A). Low wage rate was fixed for those workers who did not produce the standard output. (B). Higher wage rate was fixed for those workers who produced standard output or more than the standard output.

By adopting such a system of wage rate, inefficient workers will try to improve their efficiency and efficient workers will be motivated to maintain or improve their production capacity.



**9.1.10. Administration as a process:**

1. Administration as a process is characterised by the following:
2. Rendering service to society in its progress and progress of individuals.
3. Educational Administration is concerned with diverse human beings, the teachers, students, parents and public and co-ordination of their efforts.
4. Making all efforts and agencies work together in joint venture.
5. Assisting in the realization of the aims and objectives of education.
6. It is concerned with all those activities undertaken and fullest utilization of resources for education.

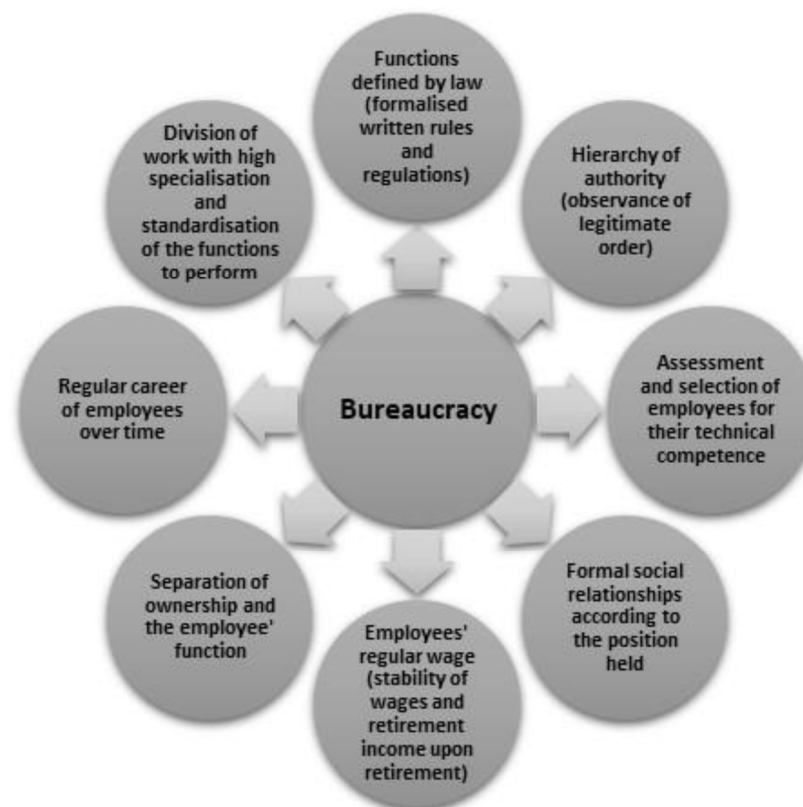
**Educational Administration as a process further influences the following:**

- The preparation of curriculum for different classes according to their diverse abilities and aptitudes.
- Establishment and working of infrastructure
- The organisation and conduct of examinations
- The organisation and functioning of guidance and counselling cells on the campus
- The organisation of community reach programmes
- The time table and academic calendar
- The co-curricular programmes
- Organisation and distribution of work
- The provision of auxiliary services like midday meals, school uniforms, books medical checkups etc

### 9.1.11. Administration as a bureaucracy:

Max Weber proposes the concept of Bureaucracy in a context in which he considers rationalisation of society as inevitable (Pollitt, 2008), causing a growing impersonality in the social relationship, disenchantment of the world (Aron, 1994; Giddens, 1997).

In short, bureaucracy is the “phenomenon of affirmation of the rationalisation of the world” (Paiva, 2014, p. 439). Weber considers that rational domination based on legal legitimacy (authority based on rule or norm and procedure) would assume a increasing predominance and that would be translated into bureaucracy, in what Matos and Lima (2007) consider an “elective affinity”. According to Weber: “Bureaucratic administration means domination by the force of knowing: that is its fundamental character, specifically rational”. The bureaucratic rationality in organisations, as the model of the organisations’ functioning in capitalist societies, has the characteristics depicted in Figure



### 9.1.12. Human relations approach to Administration:

The human relations approach is considered to have started with a series of studies known as Hawthorne studies that have strongly influenced administrative theory. Mayo and his associates were not the only contributors to the human relations approach. There were a number of strong intellectual currents which influenced the human relations movement during this period like Kurt Lewin, Jacob Moreno and others.

The human relations approach made relationships between employees and supervisors, the most salient aspect of management. It advocates the training of people in behavioural sciences, such as clinical and social psychology to emphasize building collaborative and cooperative relationships between supervisors and workers. Two key aspects of human relationships approach are employee motivation and leadership style.

**The major assumptions of the human relations approach include the following :**

1. Employees are motivated by social and psychological needs and by economic incentives.
2. These needs, including but not limited to recognition, belongingness and security, are more important in determining worker morale and productivity than the physical conditions of the work environment.
3. An individual's perceptions, beliefs, motivations, cognition, responses to frustration, values and similar factors may affect behaviour in the work setting.
4. Informal social groups within the workplace create and enforce their own norms and codes of behaviour.
5. Team effort, conflict between groups, group loyalty, communication patterns, and emergent leadership are important concepts for determining individual and group behaviour.
6. Employees have higher morale and work harder under supportive management which lead to increased productivity.
7. People in all types of organizations tend to form informal social organizations that work along with the formal organization and can help or hinder management.
8. Communication, power, influence, authority, motivation, and manipulation are all important relationships within an organization.
9. In this approach, field study methods as well as laboratory experiments were used to study the work environment and to understand the employee behaviour in the workplace.

### 9.1.13. Organisational compliance:

Organizational compliance can relate to various types and levels of prescriptive systems. International and domestic laws and regulations, organizational rules and procedures, industry-wide standards and best practices, enterprise architecture principles can all require organizational units, projects and employees to conform to norms.

As early as the 1600s, Thomas Hobbes touched on the delicate issue of the *compliance problem*. He stated that, although compliance with contracts may be better for the group as a whole and it may be in an individual actor's best interest to agree to contracts. He also stated that, it may very well not be in his interest to actually comply with them. Following this logic, it is necessary for policy makers to actively pursue and monitor compliance.

This is not merely a philosophical stance, as several studies demonstrate that non-compliance in organizations is widespread. This makes compliance a strategic issue in the current era, especially considering the high costs organizations have to pay for their non-conformance. With regulations such as the Sarbanes-Oxley Act, organizations and individual CEOs and CIOs face severe penalties for non-compliance. In addition, scandals and unethical firm behaviour can severely damage an organization due to unsatisfied customers, employees, shareholders and others.

### 9.1.14. Organisational development:

The concept formally emerged in the 1950s (though some theories date back to 1920) and is generally credited to psychologist Kurt Lewin. It encompasses both the theory and practice of planned, systemic change in the attitudes, beliefs and behaviour of employees through long-term training programmes. It is often described as action-oriented.

Organization development (OD) is a prescription for a process of planned change in organizations in which the key prescriptive elements relate to:

1. The nature of the effort or program (it is a long-range, planned, system wide process)
2. The nature of the change activities (they utilize behavioral science interventions of an educational, reflexive, self-examining, learn-to-do it-yourself nature)
3. The targets of the change activities (they are directed toward the human and social processes of organizations, specifically individuals' attitudes, beliefs and values, the culture and processes of work groups-viewed as basic building blocks of the organization.
4. Desired outcomes of the change activities (the goals are needed changes in the target of the interventions that cause the organization to be better able to adapt, cope, solve its problems, and renew itself).

**Characteristics of organization development:**

1. An emphasis, although not exclusively so, on group and organizational processes in contrast to substantive content.
2. The use of a behavioural scientist-change agent sometimes referred to as a “catalyst” or “facilitator.”
3. A view of the change effort as an ongoing process.
4. An emphasis on the collaborative management of work-team culture.
5. The use of the action research model.
6. An emphasis on the management of the culture of the total system.
7. Attention to the management of system ramifications.
8. An emphasis on the work team as the key unit for learning more effective modes of organizational behaviour.
9. A primary emphasis on human and social relationships.

**9.1.15. Organisational climate:**

Organizational climate is the internal quality that is unique and peculiar to an organization, the way in which organizational members perceive and characterize their environment in an attitudinal and value-based manner. It is a set of attributes specific to a particular organization that may be induced from the way the organization deals with its members and its environment. It can be seen as the social and psychological environment or atmosphere that characterizes a particular organization. It is assumed that organizational climate comprise shared perceptions about organizational norms, beliefs, values, practices, and procedures that can be observed at general or specific levels.

**Halpin and Croft (1963) came up with six types of climates on a continuum:**

1. **Open climate:** It is characterized by genuineness, low hindrance, low disengagement, average intimacy, and high esprit of teachers; and low aloofness, low production emphasis, and high thrust and consideration of the principal.
2. **Autonomous climate:** Here teachers tend to possess complete freedom to conduct their work and fulfil their social needs as they wish.
3. **The controlled school organisational climate:** It is highly task-oriented and gives room for production or achievement of organizational goals. Principals dominate all school activities. Goals are highly emphasized with little attention to consideration and satisfaction of individuals' personal and social needs.
4. **Familiar school organisational climate:** There is high degree of consideration and intimacy with little emphasis on production. A congenial and friendly atmosphere exists between principals and teachers. Social needs satisfaction is high. Little is done to control or direct the groups' activities towards goal achievement.
5. **The paternal school organisational climate:** It is referred to as one in which the principal discourages the emergence of leadership acts from the teachers and attempts to solely initiate all leadership himself. Teachers work in isolation and essentially try to compete with one another with confidence in himself/herself. There is no trust, and the use of grapevine communication is valued.
6. **The closed climate:** It is characterized by high disengagement, high hindrance, low esprit, and average intimacy of teachers; and high aloofness, high production emphasis, and high thrust of the principal. There is inadequate communication and poor recognition of skilled employees.

## **Previous Year Questions Analysis**

### **June 2014**

1. A school supervisor has responsibility to
  - a) Help the school in its development
  - b) Observe the classroom teaching and suggest improvements if required
  - c) Develop the teaching learning material
  - d) All of the above
2. Which of the following is not the source of educational finance?
  - a) Public funds
  - b) Local bodies funds
  - c) Education cess
  - d) Relief fund
3. Which of the following is not the technique of supervisor?
  - a) School visits
  - b) Surprise visits
  - c) Annual visits
  - d) Excursion visits
4. The “father of scientific management approach”
  - a) FW Taylor
  - b) Henry Fayol
  - c) St Etienne
  - d) W Willson
5. The most appropriate approach for implementing an administrative model of curriculum is to focus on
  - a) Hierarchy of staff
  - b) Democratic values
  - c) Participative culture
  - d) Horizontal coordination



**Answer Table**

SL.NO.	ANSWER
1	d
2	d
3	d
4	a
5	a



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**December 2015**

1. The most decentralised education system is in
  - a) USA
  - b) UK
  - c) INDIA
  - d) USSR
2. Which one of the following gives the various phases of the system approach in the correct sequence?
  - a) Management, design and analysis
  - b) Design, management and analysis
  - c) Analysis, management and design
  - d) Analysis, design and management
3. Three common approaches to educational planning are listed in four different sequences. Identify the one which proceeds from the most crude to the most rigorous.
  - a) Cost benefit analysis, social demand and rate of returns
  - b) Rate of returns, social demand and cost benefit analysis
  - c) Social demand, rate of returns and cost benefit analysis
  - d) Social demand, cost benefit analysis and rate of returns
4. School management and hospital management are
  - a) Totally different
  - b) Identical
  - c) Different but share some common features
  - d) To be treated as cognates
5. Preparation of the school time table falls under the function of
  - a) Organising
  - b) Planning
  - c) Directing
  - d) Reporting
6. A school system has worked out a number of vision statements as result of SWOT analysis. What is the most obvious activity which has to follow?
  - a) Meetings with teachers and parents
  - b) Taking student's views
  - c) Developing work plans
  - d) Deciding about who, what and how of the plans

7. The authoritative character is visualised in
  - a) Demonstrative model
  - b) Grass root model
  - c) Administrative model
  - d) System analysis model
8. The modern approach to management focuses on
  - a) Organisational compliance
  - b) Organisational concerns
  - c) Organisational growth
  - d) Supervision of managers
9. In which country's educational system, the idea of community college has been made popular?
  - a) UK
  - b) GERMANY
  - c) USA
  - d) AUSTRALIA
10. A comparison of vocational education in India and that of USA reveals that
  - a) Vocational programme in USA is taken less seriously
  - b) In India, there is no coordination between the academic and vocational programmes
  - c) The history and development of vocational education in India has witnessed many ups and downs in comparison to USA
  - d) The vocational programme in India is very popular in comparison to USA
11. From the point of view of educational administration, which of the following statement is correct?
  - a) Completely centralised – USA
  - b) Completely decentralised – UK
  - c) Partly decentralised – Ireland
  - d) Partly centralised and partly decentralised – India

**Answer Table**

SL.NO.	ANSWER
1.	a
2.	d
3.	c
4.	c
5.	b
6.	c
7.	c
8.	b
9.	c
10.	b
11.	d



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**July 2016**

1. In USA, higher education is controlled by
- a) The federal government
  - b) Respective state government
  - c) Private bodies and the state, both
  - d) District authorities



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**Answer Table**

SL. NO.	ANSWER
1	d



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**January 2017**

1. In Continuous and Comprehensive Evaluation, which of the following device will help in ensuring comprehensive nature of the evaluation?
  - a) Focussing on cognitive areas of performance
  - b) Including a number of evaluation tools for cognitive and non-cognitive areas
  - c) Focussing on co-cognitive areas
  - d) Involving a large number of expertise in test preparation
2. List the functions of educational supervision from the following
  1. Coordinating decision- making
  2. Effective negotiation
  3. Providing support
  4. Regulating managerial tasks
  5. Monitoring learning and developmentCodes:
  - a) 1, 2, 3 and 4
  - b) 1, 3, 4 and 5
  - c) 2, 3, 4 and 5
  - d) 1, 2, 4 and 5
3. Which one of the following is not a characteristic of perspective planning?
  - a) One plan for a period of 20 or 25 years
  - b) Long term planning
  - c) Long range targets set in advance
  - d) Reviewing the long term plan, every year

**Answer Table**

SL. NO.	ANSWER
1	b
2	c
3	a



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**July 2018**

1. Which combination of following characteristics, correctly describes the Bureaucratic Administration?

1. Well-defined rules
2. Established hierarchy
3. Standard operating procedures
4. Good interpersonal relationships
5. Combined responsibility of completing works

Codes:

- a) 1, 2 and 4
- b) 1, 2 and 5
- c) 2, 3 and 4
- d) 1, 2 and 3

2. Which of the following set of statements are relevant for describing teaching as a profession?

1. Teaching profession has an organised body of knowledge
2. Teaching profession implies a set of attitudes
3. Duration of Teacher Training Programme is not a professional pre-requisite
4. Teaching profession has its own code of moral ethics

Codes:

- a) 2, 3 and 4
- b) 1, 3 and 4
- c) 1, 2 and 4
- d) 1, 2 and 3

**Answer Table**

SL. NO.	ANSWER
1	b
2	c



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## **SUB UNIT – 2**

### **9.2.1. Leadership in Educational Administration:**

#### **Meaning:**

Leadership can be defined as the process or concept of leading or simply the act of leading. It can be put under two categories - Actual Leadership and Potential Leadership. The actual leadership involves giving guidance or direction while potential leadership is the capacity or ability to lead as in the concept “born to lead”.

The Oxford English Dictionary defines leadership as:

‘The action of leading a group of people or an organization, or the ability to do this.’

Locke (1991) suggested effective leaders must possess the following:

- **Drive:** High drive for effectiveness and success.
- **Motivation:** Strong need for authority & control to influence others.
- **Integrity:** Being honest and keeping one’s word to build trust worthiness.
- **Self-confidence:** Be sure about one’s self & ensure high confidence levels.
- **Average intelligence:** Intelligent enough to understand all aspects of leadership.
- **Business knowledge:** To capitalize all opportunities and mitigate threats.
- **Emotional intelligence:** Great social skills; ability to manage emotions.

“Leadership is the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization”. (Katz & Kahn)

“Leadership is realized in the process where one or more individuals succeed in attempting to frame and define the reality for others”. (Smircich & Morgan)

“Leadership is the process of influencing and supporting others to work enthusiastically towards achieving objectives”. (Barnard keys & Thomas Case)

“Leadership is an interpersonal influence exercised in a situation and directed through communication process towards the attainment of a specified goal”. (Tannenbaum)

**Nature:**

1. Leadership is a highly specialized role with a shared social process.
2. Leadership involves personal quality that enables influencing and modelling behaviours.
3. The success of a leader depends on the acceptance of leadership by his followers.
4. Leadership is a continuous process of influencing others to develop motivational attitudes.
5. Leadership is not a one-shot or stop gap activity.
6. In Leadership there are no compulsions; followers work voluntarily for the leader.
7. Leadership provides rich experience to help followers attain common goals
8. Situational variables heavily impact the effectiveness of leadership, at all times.
9. Leadership is a vehicle for social change.
10. Leadership is meant for Improved Professional Performance.
11. Leadership is realizing potential inherent in people.
12. Leaders must have a clear vision for goal achievement.
13. Leadership is focused on the individual capability of the leader.
14. Leadership is all about results and outcomes
15. Leaders and followers work together to achieve common goals / desired outcomes.
16. Leaders give importance to individuals by recognition and appreciation.
17. Leaders must inspire people to solve problems and develop new ideas.

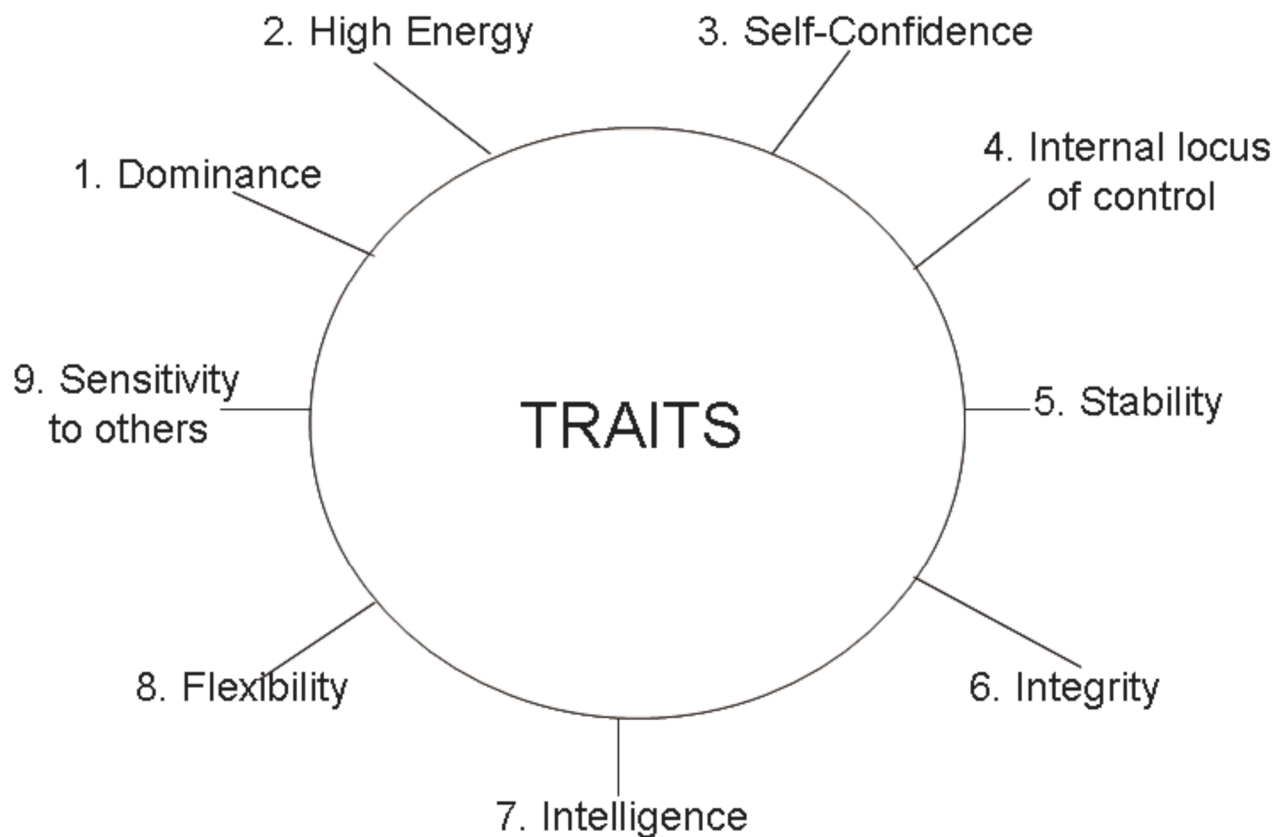
### 9.2.2. Approaches to leadership:

#### Trait Approach:

**Competency / Trait perspective:** It is one of the oldest perspectives known and six traits on which leaders differ from non-leaders. The competency perspective seeks to identify a set of abilities, values, personality traits and other characteristics that makes a leader successful. It includes the drive and desire to lead, integrity, self-confidence, cognitive ability and knowledge of the business.

Effective leaders are different from others in many respects and possess certain traits. Key leader traits identified include achievement orientation, energy, tenacity, motivation, ambition, initiative; leadership motivation with the desire to lead but not seek power as an end in itself; honesty and integrity coupled with self-confidence and all these associated with emotional and cognitive stability and last but not least, business knowledge.

Trait theories assume that people inherit certain qualities and traits that make them well suited to leadership. Trait theories often identify particular personality or behavioural characteristics shared by most effective leaders. For example, traits like extraversion, self-confidence, and courage are all traits that could be linked to great leaders.



**Drawback:** As Stogdill (1948) and Buchanan & Huczynski (1997) had previously pointed out, this approach has had no universal acceptance. Moreover, the idea underlying the traits theory is that leaders are born not made, Scouller (2011) argues that this approach is better suited to selecting leaders rather than developing them.

### 9.2.3. Transformational Approach:

This perspective of leadership views how leaders can transform teams and organizations by creating a compelling vision and inspiring employees to attain that vision. Transformational leaders act on the vision by building employee commitment towards the vision.

A transformational leader is a person who stimulates, inspires and transforms followers to achieve extraordinary outcomes and pays attention to the concern and developmental needs of followers; they are able to arouse, excite and inspire followers to put extra effort to achieve group goals. Transformational leaders create positive change in their followers.

The concept of transformational leadership was introduced by James Macgregor Burns in 1978 in his descriptive research on political leaders, but its usage has spread into organizational psychology and management with modifications by B.M Bass and J.B Avalio (Jung & Sosik, 2002). Transformational leadership enhances motivation, morale, and performance of followers.

### 9.2.4. Transactional Approach:

Transactional Leadership focuses on the role of supervision, organization and group performance; this is a style of leadership in which the leader promotes compliance of his followers through both rewards and punishments. Unlike Transformational leadership, leaders here do not look to change the future but keep things, status quo. This type of leadership is effective in crisis and emergency situations. Transformational leaders possess most of the charismatic-leader characteristics but Transactional leaders neither possess the characteristics nor are they able to develop strong emotional bonds with followers to inspire them, they can only motivate followers to set goals and promise rewards for good performance.

### 9.2.5. Value based Approach:

Value based approach to leadership theory asserts that people are mostly motivated by values. They strongly care about their personal values and live accordingly. Values are most natural motivators. As a philosophy it assumes that an organization based around shared values is likely to be more flexible and more productive than one working towards an aim that few people care about.

This approach believes that personal values must be bonded with organizational values. Value based leaders deliver superior performance by applying their personal values and talents to achieve organizational goals. Leaders often refer to their own values in creating a vision or making decisions. It also makes sense for leaders to connect with their followers' values, which makes followers more likely to act.

### 9.2.6. Cultural Approach:

Culture plays a vital role in any educational approach. Attitude, behaviour, respect for others, self respect, value, straight forwardness, fellow feeling, we feeling, sharing, cooperation etc play a vital role in effective leadership. These culture influences various aspects of society like work together, helping subordinates, open mindedness etc.

Leading the cultural sector is practised in two different ways:

1. It concerns competently managing the organisations of the cultural sector, ensuring that they are financially viable, legal and with well-organised staff.
2. It means leading culture itself- making work, production and projects which show different ways of thinking, feeling and experiencing the wider society and world economy.

Therefore these cultural approaches prove to be important in the form of development and motivational elements of teaching, administrative system and social order.

### 9.2.7. Psychodynamic Approach:

The psychodynamic approach has no single model or theory. The main concept behind this approach is personality. It is important that leaders becoming aware of their own personality type and the personalities of their followers. The psychodynamic approach has its roots in the works of Sigmund Freud's psychoanalysis and also influenced by the theory of Carl Jung.

The fundamental goal of this approach is to raise the awareness of leaders and followers to their own personality types. This approach emphasizes our past experiences, feelings, self understanding, sub consciousness etc.



### 9.2.8. Charismatic Approach:

A charismatic leader has people follow him not because of who he is and definitely not because of him being the business successor or for his good management skills of participation, partnership and empowerment. It is all about his “Charisma” or “Human Magnetism”. However, it is important to note that what looks charismatic to Americans may not necessarily appear so to others. Charisma is a critical dimension of leadership.

Early research on charismatic leadership was done by Max Weber, who believed that societies are identified in terms of one of the three types of authority systems: traditional, legal-rational, and charismatic.

1. **The traditions** and unwritten laws of the society dictate who has authority and how this authority can be used.
2. **The legal rational** authority states authority is derived from society’s belief in the laws that govern it while charismatic authority system believes authority stems from the society’s belief in the exemplary characteristics of the leader.
3. **The charismatic** leader is one of the most exciting leaders as his abilities are attributed to strong character, great strength and heroism and with divine intervention.

The charismatic leader uses his charm, imagination and inspiration to build a utopian future. The components of this leadership style are persuasive talent, ability to speak and listen, meticulous use of time and space, ability to adapt to others and a clear vision. These leaders earn their leadership not because of their position but because of their ability to attract followers naturally. In addition, a charismatic leader motivates by force of personality and is well liked by his followers. Most charismatic leaders are worshiped by their followers and tend to generate almost instantaneous trust amongst their followers. Some examples of such leaders are J.F. Kennedy, Mahatma Gandhi and Martin Luther King.

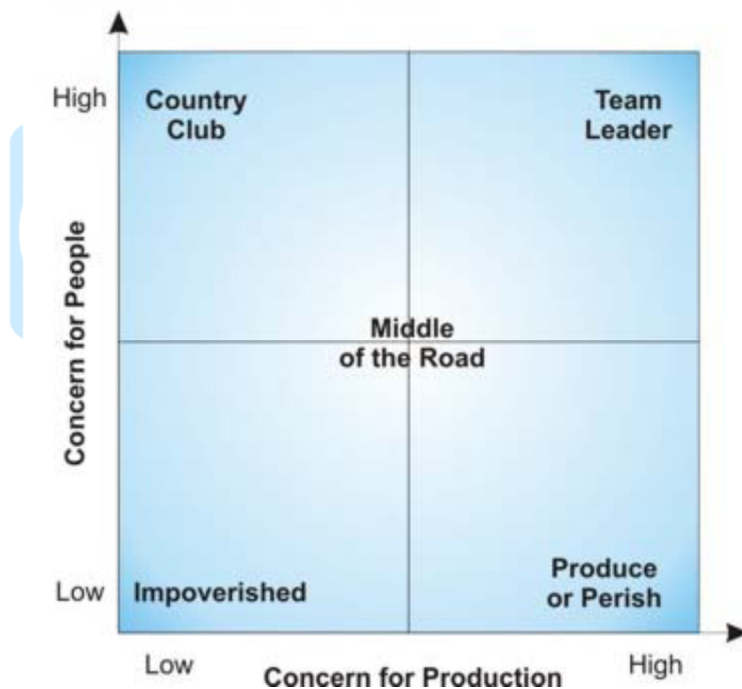
### 9.2.9. Models of Leadership:

#### Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid:

The Managerial Grid theory of leadership was proposed by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton in 1964. This theory which is depicted in a graphical form is also known as the "Leadership Grid Theory".

The grid is a nine-by-nine matrix which outlines 81 different styles of leadership. The grid has 9 possible positions along each axis creating 81 different positions in which the leader's style may fall.

It plots the degree of task-centeredness versus person-centeredness and identifies five combinations as distinct leadership styles, namely, Country club, Team Leader, Impoverished, Produce or Perish, and Middle of the road, as shown in Figure:



**Country Club Style:** The leader has a high concern for the people but a low concern for the task. There is a friendly relationship between the leader and the led group. But this style is not good for creating or producing results.

**Impoverished Style:** The leader has a low concern for both the people and the task. Leaders who care mainly about themselves and are afraid of making mistakes follow this style. According to Blake and Mouton, this is the least effective approach to leadership.

**Middle-of-the-Road Style:** There is some concern for the task and, equally, some concern for people, but there is not enough of either. Leaders adopting this behavioural approach try to address the needs of the task and their followers to some extent, but do so without conviction, skill or insight and therefore reduce their effectiveness.

**Produce or Perish Style:** There is high focus on the task with little or no concern for people, as in the autocratic style. Leaders of this style control and dominate others. Motivation is given in the form of threat or punishment. This is a dictatorial style. It is effective only for a short term. But the approach is not sustainable, especially where followers have the option to walk away.

**Team Style:** Blake and Mouton saw this as the ideal behavioural approach. Here, leaders manage to blend concern for both people and organizational aims by using a collaborative teamwork approach, and plenty of consultation enabling the development of a shared (not imposed) motivation to achieve the organization's goals. This style is suitable where followers/the group are matured and skilled for a high level of involvement.

#### 9.2.10. Fiedler's Contingency Model:

The Fiedler Contingency Model was created in the mid-1960s by Fred Fiedler, a scientist who studied the personality and characteristics of leaders.

The model states that there is no one best style of leadership. Instead, a leader's effectiveness is based on the situation. This is the result of two factors - "leadership style" and "situational favourableness". Fiedler termed this combination (of leadership style and 'situational favourableness') as Situational Contingency.

##### 1. Leadership Style

Fiedler describes two basic leadership styles-task-orientated and relationship-orientated. Task-orientated leaders have a strong bias towards getting the job done without worrying about their rapport or bond with their followers. Relationship-orientated leaders care much more about emotional engagement with the people they work with, but sometimes to the detriment of the task and results.

Fiedler says that neither style is inherently superior. However, he asserts that certain leadership challenges suit one style or the other better. Identifying leadership style is the first step in using the model.

Fiedler believes that leadership style is fixed, and that it can be measured using a scale he developed called Least-Preferred Co-Worker (LPC) Scale.

### Least-Preferred Co-Worker Scale

Quarrelsome	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Harmonious
Gloomy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Cheerful
Guarded	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Open
Hostile	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Supportive
Uncooperative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Cooperative
Backbiting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Loyal
Rejecting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Accepting
Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Pleasant
Unfriendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Friendly
Tense	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Relaxed
Cold	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Warm
Boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Interesting
Insincere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Sincere
Unkind	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Kind
Inconsiderate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Considerate
Untrustworthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Trustworthy

The model says that task-oriented leaders usually view their LPCs more negatively, resulting in a lower score. Fiedler calls these, low LPC leaders.

He says that low LPCs are very effective at completing tasks. They're quick to organize a group to get tasks and projects done. Relationship-building is a low priority. However, relationship-oriented leaders usually view their LPCs more positively, giving them a higher score. These are high-LPC leaders. High LPCs focus more on personal connections, and they're good at avoiding and managing conflict. They're better able to make complex decisions.

## 2. Situational Favourableness

According to Fiedler, the “situational favorableness” depends on three distinct factors, namely, Leader-Member Relations, Task Structure, and Leader's Position Power. Fiedler believes that the situation is favourable when: there is high mutual trust, respect and confidence between leader and followers; the task is clear and controllable; and the followers accept the leader's power. Leader- Member Relations, Task Structure, and Leader's Position Power.

The final column identifies the type of leader that Fiedler believes would be the most effective in each situation. According to this model, a higher score means that one is naturally relationship-focused, and a lower score means that he is naturally task-focused.

### Break-up of Most Effective Leadership Style

Leader-member relation	Task structure	Leader's position power	Most effective leader
Good	Structured	Strong	Low LPC
Good	Structured	Weak	Low LPC
Good	Unstructured	Strong	Low LPC
Good	Unstructured	Weak	High LPC
Poor	Structured	Strong	High LPC
Poor	Structured	Weak	High LPC
Poor	Unstructured	Strong	High LPC
Poor	Unstructured	Weak	Low LPC

### Criticisms of the Model

There are some criticisms of the Fiedler Contingency Model. One of the biggest is lack of flexibility. Fiedler believes that because a person's natural leadership style is fixed, the most effective way to handle situations is to change the leader. He does not allow for leadership flexibility, and the LPC score might give an inaccurate picture of the leadership style.



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### 9.2.11. Tri-dimensional Model:

The 3-D Theory of Managerial Effectiveness is developed by William Reddin, containing four basic types of leadership style, namely, High relationship orientation and high task orientation called ***Integrated Type***; High relationship orientation and low task orientation called ***Related Type***; Low relationship orientation and high task orientation called ***Dedicated Type***; and Low relationship orientation and low task orientation called ***Separated Type***.

Thus, by measuring the level of effectiveness of each style, Reddin developed this basic model into eight leadership styles. This modified model is called ***The 3-D Theory of Managerial Effectiveness***.

The Table below shows the Less Effective and More Effective styles in each basic type.

#### Less effective and More effective Leadership Styles

Less Effective	Basic types	More Effective
Deserter	SEPARATED	Bureaucratic
Missionary	RELATED	Developer
Autocratic	DEDICATED	Benevolent Autocratic
Compromiser	INTEGRATED	Executive

### 9.2.12. Hersey and Blanchard's Model:

Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard first published their Situational Leadership Model in the late 1960s. The model focuses on followers, rather than on wider workplace circumstances, and asserts that leaders should change their behaviour according to the type of followers. It proposes a 'continuum' or progression of leadership adaptation in response to the development of followers. Here the word 'situational' refers to adaptability, more than the situation in which people operate and the model particularly asserts that a group's performance depends mostly on how followers respond to the leader. In this theory, the followers are classified into four groups on the basis of Ability and Willingness, namely, Unable and Unwilling, Unable but Willing, Able but Unwilling, and Able and Willing. Hersey and Blanchard further described and presented these four follower 'situations' as requiring relatively high or low leadership emphasis on the Task and the Relationship.



### Interpretation of Hersey and Blanchard Basic Structure

Follower 'situation'	Leadership style emphasis	Leadership Style	Leader Behaviour
Unable and Unwilling	high task - low relationship	Telling	instruction, direction, autocratic, monitor progress
Unable but Willing	high task - high relationship	Selling	persuasion, encouragement, incentive
Able but Unwilling	low task - high relationship	Participating	involvement, consultation, teamwork
Able and Willing	low task - low relationship	Delegating	trust, empowerment, responsibility

It is clear from the above Table that High Task means followers have Low Ability. Low Task means followers have High Ability. High Relationship means followers are Willing. Low Relationship means followers are Unwilling. Then he matched the four follower situations with four corresponding leadership styles, in the order of the suggested continuum or progression coinciding with increasing follower maturity.

#### The four leadership styles are:

**a) Telling Style:** This is characterized by one-way communication where the leader defines his followers' roles by "telling" them what to do, when to do it, how to do it, and where to do it. For example, the style is suitable during a fire fight, or crisis situation, and inappropriate if the staff is experienced and capable and during a staff planning exercise when the objective is for the group to work out a complex plan ensuring that all points are covered. This style shows a lack of faith in the followers' ability, and demotivates them.

**b) Selling Style:** The leader uses two-way communication to gain his followers' support, by explaining the reasoning behind his decision. This style allows the subordinates minimal participation, but helps them to better understand and hopefully "buy into" the leader's decision. By taking them into his confidence relative to his decision, he will gain their support for his plan and they will be more motivated to go along with the plan.

**c) Participating Style:** The leader allows the subordinates to be involved in the actual decision-making process. It requires good two way communication and the leader's willingness to be influenced by his subordinates' knowledge and opinions. Here, the leader actually discusses possible alternative solutions with the group prior to making his decision.



**d) Delegating Style:** The leader provides mission-type orders/guidelines and minimal supervision. Essentially, the group is allowed to run its own show within the limits provided by the leader. The leader has provided his subordinates their limits, guidelines, and necessary authority to complete the task; he then gives them their mission, and allows them to accomplish the mission the way they see fit.

### 9.2.13. Leader-Member Exchange Theory:

The leader-member exchange theory of leadership as formulated by Graen (1976) focuses on the two-way relationship between supervisors and subordinates. It is linked to the social exchange theory which explains social change and stability as a process of negotiated exchanges between parties. Leaders usually have special relationships with an inner circle called the '*in-group*' and these employees work harder and are more committed to task objectives besides handling all the administrative duties. They are expected to be totally committed and loyal to their leader. Being an in-group member requires being a "*doppelganger*". Members work hard to build trust and loyalty. Being empathetic, patient, reasonable and sensitive are all very important however, the quality of the LMX relationship does vary from time to time. These relationships can be categorized in three stages. It begins with role taking followed by role making and finally ending with the stage of Routinization. All the three steps are explained as given.

**1. Role-taking:** The member joins the team and the leader after evaluation of the member's abilities and talent will provide suitable opportunities for the member to demonstrate all his abilities.

**2. Role-making:** The leader and member get into an unstructured, informal negotiation and a role is created for the member with a tacit promise of benefit and power in return for dedication and loyalty.

**3. Routinization:** In this phase, ongoing social exchange between the leader and member is established and the member after demonstrating his capabilities will be taken in as "in-house" or "in-group" member that forms the inner ring or circle of the leader's followers.

**December 2015**

1. In situational leadership style, the emphasis is on
- a) Concern for task
  - b) Concern for relationship
  - c) Both a and b
  - d) Neither a nor b



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**Answer Table**

SL. NO.	ANSWER
23	c



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**July 2016**

1. Which of the sets of statements gives acceptable difference between transactional and transformational leadership styles for strengthening the school system?

1. In transactional leadership style, the leader goes with his/her own vision while in transformational style, the leader creates vision in others.
2. Transactional style leader monitors while in the transformational style leader inspires.
3. Transactional style leader promotes trust while the transformational style leader keeps strict vigil.
4. In transactional leadership style, the leaders' personal traits are important while in transformational style, inter-relationships are important.
5. The transactional leader monitors while the transformational leader guides.

Codes:

- a) 1, 2, 3 and 5
- b) 2, 3, 4 and 5
- c) 1, 2, 4 and 5
- d) 1, 3, 2 and 4



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**Answer Table**

SL. NO.	ANSWER
1	c



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**January 2017**

1. In the long run, which leadership style is most effective?
- a) Autocratic
  - b) Participative
  - c) Transactional
  - d) Transformational



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**Answer Table**

SL. NO.	ANSWER
1	d



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**November 2017**

1. For promoting effective leadership, which of the following theories has a greater potential?

- a) Great man theory
- b) Trait theory
- c) Transactional theory
- d) Transformational theory



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**Answer Table**

SL. NO.	ANSWER
1	d



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**July 2018**

1. Match the following:

List 1 ( Leaders of Modern Concepts of Educational Administration)	List 2 (Specific Theory Contributed)
A. Fredrick Winslow Taylor	1. Theory X and Theory Y
B. Elton Mayo	2. Management system
C. Rensis Likert	3. Scientific Management movement
D. Douglas Mc Gregor	4. Human relations movement
	5. SOAR Peak Performance model

Codes:

- A B C D
- a) 1 2 4 3
- b) 5 3 4 2
- c) 3 4 2 1
- d) 2 3 4 5



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**Answer Table**

SL. NO.	ANSWER
1	c



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## **SUB UNIT – 3**

### **9.3.1. Concept of Quality:**

The Oxford Dictionary (1999) defines quality as “*the value and degree of excellence*”.

The gurus in the TQM area, define quality as:

- conformance to requirements (Crosby, 1979)
- the characteristics through which the product and service meet the expectations of the customer (Feigenbaum, 1983)
- whatever the customer needs and wants (Deming, 1986)
- fitness for use, product features which respond to customer needs, and freedom from deficiencies (Juran, 1951).

All these definitions have one thing in common which is that quality meets the customer needs and expectations that are within an acceptable range of the service or product.

### **Features of Quality Education:**

For one to claim that he is offering quality education to the populace, he must ensure the presence of the following conditions:

**Learners** who are healthy, well nourished and ready to participate and learn, and supported in learning by their families and communities; Environments that are healthy, safe, protective and gender – sensitive, and provide adequate resources and facilities;

**Content** that is reflected in relevant curricular and materials for the acquisition of basic skills, especially in the areas of literacy, numeracy and skills for life and knowledge in such areas as gender, health, nutrition HIV/AIDS preventive and peace.

**Processes** through which trained teachers use child centred teaching approaches in well managed classrooms and schools and skilful assessment to facilitate learning and reduce disparities.

**Outcomes** that encompass knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and are linked to national goals for education and positive participation in society.

### 9.3.2. Quality in Education:

#### Indian perspective:

India has made considerable progress in school education in terms of quality perspective with reference to overall literacy, infrastructure, universal access and enrolment in schools. Universalization of Elementary Education (UEE), NCF 2005, the Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act 2009 have made a tremendous change in the overall education system. Today with the advancement of technology and globalization, education system is seen as the transmission of information. At present we see a major shift in the education system:

MAJOR SHIFT	
FROM	TO
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Teacher centric</li> <li>• Stable design</li> <li>• Teacher's direction and decision</li> <li>• Teacher's guidance and monitoring</li> <li>• Learning in group</li> <li>• Learner receptivity</li> <li>• Linear experience</li> <li>• Disciplinary focus</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Student centric</li> <li>• Flexible design</li> <li>• Learner autonomy</li> <li>• Facilitation of learners</li> <li>• Cooperative learning</li> <li>• Learner participation</li> <li>• Multiple exposure</li> <li>• Multidisciplinary educational focus</li> </ul>

Activity based teacher education, inclusive education system, child centric education, contextualized curriculum have made today's education system more accessible. Major attempts are taken for quality enhancement like reforming vocational education and training, expanding and improving technical and tertiary education, expanding secondary education and improving quality, developing high quality Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs), improving and increasing many other professional courses.

## Quality in Education:

### International perspective:

- Education is a right, like the right to have proper food or a roof over your head. Article 26 of the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights states that “everyone has the right to education”.
- The EFA (Education For All) movements took off at the World Conference on Education for All in 1990. Since then
- governments, non-governmental organizations, civil society, bilateral and multi-lateral donor agencies and the media have taken up the cause of providing basic education for all children, youth and adults.
- The UNESCO in its medium – term plan of 1992-1998 emphasized on Value Education to be an integral part of basic education.
- Ministers of Education of more than a hundred nations, including India, signed the 1994 Genève Declaration and Framework for action on "Education for Peace, Human Rights and Democracy", for their respective countries.
- The Delors commission in their 1996 report to UNESCO, (Learning The Treasure Within) has proposed the new educational paradigm of lifelong education as a solution of all problems existing throughout the globe.  
According to his Report learning is based on the four pillars of education:
  - a. Learning to know
  - b. Learning to do
  - c. Learning to live together and
  - d. Learning to be.
- The World Education Forum in Dakar, Senegal , in April 2000 re-affirmed a broad and comprehensive view of basic education and its critical role in empowering people and transforming societies.
- In the year 2000, the world’s governments adopted the six EFA (Education For All) goals and the eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), the two most important frameworks in the field of education.
- The education priorities of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) are shaped by these objectives.



- **Global Monitoring Report , 2005 :**

On gender disparity all countries have pledged to eliminate gender disparities and achieving gender equality in primary and secondary education by 2005. According to the new edition of the EFA Global Monitoring Report, 54 countries are at risk of not achieving this goal on present trends.

- **UNESCO (UIS) Survey Report 30.05.08 on equal learning on opportunities:**  
The report is entitled, 'A view Inside Primary Schools'. It is a study by Unesco's Institute for statistics (UIS) highlight the strong effect of social inequality on primary education systems in many countries and the challenges to provide all children with equal learning opportunities.

### 9.3.3. Evolution of Quality:

#### **Inspection:**

Quality inspection was adapted to separate non-conforming parts and so the term "Quality" meant inspection. In this era of mass production all finished products were examined to ensure quality. Inspection of quality was developed during the First World War. By World War II the manufacturing systems were more complex and huge numbers of labourers were reporting to each foreman who could quite easily have lost control of the work. As a result, it was necessary to engage full-time quality inspectors.

The quality inspection stage started about 1910 when the Ford Motor Company, then one of the world's largest manufacturers, employed teams of inspectors to check the quality of the T-model car. The idea behind quality inspection was that poor quality products could be found by inspection and then either scrapped, reworked or sold as lower quality products.

### 9.3.4. Quality Control:

The concept of 'Statistical Quality Control' was developed mainly by Walter A. Shewhart. By the 1920s and 1930s, it was being adopted by Ford and many other manufacturing companies in order to identify problems earlier and control the manufacturing process, instead of rejecting or repairing afterwards.

During the late 1940s and early 1950s the shortage of civilian goods in the United States made production a main concern. During that time both Juran and Deming introduced statistical quality control techniques to the Japanese to assist them in their rebuilding effort. They focused on upper management, rather than quality experts alone. With the support of top managers, the Japanese integrated quality throughout their organisations and developed a culture of continuous improvement.

Under a system of quality control it is expected to find in place paperwork and procedures control system, raw material and intermediate stage product testing, logging of elementary process performance data and feedback of process information to appropriate personnel. With quality control there will be some development from the basic inspection activity in terms of the sophistication of methods and systems, and the tools and techniques which are employed. While the main mechanism for hampering off specification products and services from being delivered to a customer is screening inspection again. Quality control measures lead to greater process control and lower incidence of non-conformances.

### 9.3.5. Quality Assurance: Text with Technology

The Quality Assurance stage focuses on pre-production activities and relies on quality standards [most notably, ISO 9000] or instructions to assist with the reduction of the risk of failures and mistakes in the processes used to produce a product or service. ISO 9000, which was first published by the International Organization for Standardization (ISO) in 1987, is now used extensively throughout the world. Today, more than 670 000 organizations worldwide are third party certified to ISO 9001:2000.

In the third stage finding and solving a problem after a non-conformance has been created is not an effective means of eliminating the root cause of the problem. Under quality assurance continuous improvement can only be achieved by directing organisational efforts towards planning and preventing problems occurring at source. This concept leads to the third stage of quality management development which is quality assurance.

### 9.3.6. Total Quality Management (TQM):

Total quality management (TQM) is the fourth level of quality management. The major source of the Japanese success was TQM implementation in all aspects of business. Comprehensive efforts were made to promote quality control in Japan in the 1940s through the establishment of the Japanese Union of Scientists and Engineers. Some significant considerations by the Japanese in implementing TQM have been found to be: top management direct involvement; emphasis on training and education; a formal organisation of quality; the use of informal quality control circles, giving awards, lots of patience.

TQM is a term that was initially coined by the Department of Defence in the United States (Evans and Lindsay, 2001). TQM is considered as a new managerial concept; it took place in the USA in the early 1980s as a result of poor manufacturing product quality compared with their Japanese competitors (Talha, 2004).

There is no universal definition of TQM.

Khan (2003) mentioned that TQM philosophy is based on four basic factors:

1. Absolute customer focus;
2. Employee empowerment, involvement and ownership;
3. Continuous improvement;
4. Use of systematic approaches to management.

Slack et al. (2007) mention that TQM should be thought of as a philosophy and a way of thinking and working which particularly stresses the following:

- Meeting the needs and expectations of customers;
- Covering all parts of the organisation;
- Including every person in the organisation;
- Examining all costs which are related to quality, especially failure costs;
- Getting things “right first time”;
- Developing the systems and procedures which support quality and improvement;
- Developing a continuous process of improvement.

#### The key principles of TQM:

1. Commitment management;
2. Continuous improvements to organisational processes;
3. Employee's empowerment;
4. Motivating employees;
5. Providing staff training and development.
6. In addition, benchmarking, tools and techniques should be used to measure quality;
7. The culture of the organisation should support quality and organisation structure.
8. Management and suppliers of the business are also important aspects of TQM.
9. One of the main aims of TQM is to meet the needs of customers and achieve customer satisfaction by providing a quality product or service.

### The various stages of TQM development:

STAGE	CHARACTERISTICS
Quality inspection (1910)	Salvage Sorting Corrective action Identify sources of non-conformance
Quality Control (1924)	Quality manual Performance data Self-inspection Product testing Quality planning Use of statistics Paperwork control
Quality Assurance (1950)	Third-party approvals Systems audits Quality planning Quality manuals Quality costs Process control Failure mode and effect analysis Non-production operation
Total Quality Management (1980)	Focused vision Continuous Improvements Internal costumer Performance measure Prevention Company-wide application Inter-departmental barriers Management leadership
Source: Dahlgaard et al, (1998, pp10)	

### 9.3.7. Six sigma:

Six Sigma is another concept within Quality Management that has spread throughout the world. It has strong similarities with TQM. Six Sigma has often been presented as something completely different to TQM, but it has been shown that Six Sigma and TQM have many traits, methodologies and values in common and few differences. The Six Sigma movement stems from the quality journey experienced by Motorola, an American corporation that in the late 1970s and early 1980s saw Japanese competition gaining a significant market share with products superior to those of Motorola. A notable difference between TQM and Six Sigma is that Six Sigma has a stronger emphasis on monetary success and an elite workforce doing the improvement work. The rapid growth of the concept in America and slower growth in the rest of the world may imply that Six Sigma is better suited to the American way of doing business.

### 9.3.8. Quality Gurus:

#### Walter Shewart:

Dr. Walter A. Shewhart is often referred to as the “grandfather of quality control”. He studied randomness and recognized that variability existed in all manufacturing processes. He developed quality control charts that are used to identify if the variability in the process is random or due to an assignable cause (operator, equipment, tools, etc.). He also stressed that eliminating variability improves quality. His work created the foundation of today’s Statistical Process Control. He is referred to as the “Father of Statistical Quality Control”. Shewhart's theories were first published in his book *Economic Control of Quality of Manufactured Product* (1931).

#### The Shewhart Cycle- PDCA Problem Solving Process:

**Plan:** what changes are desirable? What data is needed?

**Do:** carry out the change or test decided upon

**Check:** observe the effects of the change or the test

**Act:** what we learned from the change should lead to improvement or activity

### 9.3.9. Edward Deming:

Deming is considered by many researchers as the founding father of the quality movement. Deming began on quality endeavour in the 1940s. He focused on the earlier statistical sampling techniques, based on the work of W. A. Shewhart. Deming stressed that quality problems are caused mainly by processes and systems, including poor management.

**Deming's review of his quality management philosophy comprises four areas:**

**Application for a system:** This means that all organisation members have to recognize the constituent parts of the system in which they work and the variety of interrelationships that occur; a failure in one part of the system has an effect on success in another part.

**Knowledge of statistical theory:** This requires that all workers are familiar with the general methods of statistics and are able to apply them effectively.

**Theory of knowledge:** This relates to effective planning and implementation of those plans to determine what works and what does not.

**Knowledge of psychology:** Quality development requires changes in people's attitudes, values and behaviours. Consequentially, management and workers alike have to recognize what drives people and how those drives can be tapped for the ongoing development of quality.

### **Four major obstacles to implementing Deming's philosophy:**

These major barriers are the following:

1. The lack of constancy, preoccupation with short term profits,
2. The many forms of performance appraisal,
3. The mobility of management and their reliance on only visible figures as criteria for success.
4. Lack of constancy is Deming's phrase for it.



### **Deming's 14 important points of action to tackle head-on the diseases plaguing North American industry:**

1. Create constant purpose toward quality improvement of products and service.
2. Adopt the new concept of 'zero defect' that we no longer accept the commonly accepted levels of delays, mistakes, and defective products.
3. Stop the dependence on mass inspection of quality control to achieve the quality assurance; instead, set up the built-in quality system in the production processes.
4. Cease the practice of material purchases based on the decision of the price alone.
5. Use statistical methods to find the root causes of the problems and ultimately eliminate these problems.
6. Institute modern methods and systems of employees' on-job training.
7. Execute new methods of leadership for the supervision of workers.
8. Drive out fear, so that every employee can work effectively.
9. Break down barriers between departments; instead, team-work can be realized.
10. Eliminate slogans and the exhortations by numerical goals for the workforce; instead, encourage employees to challenge high levels of quality and productivity.
11. Eliminate only work quotas without accounting quality and remove the obstacles that prevent employees from achieving their challenge.
12. Remove barriers that rob people of their pride of workmanship.
13. Develop and execute a complete program of education and training for all employees.
14. Perform all above actions and push for continuous improvement.

### **Deming's "Seven Deadly Diseases of Management":**

1. Lack of consistency of purpose
2. Emphasis on short-term profits
3. Evaluation by performance, merit rating, or annual review of performance
4. Mobility of management
5. Running a company on visible figures alone
6. Excessive medical costs
7. Excessive costs of warranty, fuelled by lawyers who work for contingency fees

### 9.3.10. C.K Pralhad:

Coimbatore Krishnarao Prahalad (8 August 1941 – 16 April 2010) was the Paul and Ruth McCracken

Distinguished University Professor of Corporate Strategy at University of Michigan Stephen M. Ross School of Business.

Prahalad was co-founder and became CEO of Praja Inc. (“Praja” from a Sanskrit word “Praja” which means “citizen” or “common people”). The company had goals of providing unrestricted access to information for people at the “bottom of the pyramid” and providing a test bed for various management ideas. It eventually laid off a third of its workforce, and was sold to TIBCO. In 2004 Prahalad co-founded management consultancy The Next Practice, to support companies in implementing the strategies outlined in The Fortune at the Bottom of the Pyramid, which continued in operation as of 2015. Prahalad was a member of the Blue Ribbon Commission of the United Nations on Private Sector and Development.

### C.K. Prahalad proposed Twelve Guiding Principles of Innovation for BoP Markets:

1. Focus on price-performance combination instead of just price
2. Develop hybrid solutions. See how the latest technologies can be used.
3. Ensure scalability of BoP solutions, in building up a scale and replicating across different environments
4. Conserve resources
5. Understand the functionality of the product in the new environment and adapt it
6. Process innovations such as logistics and special ways to segregate customers needing different kinds of value are also important
7. Reduce the skill demands at different stages
8. Create demand, educate customers
9. Make sure products work in drastically different environments
10. Understand the heterogeneity of the customer population
11. Ensure adequate distribution systems
12. Keep track of evolution in BoP markets and continuously modify your products/processes.

### Rewards:

He was the first recipient of the Lal Bahadur Shastri Award for contributions to Management and Public Administration presented by the President of India in 1999.

In 2009, he was named Padma Bhushan 'third in the hierarchy of civilian awards' by the Government of India.

In 2011, the Southern Regional Headquarters of Confederation of Indian Industry (CII) was named as Prof C K Prahalad Center.




## **SUB UNIT – 4**

### **9.4.1. Change Management: Meaning:**

Change Management is a systematic activity to prepare an organization for and implement ongoing environmental changes in a business operation. Change Management is about innovative strategies and speedy activities to deal with variable and sudden changes.


Successful Change Management not only improves the governance structure but also raises productivity up to the maximum level by modifying the existing organization system to meet the customer satisfaction.

There are several Management Innovation programs to deal with change for any modern company, such as 6-Sigma, TQM (Total Quality Management), TPM (Total Productive Maintenance), ERP (Enterprise Resource Planning), etc.

CONCEPT	DESCRIPTION
 The change	<b>Goal or objective:</b> To improve the organization in some fashion, such as reducing costs, improving revenues, solving problems, seizing opportunities, aligning work and strategy or streamlining information flow within the organization.
	<b>Meaning:</b> Change management is the process, tools and techniques to manage the people side of change to achieve the required business outcome. Change management incorporates the organizational tools that can be utilized to help individuals make successful personal transitions resulting in the adoption and realization of change.
Change management	<b>Goal or objective:</b> To apply a systematic approach for helping the individuals impacted by “the change” be successful by building support, addressing resistance and developing the required knowledge and ability to implement the change (managing the people side of the change) The main objective of the Change management process is to ensure change’s record, evaluation, authorization, prioritization, planning, testing, implementation, and reviewing in a controlled manner.
	<b>Process:</b>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Planning for change               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Correct understanding of the organizations that want or need to be changed.</li> <li>➤ Correct understanding of the people who are willing or forced to change.</li> <li>➤ The effective realization of change.</li> <li>➤ Understanding the dynamics of change.</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Managing change</li> <li>• Reinforcing change</li> </ul>

	<b>Characteristics:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Individual change model</li> <li>• Communications</li> <li>• Sponsorship</li> <li>• Coaching</li> <li>• Training</li> <li>• Resistance management</li> </ul>
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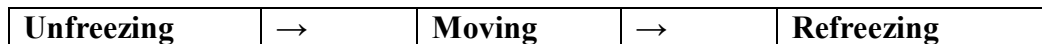
#### 9.4.2. Need for Planned change:

<b>Need for Planned change</b>  	<b>External Factors:</b>
	<p><b>Market situation or market place:</b> The global market place has created a huge need for change because of internalization and the more dynamic situation.</p>
	<p><b>Technology:</b> Modern technological innovation also created a huge need for change. Affordability of equipment and software allows greater competition in the IT-sector.</p>
	<p><b>Government laws and regulations:</b> Changing laws and regulations also invites need for planned changes in the marketing process.</p> <p><b>Economics:</b> Finally, worldwide economic ups and downs have a dramatic effect on organizations as well as on domestic markets.</p>
	<b>Internal Factors:</b>
	<p>It is obvious that an organization can change its plan and strategy at any time. It can lead to a large number of changes to adopt with the new distribution, methodology or to a new logistic strategy.</p> <p>Thus internal factors include the following:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Corporate strategy</li> <li>➤ Workforce</li> <li>➤ Technology and equipment</li> <li>➤ Employee attitudes</li> </ul>

### 9.4.3. Three-Step-Model of Change:

Lewin was an altruistic who believed that only by resolving social conflict, whether it is religious, racial, marital or industrial, could the human condition be improved. He believed that only the permeation of democratic values into all facets of society could prevent the worst extremes of social conflict that he had seen in his lifetime.

Kurt Lewin proposed a three stage theory of change commonly referred to as Unfreeze, Change (or Transition), Freeze (or Refreeze).



#### Unfreezing:

According to Lewin, the first step in the process of changing behaviour is to unfreeze the existing situation or status quo. The status quo is considered the equilibrium state. Unfreezing is necessary to overcome the strains of individual resistance and group conformity. Unfreezing can be achieved by the use of three methods.

1. Increase the driving forces that direct behaviour away from the existing situation or status quo.
2. Decrease the restraining forces that negatively affect the movement from the existing equilibrium.
3. Find a combination of the two methods listed above.

#### Moving:

Lewin's second step in the process of changing behaviour is movement. In this step, it is necessary to move the target system to a new level of equilibrium. Three actions that can assist in the movement step include:

1. Persuading employees to agree that the status quo is not beneficial to them.
2. Encouraging them to view the problem from a fresh perspective, work together on a quest for new, relevant information.
3. Connect the views of the group to well-respected, powerful leaders that also support the change.

**Refreezing:**

The third step of Lewin's three-step change model is refreezing. This step needs to take place after the change has been implemented in order for it to be sustained or "stick" over time. It is highly likely that the change will be short lived and the employees will revert to their old equilibrium (behaviours) if this step is not taken. It is the actual integration of the new values into the community values and traditions. The purpose of refreezing is to stabilize the new equilibrium resulting from the change by balancing both the driving and restraining forces. The new behaviours are relatively safe from regression. It must be congruent with the rest of the behaviour, personality and environment of the learner or it will simply lead to a new round of disconfirmation.

**9.4.4. The Japanese Models of Change:****Just-in-Time:**

The just-in-time (JIT) inventory system is a management strategy that minimizes inventory and increases efficiency.

Just-in-time (JIT) manufacturing is also known as the Toyota Production System (TPS) because the car manufacturer Toyota adopted the system in the 1970s.

Kanban is a scheduling system often used in conjunction with JIT to avoid overcapacity of work in process.

The success of the JIT production process relies on steady production, high-quality workmanship, no machine breakdowns, and reliable suppliers.

**Objective of JIT:**

- To be more responsive to customers,
- To have better communication among departments and suppliers,
- To be more flexible,
- To achieve better quality,
- To reduce product cost.

**Importance:** JIT production systems cut inventory costs because manufacturers do not have to pay storage costs. Manufacturers are also not left with unwanted inventory if an order is cancelled or not fulfilled.

**Advantages over traditional models:**

- Production runs are short, which means that manufacturers can quickly move from one product to another.
- This method reduces costs by minimizing warehouse needs. Companies also spend less money on raw materials because they buy just enough resources to make the ordered products and no more.

**9.4.5. Poka yoke:**

Poka-yoke means "mistake-proofing". Its purpose is to eliminate product defects by preventing, correcting, or drawing attention to human errors as they occur. The concept was formalised, and the term adopted, by Shigeo Shingo as part of the Toyota Production System.

It is an autonomous defect control, a pillar of JIT. In this system, almost all machines are autonomous, so that mass production of defects is prevented and machine breakdowns are autonomously checked.

If something abnormal happens in a product line, the worker pushes his stop button, thereby stopping the whole line.

**Common device used in poka-yoke systems:**

1. Guide pin
2. Blinking light and Alarms
3. Limit Switches
4. Proximity switches(sensor)

### Methodology of poka yoke:

Identify Problem



Observation at workstation



Brainstorming for idea



Select best idea



Implementation Plan



Implement



Monitor and sign off

### Challenges and Limitations:

- Practical implementation of the mechanism or solution is not possible.
- Interdepartmental relations between production and quality depth are not good .
- Now also we are depending on statistical process control.
- Process parameters don't allow changing the existing system.
- Sometimes the poka yoke is not cost effective.
- Expert advice is needed for new creative and challenging tasks.

### Examples of Poka Yoke:

- Spindle of CNC machine starts only after closing the safety door. If door is open then machine will not run. It is shut down poka yoke to avoid accidents.
- If we want to close any file in operating software (e.g. Microsoft Word) it asks for save it or cancel dialogue box. This is warning system against by mistake closing of file. It is warning poka yoke.
- The socket for USB on the computer is designed in such a way that we can't connect pen drive or any corresponding pin in opposite or wrong way. It is control poka yoke system.
- Check list is used to confirm that all subcomponents in assembly are assembled. It is control poka yoke system.

### 9.4.6. Cost of Quality:

Every industrial organisation needs to establish a quality cost system.

In his book “Total Quality Control”, Feigenbaum listed a number of categories of cost incurred while manufacturing products. Quality planning, scrap, re-work, inspection, test and so on. He called them quality costs.

Feigenbaum divided them into four distinct groups. Prevention, Appraisal and Internal and External failure.

quality cost = Appraisal cost + Failure Cost + Prevention cost

Quality costs are the total labour, materials, and overhead costs which are attributed to : preventing non-conformance of output, appraising output to ensure conformance to requirements and correcting or scrapping non-conforming input as well as output.

**Prevention costs:** It is the costs incurred to keep failure and appraisal costs to minimum. It is associated with the design, implementation and maintenance of the total quality management system. Prevention costs are planned and are incurred before actual operation.

It includes the following :

- Quality Planning
- Supplier Rating
- Training
- Quality Performance Reporting
- Quality Improvement Programmes
- Product Liability Insurance
- Miscellaneous costs

**Appraisal cost:** It is the costs incurred to determine the degree of conformance to quality requirements.

It is associated with the supplier's and customer's evaluation of purchased materials, processes, intermediates, products and services to assure conformance with the specified requirements.

Appraisal costs include the following:

- Incoming Materials Inspection
- Process Inspection
- Material and Services Consumed
- Re-inspection
- Quality Audit



**Failure Costs:**

This type of costs divided into two categories. Internal and External costs.

**Internal Failure Costs :** These costs occur when the results of work fail to reach designed quality standards and are detected before transfer to the customer takes place.

Internal failure costs include the following ;

- Scrap and Waste
- Re-work and Repair
- Down-time
- Designing corrective action
- Failure Analysis

**External Failure Costs :** These costs occur when products or services fail to reach design quality standards but are not detected until after transfer to the consumer.

**External failure costs include :**

- Customer complaints
- Replacing products after delivery to customers
- Warranty claims
- Loss of goodwill

External and internal failures produce the cost of getting it wrong. Order re-entry, retyping, unnecessary travel and telephone calls, conflicts, are just a few examples of the wastage or failure costs often excluded. Every organisation must be aware of the cost of getting it wrong, and the management has to obtain some idea of how much failure is costing annually.



#### 9.4.7. Cost Benefit Analysis:

Cost of education refers to the amount of money spent to acquire or impart education. Education in any country has different objectives. Some of these result in direct economic benefits (such as salary earned or taking up employment) while others result in indirect benefits (such as life satisfaction). For example, the salary of an employed graduate is the direct benefit of education received.

Besides salary, education increases the geographical mobility of a person leading to increasing adaptability and employability. This can be considered an indirect benefit of education.

In cost-benefit analysis, attention is focused on direct economic benefits resulting from education.

This is a technique that has been used for the purpose of choosing a project from among a number of projects on the basis of a consideration of their cost benefit relationship. In applying this technique, one has to be careful about both the concepts of costs and benefits as well as their measurement. Cost benefit analysis provides a measure of the profitability of education as an investment for society, or for the individual student or his/her family. It will act as a general guide for resource allocation and enable the comparison of the profitability of different types of education. One has to be clear about the social and private benefits of education, and its social and private costs. Essentially cost-benefits analysis relates the educational cost with the benefits measured in monetary terms. On the other hand, cost-effectiveness analysis relates the costs in education with various measures of educational objectives, not expressed in terms of money (e.g. test scores, reading achievements, etc.).

#### 9.4.8. Cost Effective Analysis:

Cost-effectiveness is a concept which is useful in measuring the success of an educational system in meeting the intended benefits (direct and indirect or intangible).

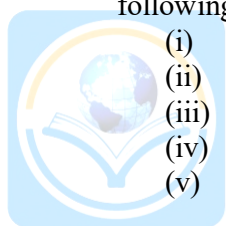
Cost-effectiveness is concerned with both the quantitative and qualitative relationship between inputs and outputs. It takes into account decision alternatives for both costs and consequences, and attempts at (higher) achievement of predetermined objectives or targets within the given cost and as economically as possible. It also ascertains the most efficient means of attaining particular educational goals (Levin, 1995).

The cost-effectiveness approach, however, does not suit broad educational decisions. The cost effectiveness approach is more appropriate at the level of the institution, the classroom or even the lectures delivered in the classrooms, as at such levels, objectives can be more precisely defined. It can be particularly used to decide about teaching methods when the objective is to bring the students up to some measurable level of competence. There will often be alternative teaching techniques (lectures with traditional text books, small tutorial groups, self study with a programmed text, computer-aided instruction, etc.) capable of achieving these objectives. If the end results are the same, the cheapest methods should be chosen.

### 9.4.9. Indian and International Quality Assurance Agencies:

#### National Assessment Accreditation Council [NAAC]:

- National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC) is an autonomous institution under University Grants Commission (UGC) of India, established in the year 1994.
- It has been entrusted with the responsibility of Assessment and Accreditation of Colleges and Universities in India for promotion of quality of teaching-learning and research.
- NAAC has been engaged in redesigning its on-going methodologies of Assessment and Accreditation, based on its own field experience, its shared knowledge with other International Quality Assurance Agencies and the quality imperatives in the changing context of world-wide higher education scenario.
- The mandate of NAAC as reflected in its vision statement is making quality assurance an integral part of the functioning of Higher Education Institutions (HEIs).
- The accreditation framework of NAAC is based on five core values which include the following:
  - (i) Contributing to National Development,
  - (ii) Fostering Global Competencies among students,
  - (iii) Inculcating a Value System among Students,
  - (iv) Promoting the Use of Technology,
  - (v) Quest for Excellence.
- These five core values form the foundation for assessment of institutions that volunteer for accreditation by NAAC.
- The seven criteria identified by NAAC which serve as the basis for assessment of HEIs (NAAC 2013) are:
  - (i) Curricular Aspects,
  - (ii) Teaching-Learning and Evaluation,
  - (iii) Research, Consultancy and Extension,
  - (iv) Infrastructure and Learning Resources,
  - (v) Student Support and Progression,
  - (vi) Governance, Leadership and Management, and
  - (vii) Innovations & Best Practices.



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#### 9.4.10. Performance Indicators:

Every organizations have their own aims and objectives and goals. In order to fulfil their objectives and goals organizations have to keep check over their performance. For measuring, managing and comparing the performance the organizations are required to know about the performance indicators. The performance indicators can be defined as the physical values which are used to measure, compare and manage the overall organizational performance.

The performance indicators may include the following:

Quality  
Flexibility  
Time  
Safety  
Financial performance  
Cost  
Employee's satisfaction  
Learning and growth  
Environment/social performance  
Customer satisfaction  
Delivery reliability

#### 9.4.11. Quality Council of India [QCI]:

- Cabinet decision to establish Quality Council of India, in 1996
- formed in January 1997.
- Non-profit autonomous society
- Joint initiative of the Government of India, and the Indian Industry, namely ASSOCHAM, CII and FICCI.
- PPP – 50% seed money by Govt; 50% by the industry bodies
- Purpose: To establish & operate national accreditation structure and to promote Quality through nation wide quality campaign
- Mission – Quality for the National Well Being

#### Objectives:

- To establish and operate national accreditation program for conformity assessment bodies.
- To develop and operate national accreditation programs for different sectors like vocational training, food safety, health care etc.
- To lead nation wide quality movement in the country through national quality campaign.
- To encourage research in the field of quality.

### **9.4.12. International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education [INQAAHE]:**

The International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education (INQAAHE) is a world-wide association of organisations with a major interest in evaluation, accreditation and quality assurance in higher education. INQAAHE was established in 1991 with only 8 members. Today the total membership exceeds 300 members.

#### **Objectives and Functions:**

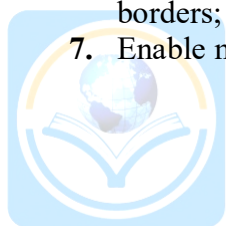
1. To create, collect and disseminate information on current and developing theory and practice in the assessment, improvement and maintenance of quality in higher education.
2. To assist members to determine the standards of institutions operating across national borders and facilitate better-informed international recognition of qualifications.
3. To assist in the development and use of credit transfer and credit accumulation schemes to enhance the mobility of students between institutions (within and across national borders).
4. To promote the theory and practice of the improvement of quality in higher education.
5. To provide advice and expertise to assist existing and emerging quality assurance agencies.
6. To undertake or commission research in areas relevant to quality in higher education.
7. To express the collective views of its members on matters relevant to quality in higher education through contacts with international bodies and by other means.
8. To facilitate links between quality assurance agencies and support networks of quality assurance agencies.
9. To enable members to be alert to improper quality assurance practices and organisations.
10. To organise, on request, reviews of the operation of members.

**Country Presence:** Albania, Macao, China, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, Democratic People's Republic of Korea.

**Field of Interest:** Education, Higher Education, Networks.

**Roles and Initiatives:**

1. Promote good practices in the maintenance and improvement of quality in higher education;
2. Facilitate research into the practice of quality management in higher education and its effectiveness;
3. Be able to provide advice and expertise to assist the development of new quality assurance agencies; Facilitate links between accrediting bodies especially insofar as they operate across national borders;
4. Assist members in determining the standards of institutions operating across national borders;
5. Permit better-informed international recognition of qualifications;
6. Be able to assist in the development and use of credit transfer schemes in order to enhance the mobility of students between institutions within and across national borders;
7. Enable members to be alert to dubious accrediting practices and organisations.



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