

## INTRODUCTION TO EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

### Topic Objective:

At the end of this topic student would be able to develop learning regarding:

- Democratic Decisions
- Concept of Self Government in District School Supervision
- Lessons from History about Supervision in District School
- Schools Districts

### Definition/Overview:

**School Governance:** Governance of schools is becoming an increasingly important issue, as educators begin to realize how crucial it is to empower the participants in any educational process. There are currently many hundreds of schools in the United States and other countries, both private and public, which operate with varying degrees of student self-government. These take a variety of forms, including democratic vote by students and teachers, a majority vote, or consensus by students and teachers.

### Key Points:

#### 1. Democratic Decisions

In a true democratic process, decisions are made by using all the creative forces and all the authority of the many participants who are involved in making those decisions. To the extent that they are disempowered by special groups having veto power, to that extent is the authority and the creative power of the total body eroded. When we founded Shaker Mountain school, in 1968, it was set up as a democratic school, with the encouragement of the then-Commissioner of Education of the state, Harvey Scribner. Students were even the majority of our board of trustees. We did this because Scribner had said we needed to have the people we could trust the most on our board of trustees (rather than those who could raise the most money), to make decisions that would be best for the school. We felt that the ones we could trust the most would be the students, themselves. Throughout the years, all important decisions were made by the school meeting, with all students participating. When particular items were brought to the board of trustees, invariably the student trustees, the majority, would refer these decisions back to the school meeting, feeling that it was the proper forum

for making any decision.

Those decisions even included such major issues as buying and selling buildings, the organization of major funding events, and all basic school policies. In the earliest years, decisions were made by a straight majority. Our meetings were always long and sometimes emotional because the real decisions operating the school were made in the meeting. It always seems to me that schools that reserve their meeting time for "Wednesday afternoon for one hour" couldn't really be democratic because there are so many more decisions to be made during the week. We often had meetings that lasted the entire Monday morning and Friday morning, sometimes spilling over into the afternoons. In addition, we had meetings for class announcements every morning during the week, which often had other decisions brought into them. Special meetings could be called by any staff or student by ringing the meeting bell.

One obvious implication of the last statement is that attendance at the meetings was not compulsory. Neither was attendance at all classes in the school. However, if a group of people at a regular school meeting felt that a particular issue was of such importance that everybody in the school needed to know about it and its consequences, somebody could propose that there be a "super-meeting." If it was passed, that meeting becomes a "super-meeting." It would be necessary for all people around the school to come to the meeting until it was voted that it did not need to be a "super meeting" any more. This probably didn't happen any more than 10% of the time. One interesting by-product of the school meetings was that the rate of increase in vocabulary on the part of the average student in school was 2 1/2 times the national rate. We actually had students increase 6 grade levels in a year in their vocabulary, even when they were otherwise not attending classes. We can only assume that this was a consequence of the student's participating in and listening to the meetings, and determining that they wanted to understand everything that was being said in them.

## **2. Concept of Self Government in District School Supervision**

Two of the most common approaches to self-government are democratic decision making by the majority and decision by consensus of the group. Shaker Mountain school evolved an interesting blending of the advantages of both these approaches, being heavily influenced in the early years by their involvement with the traditionalist Mohawk Indians of the Iroquois

Confederacy (We had regular exchange visits with them). This is perhaps quite fitting because it was the influence of the Iroquois confederacy that convinced Benjamin Franklin, among others, that democratic decision making was a good form of government and, therefore, a good one to be used for the fledgling independent colonies. In our early contacts with the Mohawks we discovered that they made their decisions at a council by having each member express their opinion. If a minority opinion was indicated they would then listen very carefully to that minority opinion, and allow it to be fully expressed, perhaps then changing the decision of the whole group. But ultimately, if they felt that the minority opinion was fully explored and that there were no options offered, the decision of the majority became the decision of the tribes.

An approach somewhat similar to this is used in consensus decision making, in which a person or persons may wish to "stand aside." They may disagree with the decision, but are willing to let the decision of the rest of the members stand. As it was described to me by Eric Joy, a teacher at the Arthur Morgan School, a Quaker School in Burnsville, N.C., consensus to him means "sense of the meeting." The clerk of the meeting will try to determine what this sense of the meeting is. If a person offers a dissenting opinion, they are given a chance to express what that opinion is, and then given some time to come up with an alternative proposal. But if they are not able to come up with an alternative proposal, it is incumbent upon the clerk to determine what the sense of the meeting is, and proceed on to make decisions based on that sense.

At Shaker Mountain, decisions were technically based on majority vote. However, it became customary at our meetings for the chairperson to ask people who had voted negatively to say why they had done so, if they were willing say. Subsequently, anybody in the meeting could then ask for a re-vote. The re-vote automatically reopened discussion. If a minority felt so strongly about a proposal that they just could not live with it, they could continuously call for re-votes at the meeting, effectively "filibustering," causing people to come up with a better or more comprehensive or more universally acceptable proposal.

### **3. Lessons from History about Supervision in District School**

In some school democracies the students elect a chairperson who then chairs the meeting for a semester or some fairly long period of time. This is how it is done at Summerhill. At

Shaker Mountain, everybody at one time or another chaired the meetings. Because so many of our decisions were made by democratic meetings under so many different circumstances, it was felt that it was important that everyone learn how to run a good meeting. When a new student came into the school, they would often be elected to chairperson. Then people would 'kibitz' them into becoming good chairpersons as they struggled in the initial phases.

At the beginning of each meeting the people who wanted to chair the meeting would indicate so, or there could be nominations from the membership. There was then an immediate vote by show of hands, a process that generally would only take a minute or so. The person who got the most votes would become chairperson and start the meeting, usually with the words "who called this meeting and why?" if it was a special meeting, or "what is the first thing on the agenda," if it was a regular meeting. If the chairperson needed to leave the room or was getting tired, they could appoint somebody else to be chairperson. If people felt that the person who was chairing the person was flagging in their attention or was not doing a good job at that point, they could call for a new chairperson. If there was a call for a new chairperson there would be an immediate vote whether or not there should be a new chairperson. If the majority disagreed, the chairperson continued. If the majority of people indicated that they thought there should be a new chairperson, the current chairperson could either name another chairperson at that point or there would be another immediate election. People tended to elect those whom they thought would get us through the meeting efficiently, but anybody who wanted to chair a meeting generally got a chance and had plenty of opportunities.

The meeting was not allowed to go on, whether it was a special or a general meeting, unless somebody had volunteered to take the log and keep track of the proposals and the decisions that were being made in the official log book. The log book was a large, hand bound volume of blank pages. Several log books would be filled up during a school year. When a topic was put on the agenda the chairperson would ask who put it on the agenda. The person who put it on the agenda would explain why they put it on. Then a discussion of that topic would ensue. People could make proposals that needed to be seconded. Those proposals did not need to be voted on one at a time but could be voted on in a list when somebody "called the question."

One somewhat unusual decision that was made by the meeting concerned this "calling of the question." Rather than have this be done strictly by majority vote, it was determined by the meeting that if 5 people were opposed to the question being called (and, therefore, discussion being ended and a vote taken), that was sufficient for us to continue discussion. The skill of the chairperson was often determined by their ability to notice when people had raised their hands to speak, and in what order. Sometimes a chairperson would write the names down so they would remember the order in which people had raised their hands. However, it was considered the prerogative of the chairperson to call on people who they felt would move the meeting forward the best. This for example might include calling on people who had not spoken yet, even if they had only raised their hands after other people who had spoken before. It was also their job to point out to the meeting when they thought certain points had already been expressed, or that people were repeating themselves. The chairperson could call for a vote without the question being called if nobody objected.

New items could be added to the agenda during the meeting. This was sometimes done at the urging of the chairperson when he felt that the business had strayed from the original agenda item and that there was another issue to be decided. It is important to point out that there was no veto power over the decisions that were made in the school meetings. The staff, for example had two long meetings a week, but the staff had no arbitrary power. The staff were free to offer whatever classes they wanted, and discuss whatever kinds of things they thought were important to the school, but they could not make decisions for the entire school. Any changes that the staff wanted to make in the overall school policy had to be brought to the school meeting. The meetings often made many creative decisions, decisions that might not have been thought of by any individual operating on their own. I think that it is important to note that we went into the meeting without having a pre-set idea about the decisions that the meeting "should" make, but rather, fully expected that the meeting would be greater than the sum of its parts, and would find a creative solution that no one individual could foresee.

One early decision that was made at the school meeting was the creation of the "stop rule". It was noted that conflicts between students often arose when two students would be horsing around and one wouldn't realize that the other had become upset. In such a circumstance, it was decided that the person would then say "stop" at that point, and if it

was not clear what they were saying "stop" to, they would say "stop to wrestling", or even to "stop to calling me fatty." Those words would communicate the fact that that student was at the point of great frustration and would otherwise feel that they were about to get into a real fight. One of the first questions that would be asked in a school meeting was "did so and so say 'stop'?" If they had said "stop" and somebody broke the stop rule, it was taken to be a very serious transgression. We note that at Summerhill, fining people from their allowances is often a consequence of negative behavior. At Shaker Mountain people generally were of low income and did not have money which they could be fined, so a lot of discussion centered around whether a student would be given a "warning" or a "strong warning" for a particular behavior that people objected to. It was sometimes amazing to me how important people found this distinction to be. A "warning" meant that there would be no particular consequence at that point except for the equivalent of community censure. But a "strong warning" meant that the next time the community could not take that option, but needed to take action. It was very uncommon for some kind of negative behavior to go beyond the strong warning stage. When this did occasionally happen people would go scrambling through the log to see if the person had gotten a warning or a strong warning for the previous behavior.

Our meetings were not only used for discipline in that sense, but also for positive brainstorming. For example class announcements would be made in meetings. Anybody could announce a class. Trip meetings would also be announced there, and the trip meeting would decide where they were going to go and how they would raise the money to get there. If someone had a problem that came out in a meeting that looked like it was going to take more attention than the meeting could provide, someone would often propose that there be a "small group" to help that person. Anybody could volunteer to be part of that small group but the people in the group would have to be approved by the person for whom the group was being formed, or in the case of a conflict between two people, by both parties. Our process of conflict resolution by meeting was so effective that we would often go an entire school year without any kind of a physical fight between students. Especially because of the size differentials and age differentials between students in the school, physical force was very highly frowned upon. The meeting did have the power to suspend a student from the school or kick them out of the school. What was more common as a result of serious transgressions over a period of time would be for the meeting to propose that a student be sent back through the admissions procedure and

under the supervision of the admissions committee, as if they were a new student trying to get into the school. The admissions committee was comprised of students and staff who ran for the office and were elected by the school community annually.

These ideas have been adapted for use by a wide variety of schools and programs. Sussex School, a 70 student independent alternative in Missoula, Montana, had a waiting list of 325. Those people, with the help of Sussex, hired me to help them create a new school. Organizing a meeting of potential students directly from the attendees, we had the "first meeting" of the new school, before it even had a name. My niece, 11 year old Jenifer Goldman, whom I was homeschooling at the time, chaired the first meeting. This ultimately led to the creation of ShiningMountain School, and a spinoff school called Avalon. It also led to a public school alternative that was inspired by the process. This democratic meeting process has also been developed for use by such diverse groups as LIGHT, a Long Island homeschool group, and Islip Alternative, a public school program for "at risk" high school students. The homeschoolers were immediately at home with the idea, with even the youngest, a four year old, participating fully. At first, the students at Islip were skeptical of the idea, but as we went along, you could see the body language of the students change. They committed themselves to the idea of their own empowerment, and continued to have such meetings every week. When the school district made plans to lay off some of their teachers at the end of the school years because of budget cuts, these "at risk" students were the only ones in the district to mount a protest to the school board. One of the teachers told me that she was sure it was because they had become empowered by the democratic school meetings.

#### **4. Schools Districts**

- An elementary school usually includes kindergarten and grades one through five (sometimes six). In some school districts these grades are divided into two schools.
- A middle school usually includes grades six or seven through eight (in some places, the alternative terms junior high school or intermediate school are still used). Junior high school often referred to schools that covered grades seven through nine. Intermediate school is often used for schools that cover grades 3-5 or so when they are separated from elementary schools.

- A high school usually includes grades nine through twelve and may include grades seven and above. There are many high schools that cover only grades ten to twelve, which are sometimes referred to as a senior high school.

These terms may not appear in a district's name, even though the condition may apply.

- A unified school district includes elementary and secondary (middle school and high school) educational levels.
- The word central in a district's name indicates that there is one central administration that oversees the entire district.
- The word free in a district's name indicates that no tuition is charged to attend district schools. In New York, it is used in conjunction with union to indicate a district composed of multiple, formerly independent common school districts now free of restrictions placed on New York State's common school districts.
- The word union or consolidated in a district's name indicates that it was formed from two or more districts.
- The word joint in a district's name indicates that it includes territory from more than one county.
- The word independent can have different meanings, depending on the state.
  - Kentucky Here, "Independent" districts are separate from county districts, the standard form of school district in the state. If a county has no independent district, its school district boundaries coincide exactly with its borders. As of 2007, the state has 54 independent districts scattered throughout the state, with major concentrations in Northern Kentucky and the Eastern Coal Fields region. These districts are generally associated with a city, or sometimes with a cluster of adjoining cities. Unlike county districts, independent districts can cross county lines, as in the Caverna Independent Schools centered on Cave City and Horse Cave and the Corbin Independent Schools. Note that some districts in the state are independent despite not having "Independent" in their official name, as in the Owensboro Public Schools and Paducah Public Schools.
  - Texas Here, "Independent" denotes that the district is separate from any county- or municipal-level entity. All of the state's school districts, with only one exception, are independent of any municipal or county control. Moreover, school district boundaries rarely coincide with municipal limits or county lines. Most districts use the term "Independent

School District" in their name; in the few cases where the term "Common School District" is used the district is still an independent governmental entity.

- In Ohio, school districts are classified as either city school districts, exempted village school districts, or local school districts. City and exempted village school districts are exempted from county boards of education, local school districts remain under county school board supervision. School districts may combine resources to form a fourth type of school district, the joint vocational school district, which focuses on a technical based curriculum.
- In Michigan there are Intermediate School Districts largely at the county level. The local schools districts run the schools and most programs, but often bi-lingual aides and programs for the deaf and blind are run by the Intermediate School District.

### **Topic : Evidence Based Leadership In School And School District Leadership**

#### **Topic Objective:**

At the end of this topic student would be able to develop learning regarding:

- District Leadership Then and Now
- Restructuring School District Leadership
- Three Related Types of Leadership
- Organizational Leadership
- Public Leadership
- Instructional Leadership
- Non-Traditional Leadership

#### **Definition/Overview:**

**School District Leadership:** What little attention the problems of school district governance and leadership have received in the current era of highly publicized school reform has centered mostly on problem-plagued large urban systems. Yet an undeniable need exists to create and adapt strategies, styles and examples of effective leadership to meet the unique circumstances of all types of school districts. Across the country, school district leaders profess a desire to learn as much as they can about the significant characteristics of successful leadership and of clearly defined arrangements that work.

**Key Points:****1. District Leadership Then and Now**

Today's local school boards evolved from the town meetings and governments of selectmen established in Massachusetts in the late 1700s. In the beginning, they controlled nearly every aspect of school administration, including collecting taxes, hiring and managing teachers, managing facilities, and testing students. Bit by bit, local communities separated school governance from general governance at different times beginning in the late 1700s and into the early 1900s, usually when the demands of managing increasingly complex public education systems became too burdensome for county, city and municipal governments. The extent and nature of the separation varied based on state statutes, regulations, court decisions, and legal opinions as well as the expectations, traditions, and character of citizen involvement in diverse local districts. However, one hardy truth has been and will presumably remain constant: local school districts are creations of the states. School boards did not hire full-time superintendents until the 1830s, when growing school populations made it nearly impossible for unpaid, part-time board members to manage schools. School boards ceded power to superintendents tentatively at first, and it was not unusual for a district to hire a superintendent and later return school management to the board. Some of the tensions between school boards and superintendents have been destructive; others have been synergistic.

For most local public education systems, the interplay between district governance and management has undergone little serious change in the last century, despite dramatic shifts in the size, demographic makeup and instructional responsibilities of school districts. One of the ironies (and shortcomings) of the school reform movement of the past two decades, for example, is that it has largely ignored such indisputably important players as school superintendents, school board members, and central office administrators. Without the

effective participation of such ground-level local leaders, it is hard to imagine school systems functioning effectively.

If they are to be more productive advocates for quality education, these grass roots leaders need public support, and they must be prepared to adjust to profound change on many fronts. Here are some of the principal forces they must be prepared to tackle: Changing Priorities. District leaders are operating in an environment of ever-shifting priorities. During the first half of the 20th century, says the conventional wisdom, district management could be defined by the four Bs: Bonds, Budgets, Buses and Buildings. By the 1970s, it had become the four Rs: Race, Resources, Relationships and Rules as heretofore mostly ignored groups such as members of minority groups, teachers, students, and communities began asserting themselves. Priorities shifted again in the 1980s when the contemporary school reform movement gained traction.

Today, district leaders must concern themselves with a host of different concerns: the four As: Academic standards, Accountability, Autonomy and Ambiguity and the five Cs: Collaboration, Communication, Connection, Child advocacy and Community building. The five Cs reflect the essential role schools play in the life of the local community and as advocates for children whose social, behavioral, and academic patterns virtually dictate new kinds of links between schools and community resource providers, businesses, and other organizations that can provide resources and expertise. Now more than ever before, districts must maintain constant contact with a bewildering array of internal and external stakeholders to share information and request feedback on a range of issues from closing schools in inclement weather to core issues about what students are expected to learn. Current wisdom also holds that helping students reach today's more demanding standards can be most effectively accomplished if educators and board members alike have more autonomy to do their jobs.

At the state level, policy-makers are supposed to set the standards and monitor performance while granting districts the freedom to set their own policies to achieve the goals. As their part of the bargain, districts are delegating more autonomy to principals, who, in turn, are expected to entrust teachers with more latitude at the classroom level as long as the goals are met. Such decentralization reverses decades of top-down control and explicit, detailed mandates. But how much autonomy and what degree of flexibility serve the best interests of a district's schools? Answering these core questions has become the direct responsibility of

district leaders, but both school board members and superintendents are finding that they must resolve the ambiguity inherent in their relationships, roles and responsibilities before much else can be accomplished.

If the basic function of districts is to help students meet newly raised academic standards, it becomes increasingly important that leaders at all levels teachers, principals and superintendents become more expert in teaching and learning, that in practice and not just in theory, they become genuine leaders for student learning. Many superintendents do not possess the knowledge, training, or skills demanded of today's instructional leaders, yet they manage complex enterprises that do much more than teach the three Rs. Their ever-expanding portfolios now embrace such once-unlikely areas as driver education, career preparation, sex education, adult literacy, character education, before- and after-school care, technology training, guidance counseling, multiple social services, and managing inter-agency initiatives with local governments. Sorting these and others out has become a complex, time-devouring chore that all too often offers minimal rewards, little satisfaction, and no new respect. By and large, the demographics of district populations are still not reflected in school district leadership. The top-level berths of the district executive hierarchy are overwhelmingly held by white men in the latter half of their careers. Only about 12 percent of superintendents are women, and only five to ten percent of superintendents are nonwhite. The situation is a little better in school boards, where in 1997, 44 percent of all board members were women (a huge majority of them elected, not appointed), but fewer than ten percent were minority group members, according to data from the National School Boards Association (NSBA). The same source also documents that about 85 percent of all board members were over 40 years old, slightly older, on average, than board members of a decade earlier. About 75 percent held college degrees, and most had advanced degrees. The lack of diversity in the superintendency and on school boards will make it very difficult for school district organizations to sensitize themselves to significant cultural transformations occurring all around them.

### **1. Restructuring School District Leadership**

What little attention the problems of school district governance and leadership have received in the current era of highly publicized school reform has centered mostly on problem-plagued large urban systems. Yet an undeniable need exists to create and adapt strategies, styles and examples of effective leadership to meet the unique circumstances of all types of school districts. Across the country, school district leaders profess a desire to learn as much as they

can about the significant characteristics of successful leadership and of clearly defined arrangements that work.

## **2. Three Related Types of Leadership**

The discussions of the Task Force on School District Leadership yielded a broad consensus that the three often overlapping (and equally often complementary) kinds of leadership described here represent the range within which most school district leadership operates. A good leader should be able to use elements of all three.

## **3. Organizational Leadership**

The main leadership forces facing district leaders are organizational. Leaders must be able to establish expectations or norms of teaching and learning for administrators and teachers alike while building organizational systems to support them and maintaining a professional climate that encourages practitioners to continue to learn. Developing and managing the resources necessary to support the instructional system must be high-level priorities at all times. And holding professionals responsible for implementing quality instruction in classrooms and schools in order to reach desired goals is non-negotiable. How to do all this in school districts that vary widely in size, demographics, and quality of performance is and always will be among the thorniest dilemmas of school leadership, on a par with locating leaders with the capacity, expertise, and motivation to do the job.

## **4. Public Leadership**

Given the increasingly political nature of education and its very visible profile as a national issue, district leaders must recognize more clearly than ever before that their spotlighted role is occurring at a time when an explosion of information and popular debate is happening. Too many district leaders assume their posts embarrassingly uninformed about how to deal with this salient aspect of their job. Effective communication among board members, superintendents, district and school staff, as well as parents, students, and community members is not only essential, it can make the vital difference between success and failure. District leaders must be comfortable with managing media relations, public meetings and politically-inspired pressures, and they must be adept at developing both permanent and temporary coalitions with often disparate community groups. Without such abilities, even the

most professional stewardship of a districts affairs can come up short. It is not enough for school leaders to claim an awareness of these widely underrated facets of school leadership; good leaders are those who work ceaselessly to improve their skills as public personalities.

## **5. Instructional Leadership**

Establishing a clear vision for teaching and learning is the first critical step in planning by any school district. Around the objective of high achievement for all students are arrayed often incompatible goals, values, and strategies. The latter include equity and access for all students; creating safe, nurturing learning environments; providing educators with professional development opportunities (a chronically undervalued need) as well as resources on effective curriculum and practice; making effective use of instructional technologies, and using accountability measures to spur student improvement. Student learning provides the lens for focusing leadership priorities at all levels from the classroom and principals office to district and state-level leadership. But real learning seldom takes place without sensitive yet forceful guidance from those who fill education's leadership positions. Leaders who focus on the importance of developing high-performing organizations, enlightened public attitudes, and a realistic set of priorities. Today's leaders will have to review their existing organizations components to make sure they are aligned to support student performance and then determine whether reordering them is appropriate.

## **6. Non-Traditional Leadership**

Another kind of district leadership emphasizes administration and features collaborative relationships among new constellations of superintendents and other senior staff members who share the responsibilities which were traditionally handled by a single person. An example is the Chief Executive Officer/Chief Academic Officer (CEO/CAO) team leadership method in the schools of San Diego, where Superintendent Alan Bersin is the district's chief executive officer, tending mainly to issues of management, such as district politics, union relations and bond issues. Anthony Alvarado, the district's chancellor of instruction, acts as the district's chief academic officer, and controls virtually all matters relating to teaching and

learning. Though it is too early to declare this partnership a success, it appears to have promise.

Each leader Bersin, a former United States Attorney for southern California, and Alvarado, a former superintendent renowned for raising achievement in two New York City school districts plays a part tailored to capitalize on his strengths. As a result, the districts 180 schools are incorporating such major changes as the requirement that each principal spend two hours a day in classrooms helping teachers strengthen instruction. Chicago has taken a different approach to such distributed leadership. As in San Diego, leadership is divided between Paul Vallas, the chief executive officer, and Cozette Buckney, the chief education officer, though many people see this team as less a partnership and more a case of the chief executive delegating academic responsibilities to a senior staff member. Perhaps more intriguing, however, is the way Chicago school leadership is shared among a wider group of non-educators, including Mayor Richard Daley and his appointed Reform Board of Trustees. Neither Vallas nor Board Chair Gery Chico have educational backgrounds, but they do share a legacy: both were senior aides to Mayor Daley. Other variations of the team approach to district leadership can be found in Los Angeles, Seattle, and Philadelphia. In recent years, a small but growing number of school boards in large urban areas have been turning to non-traditional superintendents to spur their efforts at reform, and these newcomers are more likely to adopt a team or distributed leadership-type operational mode. New York City and San Diego have hired former corporate lawyers to serve as superintendents, while Los Angeles hired a former governor, and Seattle employed, consecutively, a former military officer and a former business executive. In Houston, the board went to one of its own, Rod Paige, a former school board member, now the U.S. Secretary of Education, who was also an education school dean. Once in office, Paige became a vigorous proponent of organizational development as a means to strengthening the districts schools. With the help of a state-of-the-art management training program, Houstons administrators have been put on private-sector-style contracts that link their jobs to performance indicators rather than tenure. Many nonacademic services are contracted out to private businesses to enable the district to focus more on its core competence, teaching and learning. Paige also decentralized management to place more authority and accountability at the school level. In the nearly seven years of Paiges administration, the proportion of Houston students passing the Texas Assessment of Academic Skills rose and the dropout rate fell, all while the share of low-income pupils grew.

**Topic : Cultural Analysis And Pluralism In Evidence Based Leadership**

**Topic Objective:**

At the end of this topic student would be able to develop learning regarding:

- Pluralist conception of power
- Partisan mutual adjustment
- Elite pluralism
- Neo-pluralism
- Conceptual framework
- Value of leadership development

**Definition/Overview:**

**Cultural pluralism:** Cultural pluralism is a term used when small groups within a larger society maintain their unique cultural identities. One of the most notable cultural pluralisms is the caste system, which is related to Hinduism and also the example of Lebanon where 18 different religious communities co-exist on a land of 10,452 km. In a pluralist culture, unique groups not only co-exist side by side, but also consider qualities of other groups as traits worth having in the dominant culture. The current contemporary art world in the 21st century is an example of cultural pluralism. For another example, a community center in the United States may offer classes in Indian yoga, Chinese calligraphy, and Latin salsa dancing. That community may also have one or more synagogues, mosques, mandirs, gurudwaras, and/or Buddhist temples, as well as several churches of various Christian denominations.

**Key Points:****1. Pluralist conception of power**

Pluralists emphasize that power is not a physical entity that individuals either have or do not have, but flows from a variety of different sources. Rather, people are powerful because they control various resources. Resources are assets that can be used to force others to do what one wants. Politicians become powerful because they command resources that people want or fear or respect. The list of possibilities is virtually endless: legal authority, money, prestige, skill, knowledge, charisma, legitimacy, free time, experience, celebrity, and public support. Pluralists also stress the differences between potential and actual power as it stands. Actual power means the ability to compel someone to do something; potential power refers to the

possibility of turning resources into actual power. Cash, one of many resources, is only a stack of bills until it is put to work. Martin Luther King Jr., for example, was certainly not a rich person. But by using resources such as his forceful personality, organizational skills, and especially the legitimacy of his cause, he had a greater impact on American politics than most wealthy people. A particular resource like money cannot automatically be equated with power because the resource can be used skillfully or clumsily, fully or partially, or not at all. The pluralist approach to the study of power, states that nothing categorical about power can be assumed in any community. The question then is not who runs a community, but if any group in fact does. To determine this, pluralists study specific outcomes. The reason for this is that they believe human behavior is governed in large part by inertia. That said, actual involvement in overt activity is a more valid marker of leadership than simply a reputation. Pluralists also believe that there is no one particular issue or point in time at which any group must assert itself to stay true to its own expressed values, but rather that there are a variety of issues and points at which this is possible. There are also costs involved in taking action at all not only losing, but expenditure of time and effort. While a structuralist may argue that power distributions have a rather permanent nature, this rationale says that power may in fact be tied to issues, which vary widely in duration. Also, instead of focusing on actors within a system, the emphasis is on the leadership roles itself. By studying these, it can be determined to what extent there is a power structure present in a society.

Three of the major tenets of the pluralist school are (1) resources and hence potential power are widely scattered throughout society; (2) at least some resources are available to nearly everyone; and (3) at any time the amount of potential power exceeds the amount of actual power. Finally, and perhaps most important, no one is all-powerful. An individual or group that is influential in one realm may be weak in another. Large military contractors certainly throw their weight around on defense matters, but how much sway do they have on agricultural or health policies? A measure of power, therefore, is its scope, or the range of areas where it is successfully applied. Pluralists believe that with few exceptions power holders usually have a relatively limited scope of influence.

For all these reasons power cannot be taken for granted. One has to observe it empirically in order to know who really governs. The best way to do this, pluralists believe, is to examine a wide range of specific decisions, noting who took which side and who ultimately won and lost. Only by keeping score on a variety of controversies can one begin to identify actual power holders. Pluralism was associated with behavioralism. A contradiction to pluralist power is often cited from the origin of one's power. Although certain groups may share

power, people within those groups set agendas, decide issues, and take on leadership roles through their own qualities. Some theorists argue that these qualities cannot be transferred, thus creating a system where elitism still exists. What this theory fails to take into account is the prospect of overcoming these qualities by garnering support from other groups. By aggregating power with other organizations, interest groups can over-power these non-transferable qualities. In this sense, political pluralism still applies to these aspects.

## **2. Partisan mutual adjustment**

Policy takes place in a crowded arena, and no group or political faction is powerful enough to dominate the others. Policy emerges as a compromise between the various interest groups. This brings along a specific rationale: each group adjusts its stance to take into consideration the others to promote stability, because even if a group loses out this time, this means it still retains the ability to fight another day.

## **3. Elite pluralism**

There were some objections to this model of pluralism. However, critics argue that groups need a high level of resources and the support of patrons to contend for influence. This observation formed the basis for elite pluralism. This modified pluralism account for elements of elite theory and was advanced by writers such as Elmer Eric Schattschneider who wrote that "The flaw in the pluralist heaven is that the heavenly chorus sings with a strong upper-class accent."

## **4. Neo-pluralism**

While Pluralism as a political theory of the state and policy formation gained its most traction during the 1950s and 1960s in America, some scholars argued that the theory was too simplistic (The Challenge to Pluralist Theory) - leading to the formulation of neo-pluralism. Views differed about the division of power in democratic society. Although neo-pluralism sees multiple pressure groups competing over political influence, the political agenda is biased towards corporate power. Neo-pluralism no longer sees the state as an umpire mediating and adjudicating between the demands of different interest groups, but as a relatively autonomous actor (with different departments) that forges and looks after its own (sectional) interests. Constitutional rules that in pluralism are embedded in a supportive political culture should be seen in the context of a diverse, and not necessarily supportive, political culture and a system of radically uneven economic sources. This diverse culture exists because of an uneven distribution of socioeconomic power. This creates possibilities

for some groups - while limiting others - in their political options. In the international realm, order is distorted by powerful multinational interests and dominant states, while in classical pluralism emphasis is put on stability by a framework of pluralist rules and free market society.

Charles E. Lindblom, who is seen as positing a strong neo-pluralist argument, still attributed primacy to the competition between interest groups in the policy process but recognized the disproportionate influence business interests have in the policy process. Classical pluralism was criticized as it did not seem to apply to Westminster-style democracies or the European context. This led to the development of corporatist theories. Corporatism is the idea that a few select interest groups are actually (often formally) involved in the policy formulation process, to the exclusion of the myriad other 'interest groups'. For example, trade unions and major sectoral business associations are often consulted about (if not the drivers of) specific policies. These policies often concern tripartite relations between workers, employers and the state, with a coordinating role for the latter. The state constructs a framework in which it can address the political and economic issues with these organized and centralized groups. In this view, parliament and party politics lose influence in the policy forming process.

### **5. Conceptual framework**

The proposed model for leadership development presented in this paper is based upon a clear set of assumptions and beliefs about educational leadership. This conceptual framework draws upon the evidence garnered through the ASAS, the ISPP, and BBL studies outlined above. It also utilizes the scholarly literature pertaining to educational leadership, professional development, and adult learning theory.

### **6. Value of leadership development**

Principals in the twenty-first century lead very different schools from those of previous generations. Schools are more complex, change is constant and increasingly rapid, public accountability is more overt, and society demands more from school graduates. As Peterson and Cosner stated [p]rincipals' daily work is characterized by brevity, variety, fragmentation, complexity, ambiguity, and uncertainty. Principals' roles encompass more diverse duties and expectations, ranging from instructional leader to financial manager to policy developer, decision maker, staff mediator and negotiator, and marketer. Most undergraduate programs prepare teachers to teach, not necessarily to lead, and yet teachers are generally the talent pool from which leaders are drawn. Hence, professional development opportunities must be provided for teachers aspiring or newly promoted to administrative and leadership opportunities.

In Section 2 of this course you will cover these topics:

- The Learning Community From An Evidence Based Approach
- Developing Best Practice Through Research
- Assessment And Interpreting Evidence

### **Topic : The Learning Community From An Evidence Based Approach**

#### **Topic Objective:**

At the end of this topic student would be able to develop learning regarding:

- History of Learning Community
- Learning Community Models
- Learning Community Approaches
- Professional Learning Community
- Educational community building

#### **Definition/Overview:**

A **learning community** is a group of people who share common values and beliefs, are actively engaged in learning together from each other. Such communities have become the template for a cohort-based, interdisciplinary approach to higher education. This is based on an advanced kind of educational or 'pedagogical' design.

#### **Key Points:**

##### **1. History of Learning Community**

In a summary of the history of the concept of learning communities, Wolff-Michael Roth and Lee Yew Jin suggest that until the early 1990s, and consistent with (until then) dominant Piagetian constructivist and information processing paradigms in education, the individual was seen as the "unit of instruction" and the focus of research. Roth and Lee claim this as watershed period when, influenced by the work of Jean Lave, and Lave and Etienne Wenger among others, researchers and practitioners switched to the idea that knowing and knowledgeability are better thought of as cultural practices that are exhibited by practitioners belonging to various communities. Roth and Lee claim that this led to forms of praxis

(learning and teaching designs implemented in the classroom, and influenced by these ideas) in which students were encouraged to share their ways of doing mathematics, history, science, etc. with each other. In other words, that children take part in the construction of consensual domains, and "participate in the negotiation and institutionalisation of ...meaning". In effect, they are participating in learning communities. Roth and Lee go on to analyse the contradictions inherent in this as a theoretically informed practice in education. Community psychologists such as McMillan and Chavis (1986) state that there are four key factors that defined a sense of community: (1) membership, (2) influence, (3) fulfillment of individuals needs and (4) shared events and emotional connections. So, the participants of learning community must feel some sense of loyalty and beyond to the group (membership) that drive their desire to keep working and helping others, also the things that the participant do in must affect what happened in the community, that means, an active and not just a reactive performance (influence). Besides a learning community must give the chance to the participants to meet particular needs (fulfillment) by expressing personal opinions, asking for help or specific information and share stories of events with particular issue included (emotional connections) emotional experiences. Learning communities are now fairly common to American colleges and universities, and are also found in the United Kingdom and Europe.

This analysis does not take account of the appearance of learning communities in the United States in the early 1980s. For example, The Evergreen State College, which is widely considered a pioneer in this area, established an intercollegiate learning community in 1984. In 1985, this same college established the Washington Center for Improving the Quality of Undergraduate Education, which focuses on collaborative education approaches, including learning communities as one of its centerpieces.

Learning communities began to gain popularity at other U.S. colleges and universities during the late 80s and throughout the 90s. The Washington Center's National Learning Commons Directory has over 250 learning community initiatives in colleges and universities throughout the nation.

## **2. Learning Community Models**

There are five basic nonresidential learning community models: (1) linked courses, (2) learning clusters, (3) freshmen interest groups, (4) federated learning communities, and (5) coordinated studies. Residential learning communities, or living-learning programs, range from theme-based halls on a college dormitory to degree-granting residential colleges. What

these programs share is the integration of academic content with daily interactions among students, faculty, and staff living and working in these programs.

### **3. Learning Community Approaches**

- Online learning community
- Intergenerational equity
- Youth/adult partnerships

### **4. Professional Learning Community**

A Professional Learning Community, or PLC is an extended learning opportunity to foster collaborative learning among colleagues within a particular work environment or field. It is often used in schools as a way to organize teachers into working groups. PLCs have many variations. In one definition PLCs "extend... classroom practice into the community; bringing community personnel into the school to enhance the curriculum and learning tasks for students; or engaging students, teachers, and administrators simultaneously in learning." Richard Dufour, a recognized national expert in PLCs, finds that "To create a professional learning community, focus on learning rather than on teaching, work collaboratively, and hold yourself accountable for results." The Ontario Ministry of Education defines a PLC as "a shared vision or running a school in which everyone can make a contribution, and staff are encouraged to collectively undertake activities and reflection in order to constantly improve their students performance."

The idea behind a PLC was to integrate two concepts that in the past, have been quite distinctive from each other; professional and community. Louis states that, professionalism is, "based on specialized knowledge and a focus on serving client needs"; whereas community is, "based on caring, support, and mutual responsibility within a group." A PLC is seen as an effective staff development team approach and a not so powerful strategy for school change and possible improvement. The idea of community is crucial to the success of PLCs. This is why mostly they fail; Public Schools have poorly developed communities. The PLC process should be a reflective process where both individual and community growth is achieved. Among the team there should be a shared vision of where they want the school to be. In his book *The Fifth Discipline*, Peter Senge comments on shared vision and states, The practice of shared vision involves the skills of unearthing shared pictures of the future that foster genuine commitment and enrolment rather than compliance. In mastering this

discipline, leaders learn the counter-productiveness of trying to dictate a vision, no matter how heartfelt (1990, p.9). Through this commitment and creation of a shared vision the team, including leaders and participants, becomes empowered to work together and achieve goals. PLCs are not effective when the team is being told what to do and does not collaborate. PLCs must be a joint venture for it is true that, "Top-down mandates and bottom-up energies need each other.". This process involves sharing diverse ideas and making compromises so that all members are satisfied with the direction in which the organization is moving.

### **5. Educational community building**

If schools are to be significantly more effective, they must break from the industrial model upon which they were created and embrace a new model that enables them to function as learning organizations. We prefer characterizing learning organizations as professional learning communities for several vital reasons. While the term organization suggests a partnership enhanced by efficiency, expediency, and mutual interests, community places greater emphasis on relationships, shared ideals, and a strong culture all factors that are critical to school improvement. The challenge for educators is to create a community of commitment a professional learning community. It sounds simple enough, but as the old adage warns, the devil is in the details.

In an educational setting a PLC may contain people from multiple levels of the organization who are collaboratively and continually working together for the betterment of the organization. Peter Senge believes "it is not longer sufficient to have one person learning for the organization." The idea that there is one main decision maker who controls the organization is not sufficient in today's school; all people within the community must work effectively towards common goals. A major principle of PLCs is that people learn more together than if they were on their own. The idea of team learning is an interesting concept that teachers work to promote in their classrooms but often do not practice in their professional lives. Senge suggests that when teams learn together there are beneficial results for the organization. It becomes the team, not the individual, that is viewed as the main learning unit. High-quality collaboration has become no less than an imperative.

Team learning builds upon personal mastery and shared vision. This involves creating a snapshot of what is important to both individuals and the school community. Although individuals are responsible for their own actions, feelings and opinions, it is the common good of the community that guides decision making.

It is important for leadership in the schools to establish and maintain PLCs. Successful PLCs will require a shift in the traditional leadership role from leader-centered (top-down) to shared leadership. Often, a top down leader will create the vision statement and then staff members will be encouraged to adhere to the goals outlined in the statement. Principals need to lead from the center rather than the top. The view of the principal as the instructional leader is changing to one that reflects the principals role within a community of learners and leaders. "The practice of shared vision involves the skills of unearthing shared pictures of the future that foster genuine commitment and enrolment rather than compliance. In mastering this discipline, leaders learn the counter-productiveness of trying to dictate a vision, no matter how heartfelt" Through this commitment and creation of a shared vision the team becomes empowered to work together and achieve goals. "Top-down mandates and bottom-up energies need each other." This process involves sharing diverse ideas and making compromises so that all people are satisfied with the direction in which the school is moving. As teachers capacity increases and they develop a feeling of success, they will better understand that when they ally their strengths and skills they are able to reach goals they could not reach on their own.

### **Topic : Developing Best Practice Through Research**

#### **Topic Objective:**

At the end of this topic student would be able to develop learning regarding:

- Usage of Best Practice
- Good operating practice
- Best Practice in Correlation with Benchmarking
- Benchmarking Procedure in Best Practice

#### **Definition/Overview:**

**Best Practice** is an idea that asserts that there is a technique, method, process, activity, incentive or reward that is more effective at delivering a particular outcome than any other technique, method, process, etc. The idea is that with proper processes, checks, and testing, a desired outcome can be delivered with fewer problems and unforeseen complications. Best practices can also be defined as the most efficient (least amount of effort) and effective (best

results) way of accomplishing a task, based on repeatable procedures that have proven themselves over time for large numbers of people.

### **Key Points:**

#### **1. Usage of Best Practice**

Best Practices are used in technology development, such as new software, but also in construction, transportation, business management, sustainable development, and various aspects of Project Management. Best practices are also used in healthcare to deliver high quality care that promotes best outcomes. Best Practices are used within any business type including, but not limited to: sales, manufacturing, teaching, programming software, road construction, health care, insurance, and accounting. Documenting and charting these procedures and practices is a complicated and time-consuming process often skipped by companies, even though they may practice the proper processes consistently.

Some consulting firms specialize in the area of Best Practice. Often "Best Practice" consulting firms offer pre-made 'templates' to standardize business process documentation. A key strategic talent is required to provide good "Best Practice" consulting to organizations: the ability to balance the uniqueness of an organization with practices it has in common with other organizations.

In many cases the cost of making modifications to a system or process which comes standard in a template or with a delivered computer application forces an organization into using "Best Practice". Often it is to the benefit of the organization. Sometimes a "Best Practice" will hurt an organization. Good "Best Practice" consulting firms can assist organizations in making decisions appropriate for the organization. Despite the need to improve on processes as times change and things evolve, Best Practice is considered by some as a business buzzword used to describe the process of developing and following a standard way of doing things that multiple organizations can use for management, policy, and especially software systems. As the term has become more popular, some organizations have begun using "best practices" to refer to what are in fact "rules," causing a linguistic drift in which a new term such as "good ideas" is needed to refer to what would previously have been called "best practices."

#### **2. Good operating practice**

Good operating practice is a strategic management term, usually capitalized. More specific uses of the term include Good Agricultural Practices, Good Manufacturing Practice, Good Laboratory Practice, Good Clinical Practice and Good Distribution Practice. Because of the

use of Best Practices as a buzzword, some people are asking if a better term could be found. This could be something such as Better Practices, or Current Thinking. The thinking is along these lines. The term Best Practices has implications of Finality, Obedience, Authority, and Universality. The term Best Practices implies that some source has the final answer to a matter in dispute or disarray. The matter is closed, decided, set and resolved. The term seems to seek better ways, which may even lead to tweaking the suggested practice to make it even better. It suggests that all of us together can come up with something better than any one of us can arrive at individually, and places authority in the community. The term may imply that the better practice is not universal, but depends on the specific situation.

### **3. Best Practice in Correlation with Benchmarking**

**Benchmarking** is the process of comparing the cost, time or quality of what one organization does against what another organization does. The result is often a business case for making changes in order to make improvements. Also referred to as "best practice benchmarking" or "process benchmarking", it is a process used in management and particularly strategic management, in which organizations evaluate various aspects of their processes in relation to best practice, usually within their own sector. This then allows organizations to develop plans on how to make improvements or adopt best practice, usually with the aim of increasing some aspect of performance. Benchmarking may be a one-off event, but is often treated as a continuous process in which organizations continually seek to challenge their practices.

### **4. Benchmarking Procedure in Best Practice**

There is no single benchmarking process that has been universally adopted. The wide appeal and acceptance of benchmarking has led to various benchmarking methodologies emerging. The most prominent methodology is the 12 stage methodology by Robert Camp (who wrote the first book on benchmarking in 1989). The 12 stage methodology consisted of 1. Select subject ahead 2. Define the process 3. Identify potential partners 4. Identify data sources 5. Collect data and select partners 6. Determine the gap 7. Establish process differences 8. Target future performance 9. Communicate 10. Adjust goal 11. Implement 12. Review/recalibrate.

The following is an example of a typical shorter version of the methodology:

- Identify your problem areas - Because benchmarking can be applied to any business process or function, a range of research techniques may be required. They include: informal conversations with customers, employees, or suppliers; exploratory research techniques such

as focus groups; or in-depth marketing research, quantitative research, surveys, questionnaires, re-engineering analysis, process mapping, quality control variance reports, or financial ratio analysis. Before embarking on comparison with other organizations it is essential that you know your own organization's function, processes; base lining performance provides a point against which improvement effort can be measured.

- Identify other industries that have similar processes - For instance if one were interested in improving hand offs in addiction treatment he/she would try to identify other fields that also have hand off challenges. These could include air traffic control, cell phone switching between towers, transfer of patients from surgery to recovery rooms.
- Identify organizations that are leaders in these areas - Look for the very best in any industry and in any country. Consult customers, suppliers, financial analysts, trade associations, and magazines to determine which companies are worthy of study.
- Survey companies for measures and practices - Companies target specific business processes using detailed surveys of measures and practices used to identify business process alternatives and leading companies. Surveys are typically masked to protect confidential data by neutral associations and consultants.
- Visit the "best practice" companies to identify leading edge practices - Companies typically agree to mutually exchange information beneficial to all parties in a benchmarking group and share the results within the group.
- Implement new and improved business practices - Take the leading edge practices and develop implementation plans which include identification of specific opportunities, funding the project and selling the ideas to the organization for the purpose of gaining demonstrated value from the process.

### **Topic : Assessment And Interpreting Evidence**

#### **Topic Objective:**

At the end of this topic student would be able to develop learning regarding:

- Nature of the Studies and Assessment
- Types of Assessment
- Standards of quality Assessment

- A Good Assessment
- High Stakes Testing Practices
- 21st Century Assessment

### Definition/Overview:

**Educational assessment** is the process of documenting, usually in measurable terms, knowledge, skills, attitudes and beliefs. Assessment can focus on the individual learner, the learning community (class, workshop, or other organized group of learners), the institution, or the educational system as a whole.

### Key Points:

#### 1. Nature of the Studies and Assessment

According to the Academic Exchange Quarterly: "Studies of a theoretical or empirical nature (including case studies, portfolio studies, exploratory, or experimental work) addressing the assessment of learner aptitude and preparation, motivation and learning styles, learning outcomes in achievement and satisfaction in different educational contexts are all welcome, as are studies addressing issues of measurable standards and benchmarks". It is important to notice that the final purposes and assessment practices in education depends on the theoretical framework of the practitioners and researchers, their assumptions and believes about the nature of human mind, the origin of knowledge and the process of learning. The following table summarizes the main theoretical frameworks behind almost all the theoretical and research work, and the instructional practices in education (one them being, of course, the practice of assessment). This different frameworks have given rise to interesting debates among scholars.

TOPICS	EMPIRICISM	RATIONALISM	SOCIOCULTURALISM
<b>Philosophical orientation</b>	Hume, British Empiricism	Kant, Descartes, Continental Rationalism	Hegel, Marx, Cultural Dialectic
<b>Metaphorical Orientation</b>	Mechanistic/Operation of a Machine or Computer	Organismic/Growth of a Plant	Contextualist/Examination of a Historical Event.
<b>Leading</b>	B. F. Skinner	Jean Piaget/Robbie	Lev Vygotsky, Luria,

<b>Theorists</b>	(behaviorism)/ Herb Simon, John Anderson, Robert Gagne (Cognitivism)	Case	Bruner/Alan Collins, Jim Greeno, Ann Brown, John Bransford
<b>Nature of Mind</b>	Initially blank device that detects patterns in the world and operates on them. Qualitatively identical to lower animals, but quantitatively superior.	Organ that evolved to acquire knowledge by making sense of the world. Uniquely human, qualitatively different from lower animals.	Unique among species for developing language, tools, and education.
<b>Nature of Knowledge</b> (epistemology)	Hierarchically organized associations that present an accurate but incomplete representation of the world. Assumes that the sum of the components of knowledge is the same as the whole. Because knowledge is accurately represented by components, one who demonstrates those components is presumed to know	General and/or specific cognitive and conceptual structures, constructed by the mind and according to rational criteria. Essentially these are the higher-level structures that are constructed to assimilate new info to existing structure and as the structures accommodate more new info. Knowledge is represented by ability to solve new problems.	Distributed across people, communities, and physical environment. Represents culture of community that continues to create it. To know means to be attuned to the constraints and affordances of systems in which activity occurs. Knowledge is represented in the regularities of successful activity.
<b>Nature of Learning</b> (the process by	Forming and strengthening cognitive or S-R associations.	Engaging in active process of making sense of	Increasing ability to participate in a particular community of practice.

which knowledge is increased or modified)	Generation of knowledge by (1) exposure to pattern, (2) efficiently recognizing and responding to pattern (3) recognizing patterns in other contexts.	(rationalizing) the environment. Mind applying existing structure to new experience to rationalize it. You dont really learn the components, only structures needed to deal with those components later.	Initiation into the life of a group, strengthening ability to participate by becoming attuned to constraints and affordances.
<b>Features of Authentic Assessment</b>	Assess knowledge components. Focus on mastery of many components and fluency. Use psychometrics to standardize.	Assess extended performance on new problems. Credit varieties of excellence.	Assess participation in inquiry and social practices of learning (e.g. portfolios, observations) Students should participate in assessment process. Assessments should be integrated into larger environment

## 2. Types of Assessment

The term assessment is generally used to refer to all activities teachers use to help students learn and to gauge student progress. Though the notion of assessment is generally more complicated than the following categories suggest, assessment is often divided for the sake of convenience using the following distinctions:

- formative and summative
- objective and subjective
- referencing (criterion-referenced, norm-referenced, and ipsative)
- informal and formal.

### 2.1 Formative and summative

Assessment is often divided into formative and summative categories for the purpose of considering different objectives for assessment practices.

Summative assessment is generally carried out at the end of a course or project. In an educational setting, summative assessments are typically used to assign students a course grade. Formative assessment - Formative assessment is generally carried out throughout a course or project. Formative assessment, also referred to as "educative assessment," is used to aid learning. In an educational setting, formative assessment might be a teacher (or peer) or the learner, providing feedback on a student's work, and would not necessarily be used for grading purposes.

Formative assessment is often referred to in a learning context as assessment of learning and assessment for learning respectively. Assessment of learning is generally summative in nature and intended to measure learning outcomes and report those outcomes to students, parents, and administrators. Assessment of learning generally occurs at the conclusion of a class, course, semester, or academic year. Assessment for learning is generally formative in nature and is used by teachers to consider approaches to teaching and next steps for individual learners and the class. A common form of formative assessment is diagnostic assessment. Diagnostic assessment measures a student's current knowledge and skills for the purpose of identifying a suitable program of learning. Self-assessment is a form of diagnostic assessment which involves students assessing themselves. Forward-looking assessment asks those being assessed to consider themselves in hypothetical future situations. Performance-based assessment is similar to summative assessment, as it focuses on achievement. It is often aligned with the standards-based education reform and outcomes-based education movement. Though ideally they are significantly different from a traditional multiple choice test, they are most commonly associated with standards-based assessment which use free-form responses to standard questions scored by human scorers on a standards-based scale, meeting, falling below, or exceeding a performance standard rather than being ranked on a curve. A well-defined task is identified and students are asked to create, produce, or do something, often in settings that involve real-world application of knowledge and skills. Proficiency is demonstrated by providing an extended response. Performance formats are further differentiated into products and performances. The performance may result in a product, such as a painting, portfolio, paper, or exhibition, or it may consist of a performance, such as a speech, athletic skill, musical recital, or reading.

## 2.2 Objective and subjective

Assessment (either summative or formative) is often categorized as either objective or subjective. Objective assessment is a form of questioning which has a single correct answer. Subjective assessment is a form of questioning which may have more than one correct answer (or more than one way of expressing the correct answer). There are various types of objective and subjective questions. Objective question types include true/false answers, multiple choice, multiple-response and matching questions. Subjective questions include extended-response questions and essays. Objective assessment is well suited to the increasingly popular computerized or online assessment format. Some have argued that the distinction between objective and subjective assessments is neither useful nor accurate because, in reality, there is no such thing as "objective" assessment. In fact, all assessments are created with inherent biases built into decisions about relevant subject matter and content, as well as cultural (class, ethnic, and gender) biases.

## 2.3 Bases of comparison

Test results can be compared against an established criterion, or against the performance of other students, or against previous performance: Criterion-referenced assessment, typically using a criterion-referenced test, as the name implies, occurs when candidates are measured against defined (and objective) criteria. Criterion-referenced assessment is often, but not always, used to establish a person's competence (whether s/he can do something). The best known example of criterion-referenced assessment is the driving test, when learner drivers are measured against a range of explicit criteria (such as Not endangering other road users). Norm-referenced assessment (colloquially known as "grading on the curve"), typically using a norm-referenced test, is not measured against defined criteria. This type of assessment is relative to the student body undertaking the assessment. It is effectively a way of comparing students. The IQ test is the best known example of norm-referenced assessment. Many entrance tests (to prestigious schools or universities) are norm-referenced, permitting a fixed proportion of students to pass (passing in this context means being accepted into the school or university rather than an explicit level of ability). This means that standards may vary from year to year, depending on the quality of the cohort; criterion-referenced assessment does not vary from year to year (unless the criteria change).

### **2.4 Informal and formal**

Assessment can be either formal or informal. Formal assessment usually implicates a written document, such as a test, quiz, or paper. A formal assessment is given a numerical score or grade based on student performance, whereas an informal assessment does not contribute to a student's final grade. An informal assessment usually occurs in a more casual manner and may include observation, inventories, checklists, rating scales, rubrics, performance and portfolio assessments, participation, peer and self evaluation, and discussion.

### **2.5 Internal and external**

Internal assessment is set and marked by the school (i.e. teachers). Students get the mark and feedback regarding the assessment. External assessment is set by the governing body, and is marked by non-biased personnel. With external assessment, students only receive a mark. Therefore, they have no idea how they actually performed (i.e. what bits they answered correctly.)

## **3. Standards of quality Assessment**

In general, high-quality assessments are considered those with a high level of reliability and validity. Approaches to reliability and validity vary, however.

### **3.1 Reliability**

Reliability relates to the consistency of an assessment. A reliable assessment is one which consistently achieves the same results with the same (or similar) cohort of students. Various factors affect reliability including ambiguous questions, too many options within a question paper, vague marking instructions and poorly trained markers.

### **3.2 Validity**

A valid assessment is one which measures what it is intended to measure. For example, it would not be valid to assess driving skills through a written test alone. A more valid way of assessing driving skills would be through a combination of tests that help determine what a driver knows, such as through a written test of driving knowledge, and what a driver is able to do, such as through a performance assessment of actual driving. Teachers frequently complain that some examinations do not properly assess the syllabus upon which the examination is based; they are, effectively, questioning the validity of the exam.

#### 4. A Good Assessment

A good assessment has both validity and reliability, plus the other quality attributes noted above for a specific context and purpose. In practice, an assessment is rarely totally valid or totally reliable. A ruler which is marked wrong will always give the same (wrong) measurements. It is very reliable, but not very valid. Asking random individuals to tell the time without looking at a clock or watch is sometimes used as an example of an assessment which is valid, but not reliable. The answers will vary between individuals, but the average answer is probably close to the actual time. In many fields, such as medical research, educational testing, and psychology, there will often be a trade-off between reliability and validity. A history test written for high validity will have many essay and fill-in-the-blank questions. It will be a good measure of mastery of the subject, but difficult to score completely accurately. A history test written for high reliability will be entirely multiple choice. It isn't as good at measuring knowledge of history, but can easily be scored with great precision. We may generalise from this. The more reliable is our estimate of what we purport to measure, the less certain we are that we are actually measuring that aspect of attainment. It is also important to note that there are at least thirteen sources of invalidity, which can be estimated for individual students in test situations. They never are. Perhaps this is because their social purpose demands the absence of any error, and validity errors are usually so high that they would destabilise the whole assessment industry.

It is well to distinguish between "subject-matter" validity and "predictive" validity. The former, used widely in education, predicts the score a student would get on a similar test but with different questions. The latter, used widely in the workplace, predicts performance. Thus, a subject-matter-valid test of knowledge of driving rules is appropriate while a predictively-valid test would assess whether the potential driver could follow those rules.

##### 4.1 Testing standards

In the field of psychometrics, the Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing place standards about validity and reliability, along with errors of measurement and related considerations under the general topic of test construction, evaluation and documentation. The second major topic covers standards related to fairness in testing, including fairness in testing and test use, the rights and responsibilities of test takers, testing individuals of diverse linguistic backgrounds, and testing individuals with disabilities. The third and final major topic covers standards related to testing applications, including the responsibilities of test users,

psychological testing and assessment, educational testing and assessment, testing in employment and credentialing, plus testing in program evaluation and public policy.

#### **4.2 Evaluation standards**

In the field of evaluation, and in particular educational evaluation, the Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation has published three sets of standards for evaluations. "The Personnel Evaluation Standards" was published in 1988, The Program Evaluation Standards (2nd edition) was published in 1994, and The Student Evaluation Standards was published in 2003. Each publication presents and elaborates a set of standards for use in a variety of educational settings. The standards provide guidelines for designing, implementing, assessing and improving the identified form of evaluation. Each of the standards has been placed in one of four fundamental categories to promote educational evaluations that are proper, useful, feasible, and accurate. In these sets of standards, validity and reliability considerations are covered under the accuracy topic. For example, the student accuracy standards help ensure that student evaluations will provide sound, accurate, and credible information about student learning and performance.

#### **4.3 Controversy**

Concerns over how best to apply assessment practices across public school systems have largely focused on questions about the use of high stakes testing and standardized tests, often used to gauge student progress, teacher quality, and school-, district-, or state-wide educational success.

### **5. High Stakes Testing Practices**

The assessments which have caused the most controversy in the US are the use of High school graduation examinations, which first appeared to support the defunct Certificate of Initial Mastery, which can be used to deny diplomas to students who do not meet high standards. They argue that one measure should not be the sole determinant of success or failure. Technical notes for standards based assessments such as Washington's WASL warn that such tests lack the reliability needed to use scores for individual decisions, yet the state legislature passed a law requiring that the WASL be used for just such a purpose. Others such as Washington State University's Don Orlich question the use of test items far beyond standard cognitive levels for testing ages, and the use of expensive, holistically graded tests to measure the quality of both the system and individuals for very large numbers of students.

High stakes tests, even when they do not invoke punishment, have been cited for causing sickness and anxiety in students and teachers, and narrowing the curriculum towards test preparation. In an exercise designed to make children comfortable about testing, a Spokane, Washington newspaper published a picture of a monster that feeds on fear when asked to draw a picture of what she thought of the state assessment. This, however is thought to be acceptable if it increases student learning outcomes. Standardized multiple choice tests do not conform to the latest education standards. Nevertheless, they are much less expensive, less prone to disagreement between scorers, and can be scored quickly enough to be returned before the end of the school year. Legislation such as No Child Left Behind also define failure if a school does not show improvement from year to year, even if the school is already successful. The use of IQ tests has been banned in some states for educational decisions, and norm referenced tests have been criticized for bias against minorities. Yet the use of standards based assessments to make high stakes decisions, with greatest impact falling on low-scoring ethnic groups, is widely supported by education officials because they show the achievement gap which is promised to be closed merely by implementing standards based education reform. Many states are currently using testing practices which have been condemned by dissenting education experts such as Fairtest and Alfie Kohn.

## **6. 21st Century Assessment**

It has been widely noted that with the emergence of social media and Web 2.0 technologies and mindsets, learning is increasingly collaborative and knowledge increasingly distributed across many members of a learning community. Traditional assessment practices, however, focus in large part on the individual and fail to account for knowledge-building and learning in context. As researchers in the field of assessment consider the cultural shifts that arise from the emergence of a more participatory culture, they will need to find new methods of applying assessments to learners. "

In Section 3 of this course you will cover these topics:

- Leading The Learning-Instructional Program
- Student Affairs: Leading The Pupil Services Program

### **Topic : Leading The Learning-Instructional Program**

#### **Topic Objective:**

At the end of this topic student would be able to develop learning regarding:

- History of Instructional Programs
- Cognitive load theory and the design of instruction
- Learning Design
- Instructional design models

### **Definition/Overview:**

**Instructional program Design:** Instructional program Design is the practice of creating instructional tools and content to help facilitate learning most effectively. The process consists broadly of determining the current state and needs of the learner, defining the end goal of instruction, and creating some "intervention" to assist in the transition. Ideally the process is informed by pedagogically tested theories of learning and may take place in student-only, teacher-led or community-based settings. The outcome of this instruction may be directly observable and scientifically measured or completely hidden and assumed. There are many Instructional program Design models but many are based on the ADDIE model with the phases analysis, design, development, implementation, and evaluation.

As a field, Instructional program Design is historically and traditionally rooted in cognitive and behavioral psychology. However, because it is not a regulated, well-understood field, the term 'Instructional program Design' has been co-opted by or confused with a variety of other ideologically-based and / or professional fields. Instructional program Design, for example, is not graphic design, although graphic design (from a cognitive perspective) could play an important role in Instructional program Design. Preparing instructional text by E. Misanchuk, Instructional-Design Theories and Models edited by Charles M. Reigeluth, and publications by James Hartley are useful in informing the distinction between Instructional program Design and graphic design.

### **Key Points:**

#### **1. History of Instructional Programs**

Much of the foundation of the field of instructional design was laid in World War II, when the U.S. military faced the need to rapidly train large numbers of people to perform complex technical tasks, from field-stripping a carbine to navigating across the ocean to building a bomber see "Training Within Industry (TWI)". Drawing on the research and theories of B.F.

Skinner on operant conditioning, training programs focused on observable behaviors. Tasks were broken down into subtasks, and each subtask treated as a separate learning goal. Training was designed to reward correct performance and remediate incorrect performance. Mastery was assumed to be possible for every learner, given enough repetition and feedback. After the war, the success of the wartime training model was replicated in business and industrial training, and to a lesser extent in the primary and secondary classroom. The approach is still common in the U.S. military.

In 1955 Benjamin Bloom published an influential taxonomy of what he termed the three domains of learning: Cognitive (what we know or think), Psychomotor (what we do, physically) and Affective (what we feel, or what attitudes we have). These taxonomies still influence the design of instruction.

During the latter half of the 20th century, learning theories began to be influenced by the growth of digital computers. In the 1970s, many instructional design theorists began to adopt an information-processing-based approach to the design of instruction. David Merrill for instance developed Component Display Theory (CDT), which concentrates on the means of presenting instructional materials (presentation techniques). Later in the 1980s and throughout the 1990s cognitive load theory began to find empirical support for a variety of presentation techniques.

## **2. Cognitive load theory and the design of instruction**

Cognitive load theory developed out of several empirical studies of learners, as they interacted with instructional materials. Sweller and his associates began to measure the effects of working memory load, and found that the format of instructional materials has a direct effect on the performance of the learners using those materials. While the media debates of the 1990s focused on the influences of media on learning, cognitive load effects were being documented in several journals. Rather than attempting to substantiate the use of media, these cognitive load learning effects provided an empirical basis for the use of instructional strategies. Mayer asked the instructional design community to reassess the media debate, to refocus their attention on what was most important learning. By the mid to late 1990s, Sweller and his associates had discovered several learning effects related to cognitive load and the design of instruction (e.g. the split attention effect, redundancy effect, and the worked-example effect). Later, other researchers like Richard Mayer began to attribute learning effects to cognitive load. Mayer and his associates soon developed a Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning.

In the past decade, cognitive load theory has begun to be internationally accepted and begun to revolutionize how practitioners of instructional design view instruction. Recently, human performance experts have even taken notice of cognitive load theory, and have begun to promote this theory base as the science of instruction, with instructional designers as the practitioners of this field. Finally Clark, Nguyen and Sweller published a textbook describing how Instructional Designers can promote efficient learning using evidence based guidelines of Cognitive load theory.

### **3. Learning Design**

The IMS Learning Design specification supports the use of a wide range of pedagogies in online learning. Rather than attempting to capture the specifics of many pedagogies, it does this by providing a generic and flexible language. This language is designed to enable many different pedagogies to be expressed. The approach has the advantage over alternatives in that only one set of learning design and runtime tools then need to be implemented in order to support the desired wide range of pedagogies. The language was originally developed at the Open University of the Netherlands (OUNL), after extensive examination and comparison of a wide range of pedagogical approaches and their associated learning activities, and several iterations of the developing language to obtain a good balance between generality and pedagogic expressiveness. A criticism of Learning Design theory is that learning is an outcome. While instructional theory Instructional Design focuses on outcomes, while properly accounting for a multi-variate context that can only be predictive, it acknowledges that (given the variabilities in human capability) a guarantee of reliable learning outcomes is improbable. We can only design instruction. We cannot design learning (an outcome). Automotive engineers can design a car that, under specific conditions, will achieve 50 miles per gallon. These engineers cannot guarantee that drivers of the cars they design will (or have the capability to) operate these vehicles according to the specific conditions prescribed. The former is the metaphor for instructional design. The latter is the metaphor for Learning Design.

### **4. Instructional design models**

#### **4.1 ADDIE model**

Perhaps the most common model used for creating instructional materials is the ADDIE Model. This acronym stands for the 5 phases contained in the model:

- o Analyze - analyze learner characteristics, task to be learned, etc.
- o Design - develop learning objectives, choose an instructional approach
- o Develop - create instructional or training materials
- o Implement - deliver or distribute the instructional materials
- o Evaluate - make sure the materials achieved the desired goals

Most of the current instructional design models are variations of the ADDIE model.

#### **4.2 Rapid prototyping**

A sometimes utilized adaptation to the ADDIE model is in a practice known as rapid prototyping. However, rapid prototyping is considered a somewhat simplistic type of model. At the heart of Instructional Design is the analysis phase. After you thoroughly conduct the analysis--you can then choose a model based on your findings. That is the area where most people get snagged--they simply do not do a thorough enough analysis. (Part of Article By Chris Bressi on LinkedIn) Proponents suggest that through an iterative process the verification of the design documents saves time and money by catching problems while they are still easy to fix. This approach is not novel to the design of instruction, but appears in many design-related domains including software design, architecture, transportation planning, product development, message design, user experience design, etc.

#### **4.3 Dick and Carey**

Another well-known instructional design model is The Dick and Carey Systems Approach Model. The model was originally published in 1978 by Walter Dick and Lou Carey in their book entitled The Systematic Design of Instruction. Dick and Carey made a significant contribution to the instructional design field by championing a systems view of instruction as opposed to viewing instruction as a sum of isolated parts. The model addresses instruction as an entire system, focusing on the interrelationship between context, content, learning and instruction. According to Dick and Carey, "Components such as the instructor, learners, materials, instructional activities, delivery system, and learning and performance environments interact with each other and work together to bring about the desired student learning outcomes".

The components of the Systems Approach Model, also known as the Dick and Carey Model, are as follows.

- o Identify Instructional Goal(s)
- o Conduct Instructional Analysis
- o Analyze Learners and Contexts
- o Write Performance Objectives
- o Develop Assessment Instruments
- o Develop Instructional Strategy
- o Develop and Select Instructional Materials
- o Design and Conduct Formative Evaluation of Instruction
- o Revise Instruction
- o Design and Conduct Summative Evaluation

With this model, components are executed iteratively and in parallel rather than linearly.

#### **4.4 Instructional Development Learning System (IDLS)**

Another instructional design model is the Instructional Development Learning System (IDLS). The model was originally published in 1970 by Peter J. Esseff, Ph.D. and Mary Sullivan Esseff, Ph.D. in their book entitled [IDLSPro Trainer 1: How to Design, Develop, and Validate Instructional Materials]. Peter (1968) & Mary (1972) Esseff both received their doctorates in Educational Technology from the Catholic University of America under the mentorship of Dr. Gabriel Ofiesh, a Founding Father of the Military Model mentioned above. Esseff and Esseff contributed synthesized existing theories to develop their approach to systematic design, "Instructional Development Learning System" (IDLS).

The components of the IDLS Model are:

- o Design a Task Analysis
- o Develop Criterion Tests and Performance Measures
- o Develop Interactive Instructional Materials
- o Validate the Interactive Instructional Materials

#### **4.5 Other models of Development Learning System**

Some other useful models of instructional design include: the Smith/Ragan Model, the Morrison/Ross/Kemp Model. Learning theories also play an important role in the design of instructional materials. Theories such as behaviorism, constructivism, social learning and cognitivism help shape and define the outcome of instructional materials

#### **Topic : Student Affairs: Leading The Pupil Services Program**

##### **Topic Objective:**

At the end of this topic student would be able to develop learning regarding:

- Student Affairs areas
- Enrollment Management areas
- History of Student Affairs
- Criticism and Professional Approaches regarding Student Affairs
- Preparation for Student Affairs work

##### **Definition/Overview:**

**Student affairs staff:** Student affairs staff is responsible for academic advising and support services delivery at colleges and universities in the United States and abroad. The chief student affairs officer at a college or university often reports directly to the chief executive of the institution. In addition to that, student affairs professionals are charged with the daily tasks of developing programs and researching techniques that benefit all students as a whole. Student affairs professionals incorporate the issues of diversity into their every day tasks and work with an array of students in such areas as campus activities, counseling, resources, etc. This department, like others within the higher education system, seeks to serve the needs of the student.

**Key Points:****1. Student Affairs areas**

The Student Affairs division of a university can include:

- Academic Advising: depending on the institution or the academic department within a college/university, advisors may fall under student affairs or academic affairs. While some advisors are faculty in the appropriate discipline and others are graduate students with an assistantship as an advisors, some advisors are degree-holding student affairs professionals.
- Community Service-Learning and Volunteerism: engages students in community service within the local community, often including national alternative spring break programs
- Commuter Services: provides services for students who do not live on the campus such as social programs and other opportunities these students are often perceived to miss or be unaware of due to their status as non-residents
- Graduate Student Services
- Living/Learning Programs in campus residence halls are almost exclusively joint ventures between student affairs--particularly residence life and academic departments or an overarching division for undergraduate education
- College Health Services: provides individual medical and/or mental health care to students to improve their physical and/or emotional health and serves as the public health arm of the university community. Health services at colleges and universities may include primary care medical services, counseling and psychological services, health promotion/health education services, disability services, and/or sexual violence prevention services--each of which provide a unique set of services and programs on campus.
- Health Promotion in Higher Education: works to support students by creating healthy learning environments. Based on a public health/population health model, health promotion services often coordinate primary prevention and secondary prevention on campus.
- International Student Services: assists incoming students with passport and visa issues in addition to providing programming and support for international students; this area may also report to Academic Affairs
- Leadership Development
- LGBT Campus Centers
- Fraternity & Sorority Life/Greek Affairs

- Multicultural Affairs: attempts to create an environment that integrates all students into campus life and furthermore, contributes to the effort to keep and grow minority enrollment. The department also tries to cultivate an atmosphere of acceptance on a given campus. At some universities, this area is separated and reports directly to the president.
- Orientation and First-year programming
- Disability Support Services
- Residential Facilities Management: or similar departments handle maintenance of on-campus housing, including emergency response and support
- Psychological counseling and Counseling Centers: fully accredited counselors staff most counseling centers on college and university centers, most institutions with graduate programs in counseling-related fields (including college student personnel) have graduate students who are required to complete a practicum in the counseling center, counseling and advising students
- Recreation and Intramurals: provides recreational activities and events for students, often including intramural sports, club sports, and outdoor activities (kayaking, mountain biking, hiking, etc.)
- Residence life, Residential education, or Housing: oversees programming and operations of campus residence halls
- Student Activities: provides co-curricular programming on campus, advises program boards and student governments, provides leadership development opportunities
- Student Development
- Judicial Affairs and Conduct: enforces community standards and campus codes of conduct.
- A Dean of Student Affairs: often a first administrative contact point when problems come up for a student
- Career Services
- Athletics can sometimes fall under student affairs, particularly on smaller campuses (often NCAA Division II or III).
- Public Safety or university police can also fall under student affairs.
- Public Transit Systems can fall under student affairs at some institutions

## **2. Enrollment Management areas**

The following areas traditionally either fall under student affairs or a separate area called Enrollment management:

- University and college admissions
- Financial Aid and the Bursar
- Student Learning Support and Retention
- Registrar (academic) / Academic Records
- Student Business Services

### **3. History of Student Affairs**

As early higher education in the United States was based on the Oxbridge model of education, most early institutions were residential colleges where the tutors lived in the halls with the students. These men were the precursor to student affairs professionals in the United States. The profession of student affairs came out of the first Dean of Men, created at Harvard University in 1870. LeBaron Russell Briggs was appointed as Dean of Men in charge of academic advising as well as disciplinary duties. This appointment took the day-to-day administration of student issues away from the president and gave it to an individual. In 1892, Alice Freeman Palmer at the University of Chicago became the first Dean of Women. In December 1918 Robert Rienow, the dean of men at the University of Iowa, wrote a letter to Thomas Arkle Clark, dean of men at the University of Illinois, suggesting a meeting that is now recognized as the founding of the organization now known as NASPA - Student Affairs Administrators in Higher Education. In 1924, May L. Cheney, who organized a teacher placement office at the University of California, Berkeley helped form the National Association of Appointment Secretaries (NAAS). That year, NAAS met for the first time and came as guests of the National Association of Deans of Women (NADW) to a convention sponsored by the Department Superintendence of the National Education Association. In 1929, forty-six NAAS members registered for the Sixth Annual Convention. NAAS became the National Association of Personnel and Placement Officers (NAPPO). The name American College Personnel Association (ACPA) was adopted in 1931. Association communication consisted of one mailed newsletter, the Personnel-O-Gram (P-O-G). In 1937, the Student Point of View statement was developed by leaders of the American Council on Education (ACE) and ACPA. The Student Personnel Points of View, written in 1937 and 1949, further developed the area of student affairs. In the 1970s the landscape of student affairs began to change when the voting age was lowered and 18 year olds were granted adult status in the eyes of the law. Recently, things have begun to change again as case law has begun to set a precedent that colleges and universities have a special relationship with their students which requires special duty under the law.

#### **4. Criticism and Professional Approaches regarding Student Affairs**

The "professional" trend in Student Affairs has been criticized for its emphasis on formal training. The degree to which available postgraduate programs actually represent a distinct discipline is a matter of debate. Some believe the field bears a resemblance to psychology, counseling, and other general concentrations which has called into question whether Student Affairs degrees are an example of "degree inflation" and whether students' vocational choices are limited by this specialization. Since most degree preparation programs now combine psychology, business, law, and counseling areas the first criticism is largely silenced, but has enhanced the concern with the limited options to those with degrees in Student Affairs.

The late liberal education critic Allan Bloom wrote that the "...idea of a separate 'Student Affairs' profession in academia is pure rubbish. It is fiction. The range of work involved requires a high school diploma on the low end and a PhD in psychology on the high end. The constituent disciplines (with their quality controls) already exist and can be readily applied to students. Breeching a new 'discipline' for this purpose is nothing more than professional egotism. I see it as a spasm of self-justification for a profession that largely lacks any scholarly work, past or present. This is the worst episode of academic cheapening I have witnessed. In a continuum ranging from Nuclear Physics to Romance Languages, 'student personnel' is almost certainly the most pathetic graduate field yet conceived. It is an embarrassment..." The lack of a universal process for dealing with student judicial proceedings (in contrast to the common law practiced across the land) has raised questions of how much of the profession should be dictated by individual colleges and universities and how much should be decided by federal or state law.

#### **5. Preparation for Student Affairs work**

Today, student affairs practitioners almost always have at least a masters degree. Most institutions require student affairs professionals to have earned a Masters degree in College Student Personnel, Educational Leadership, Higher Education Administration, College Counseling, Student Affairs Administration, or some other relevant discipline (e.g.: Human Resource Management, Organizational Psychology, Public Administration, etc.) as a prerequisite. A Doctor of Education (Ed.D.) or Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) degree in either higher education or another academic field are almost always required for senior student affairs officers. These degrees typically include course work on Student Development Theory, College and University Environments, Multicultural Competence, law, higher education finance, and the organization and functioning of colleges and universities.

In Section 4 of this course you will cover these topics:

- ' Financial Considerations In Evidence Based Leadership
- ' Human Resources Administration And Supervision In Evidence Based Leadership

### **Topic : Financial Considerations In Evidence Based Leadership**

#### **Topic Objective:**

At the end of this topic student would be able to develop learning regarding:

- Financial Considerations in Evidence Based Leadership
- The Context for Evidence-Based Leadership
- Evidence-Based Leadership in Action
- Creating an Evidence-Based Environment
- Gathering Internal Experience
- Applying and Integrating Learning into Strategy and Policy

#### **Definition/Overview:**

Many nations' governments are requiring schools to bring about significant, systematic, and sustained change to improve student outcomes in all settings, and have imposed mandates to ensure that schools are providing quality education and running efficiently and effectively. Consequently, national and state testing programs, standards-based agendas, and reporting methodologies have been imposed on schools with significant demands and, in many cases, demoralizing outcomes. As a result of these processes, test questions have become the curriculum; teacher judgment has become undervalued; and evidence that is ill-informed, outdated, and incorrect has been used to drive school change.

#### **Key Points:**

##### **1. Financial Considerations in Evidence Based Leadership**

Many school leaders have responded in good faith to the growing demands for evidence, spending days and weeks gathering data in the hope that they will create sustainable learning plans for individual students and gain adequate funding to run school programs. There are, however, serious disconnects between what is taught and observed in the classroom, and what is collected, categorized, and reported by the school. Evidence about practice that is

meant to inform and appease politicians and the public and the use of evidence in practice to improve teaching and learning quality rarely have been linked.

The most intelligent use of evidence is not after the event. Postmortems may establish the cause of death, but they cannot bring a corpse back to life. Yet, most uses of evidence in education-league tables, test scores, and school reports-have this after-the-fact characteristic. The challenge for leaders is to collect and report data and be able to internalize it at the right time for the right reasons for the right students. How organizations use evidence is connected integrally to how they create and manage knowledge-the knowledge of how to share practice, how to transfer it between people, how to alter and improve it, and how to explain and account for it to others. Evidence-based leadership links how evidence is used to how well the school operates and improves.

Principal Jenny Lewis at Noumea Primary School in Australia has identified and collected authentic and authoritative evidence and related it to learning as a means of improving organizational effectiveness and performance. As a result, Noumea staff members have become "skilled at creating, acquiring, and transferring knowledge, and at modifying behavior to reflect new knowledge and insights". The school community has built an evidence-based environment that promotes sustainability through innovative and informed Evidence-Based Leadership in Action-a reform that has become embedded in teachers' practices and the school's operations.

## **2. The Context for Evidence-Based Leadership**

Noumea Primary is a large public school (580 students) in a low socioeconomic area west of Sydney in the state of New South Wales. The student population is transitional with 43 percent of the students leaving and enrolling each year and 62 percent being of Polynesian or indigenous descent. Many families are now third and fourth generation unemployed. School staff members continually change as the principal encourages them to seek promotions in other schools after five years of service at Noumea. Newly appointed teachers fill these openings, meaning that 83 percent of staff members always are in their first five years of teaching. Until ten years ago, Noumeawas identified as a school at significant risk. Since then, Noumea has rebuilt itself as a learning organization, basing its reforms on knowledge creation and sharing.

Noumea was included in the top 25 (out of 2,200) government and nongovernment schools in New South Wales for outstanding improvement in basic skills mathematics in 2000. It was awarded the 1999 National Assessment Award and the 2000 State Literacy Award for its innovative structures and programs. The school received the 2003 Australian Capital

Territory Knowledge Management Platinum Award for school culture and technology development to enable organizational learning. At the national level, it received two 2003 National Quality Teaching Awards for leadership and achievement of mathematics outcomes through the use of technology. A nationally funded study dealing with literacy among boys found that teachers at Noumea used school and student data to design individual learning programs and developed innovative and exciting teaching tools to motivate their students to learn.

### **3. Evidence-Based Leadership in Action**

A key feature of Noumea's learning cycle is "visioning," both collectively and individually. Teachers' personal visions contribute to the school's collective vision by requiring deliberate dialogue, recognizing diverse value systems, listening carefully, and enthusiastically enriching everyone's professional values. Visioning has provided the focus for collecting evidence about the school's real work and its preferred future. Staff members regularly present their beliefs about Noumea in enjoyable activities, such as describing the school as a metaphor: "Noumea is like a roller coaster, many ups and downs and everyone traveling together having fun" and "Noumea is like a Pearl Jam concert: it rocks!" Staff members also use personal learning journals, which are shared in weekly team meetings, to reflect on their beliefs, practices, and challenges.

Evidence-based practice at Noumea is an integral part of its culture and organization. Visioning has enabled staff members to protect learning areas worthy of their focus and identify intrusions generated by age-old traditions and external agencies. For example, Noumea embraced outcomes-based education in curriculum documents in 1994 but felt that the research base lacked government strategy. Noumea, therefore, adopted a research base (Table 1) developed by Albert Mamary. Accepting this research base as the school's pedagogical position meant that standardized testing, half-yearly and yearly testing, and "flavor of the month" pedagogies pushed by particular areas in the government's education department were dismissed. Staff members' discussions determined that these dated processes provided little evidence and served no purpose in schools where curriculum outcomes were the centerpiece for validating student improvement. Traditional testing was viewed as having no value to teacher and parent knowledge. With parent permission, these testing approaches were removed. Instead, daily teacher judgments of student evidence became critical in

informing lesson preparation and student, teacher, and parent knowledge about student progress.

Staff members also looked at aligning organizational elements to implement school-based innovations around the school's vision. Difficult questions about shared leadership, teacher culture, communication channels, and participative processes were addressed, along with how students were grouped and resources were allocated. Distributive leadership was important in building a professional culture in which mutual trust, shared knowledge, and responsibility could thrive. Teachers are recognized as contributors to school and student improvement when they join the school. Within five to six weeks of their appointment, teachers are expected to accept at least one leadership role and share the school's real work. All teachers are provided an in-house mentor and professional partner (supervisor), as well as time to research, reflect on, and practice leadership with colleagues. Teachers also are encouraged and expected to:

- learn individually, in teams, and in larger communities of practice;
- participate in their school-based and external professional worlds;
- collaborate with school community members and colleagues who contribute to their learning in the external environment;
- cooperate and develop a common language and technology for documenting and discussing practice and desired outcomes; and
- be proactive in debate and activities about the moral purpose of the school.

Weekly staff meetings are dedicated to sharing information so that every teacher has full knowledge and can contribute to strategies for assuring and improving student learning and well-being. Teachers also have three hours of free time with a team of colleagues to analyze student data, complete action-research tasks, and investigate innovations that add value. Students' class data and work samples are regularly monitored, reviewed, and evaluated. The result has been a more consistent judgment of student performance and critical dialogue about issues and successes. Findings are shared at whole-school staff meetings so that solutions can be found for emerging problems before they reach crisis proportions. These analyses have debunked some unsubstantiated school myths. For example, there was a belief that Samoan and Tongan boys were violent, were not performing well in their schoolwork, and arrived at irregular times to school. Yet, when the data were reviewed collectively, it was found that white Anglo-Saxon boys were the most violent and the most at-

risk learners. Teachers then began to understand what previously had been ignored. Polynesian and indigenous students were supported by strong spiritual elders and large extended families. Their sense of family, religion, work ethic, and values was reflected in their support of school. Conversely, many white Anglo-Saxon boys had changed schools often, came from single-parent families, were isolated, and were third or fourth generation welfare recipients.

Another example was when Noumea staff members assumed that senior boys were the most violent. Data analysis showed that Year 1 and 2 boys were the most violent. Their smaller size and undeniable cuteness meant that teachers inconsistently applied disciplinary strategies. A behavior modification program was designed for smaller students, and consistent disciplines were reinforced. Information such as this has shown teachers that learning and disciplinary strategies must be based on evidence, otherwise significant time and resources are wasted and students can become targets of unjust treatment.

#### **4. Creating an Evidence-Based Environment**

In a true learning organization, the use of authentic evidence is key to sustaining growth. Both organizational and individual learning are promoted through capturing, packaging, and sharing knowledge among individuals in the organization. Noumea has connected all parts of the school so that members can share their knowledge, perspectives, and experiences about students and programs. The principal is responsible for ensuring that resources, professional support, and reflective time are adequate to sustain innovation. The processes to develop this knowledge and the continual valuing of evidence are detailed here.

#### **5. Gathering Internal Experience**

Early in Noumea's transformation, school leaders noted that the data the government system required them to gather did not provide adequate information about authentic student learning and well-being or give staff members enough facts to act upon. Teachers did not see relevance in standardized and state-based data and, consequently, did not feel compelled to use it in practice or improvement efforts. Staff members redesigned the processes for gathering data on student learning (e.g., curriculum standards, learning styles, and test data) and well-being (e.g., health, attendance, behavior). When analyzed, these processes provided qualitative and quantitative data that would:

- improve teacher judgments about student learning achievement;
- align assessment and learning experiences;
- provide a clearer focus on needed student improvements;

- improve curriculum implementation and continuity of learning experiences;
- improve accountability through the use of a common framework and language for monitoring student learning achievement;
- establish benchmarks from which teachers can work;
- establish a collaborative quality assurance climate within classrooms and across the school;
- facilitate monitoring of observed trends over time;
- provide diagnostic information on individual student progress to aid instructional decisions; and
- enable authentic participation in changing the school's culture.

Though spreadsheets, templates, and checklists provided a great deal of data, they placed high demands on teachers and took them away from the classroom activities that their data-driven efforts were meant to improve. Noumea needed a knowledge creation and management system that would help teachers and parents review data and pursue ongoing improvements and not interrupt the school's workflow. Ultimately, Noumea staff members developed a networked-based knowledge management system known as SchoolMate that combined all paper trails about a student into one integrated informational system.

SchoolMate fostered quick data entry and retrieval. Staff members' agreed-upon protocols ensured that data entry was consistent. Two networked workstations were positioned in every classroom so that qualitative and quantitative data could be entered quickly, using drop-down menus, checkpoints, batch-up date buttons, and accessible frames. SchoolMate fields are linked so that data entered in one area integrates with data in another area. For example, a teacher can review data about a student who has attended eight schools and had numerous absences, making him or her better informed about the reasons for low literacy and numeracy performance.

## **6. Applying and Integrating Learning into Strategy and Policy**

The value of knowledge management ultimately comes from people's ability to reuse evidence to work faster, shorten learning cycles, identify new opportunities, increase the quality of deliverables, and increase the volume of work on matters of priority. This process needs systemic and strategic support to operate effectively. At Noumea, the principal and middle management are responsible for ensuring that all teachers are supported in processing and interpreting evidence.

An important time for using data effectively is when students move from one teacher and class to another. All too often, though, except in cases of extreme learning problems or

behavioral difficulties, teachers disregard prior information about their students. They distrust other teachers' judgments, regard the data as unreliable, feel they have no time to review it, or want to give students a fresh start. These practices often lead to a lack of learning, repeated errors, and lost opportunities to work together to solve students' learning problems. At Noumea, however, evidence of student learning is critical to effective transition and continuity between teachers.

## **Topic : Human Resources Administration And Supervision In Evidence Based Leadership**

### **Topic Objective:**

At the end of this topic student would be able to develop learning regarding:

- Features of Modern Human Resource Administration
- Critical Academic Theory of Human Resource Administration
- Business practice of HR Administration

### **Definition/Overview:**

**Human resource management**(HRM) is the strategic and coherent approach to the management of an organization's most valued assets - the people working there who individually and collectively contribute to the achievement of the objectives of the business. The terms "human resource management" and "human resources" (HR) have largely replaced the term "personnel management" as a description of the processes involved in managing people in organizations. In simple sense, Human Resource Management(HRM) means employing people,developing their resources, utilizing maintaining and compensating their services in tune with the job and organizational requirement.

### **Key Points:**

#### **1. Features of Modern Human Resource Administration**

Its features include:

- Organizational management
- Personnel administration
- Personnel management
- Manpower management
- Industrial management

But these traditional expressions are becoming less common for the theoretical discipline. Sometimes even industrial relations and employee relations are confusingly listed as synonyms, although these normally refer to the relationship between management and workers and the behavior of workers in companies. The theoretical discipline is based primarily on the assumption that employees are individuals with varying goals and needs, and as such should not be thought of as basic business resources, such as trucks and filing cabinets. The field takes a positive view of workers, assuming that virtually all wish to contribute to the enterprise productively, and that the main obstacles to their endeavors are lack of knowledge, insufficient training, and failures of process. HRM is seen by practitioners in the field as a more innovative view of workplace management than the traditional approach. Its techniques force the managers of an enterprise to express their goals with specificity so that they can be understood and undertaken by the workforce, and to provide the resources needed for them to successfully accomplish their assignments. As such, HRM techniques, when properly practiced, are expressive of the goals and operating practices of the enterprise overall. HRM is also seen by many to have a key role in risk reduction within organizations.

## **2. Critical Academic Theory of Human Resource Administration**

Postmodernism plays an important part in Academic Theory and particularly in Critical Theory. Indeed Karen Legge in 'Human Resource Management: Rhetorics and Realities' poses the debate of whether HRM is a modernist project or a postmodern discourse. In many ways, critically or not, many writers contend that HRM itself is an attempt to move away from the modernist traditions of personnel (man as machine) towards a postmodernist view of HRM (man as individuals). Critiques include the notion that because 'Human' is the subject we should recognize that people are complex and that it is only through various discourses that we understand the world. Man is not Machine, no matter what attempts are made to change it i.e. Fordism / Taylorism, McDonaldisation (Modernism). Critical Theory also questions whether HRM is the pursuit of "attitudinal shaping" particularly when considering

empowerment, or perhaps more precisely pseudo-empowerment - as the critical perspective notes. Many critics note the move away from Man as Machine is often in many ways, more a Linguistic (discursive) move away than a real attempt to recognise the Human in Human Resource Management.

Critical Theory, in particular postmodernism (poststructuralism), recognizes that because the subject is people in the workplace, the subject is a complex one, and therefore simplistic notions of 'the best way' or a unitary perspectives on the subject are too simplistic. It also considers the complex subject of power, power games, and office politics. Power in the workplace is a vast and complex subject that cannot be easily defined. This leaves many critics to suggest that Management 'Gurus', consultants, 'best practice' and HR models are often overly simplistic, but in order to sell an idea, they are simplified, and often lead Management as a whole to fall into the trap of oversimplifying the relationship.

### **3. Business practice of HR Administration**

Human resources management comprises several processes. Together they are supposed to achieve the above mentioned goal. These processes can be performed in an HR department, but some tasks can also be outsourced or performed by line-managers or other departments.

- Workforce planning
- Recruitment (sometimes separated into attraction and selection)
- Induction and Orientation
- Skills management
- Training and development
- Personnel administration
- Compensation in wage or salary
- Time management
- Travel management (sometimes assigned to accounting rather than HRM)
- Payroll (sometimes assigned to accounting rather than HRM)
- Employee benefits administration
- Personnel cost planning
- Performance appraisal

In Section 5 of this course you will cover these topics:

- Ethical Considerations In Evidence Based Leadership
- Legal Considerations In Evidence Based Leadership

## **Topic : Ethical Considerations In Evidence Based Leadership**

### **Topic Objective:**

At the end of this topic student would be able to develop learning regarding:

Choose Your Leadership Values

Characteristics of a Successful Leadership Style

Ethical Leadership

Opposing Viewpoints

### **Definition/Overview:**

**Leadership Ethics:** Leaders know what they value. They also recognize the importance of ethical behavior. The best leaders exhibit both their values and their ethics in their leadership style and actions. Your leadership ethics and values should be visible because you live them in your actions every single day.

### **Key Points:**

#### **1. Choose Your Leadership Values**

The following are examples of values. You might use these as the starting point for discussing values within your organization: ambition, competency, individuality, equality, integrity, service, responsibility, accuracy, respect, dedication, diversity, improvement, enjoyment/fun, loyalty, credibility, honesty, innovativeness, teamwork, excellence, accountability, empowerment, quality, efficiency, dignity, collaboration, stewardship, empathy, accomplishment, courage, wisdom, independence, security, challenge, influence, learning, compassion, friendliness, discipline/order, generosity, persistency, optimism, dependability, flexibility As a leader, choose the values and the ethics that are most important to you, the values and ethics you believe in and that define your character. Then live them visibly every day at work. Living your values is one of the most powerful tools available to you to help you lead and influence others. Don't waste your best opportunity.

#### **2. Characteristics of a Successful Leadership Style**

Much is written about what makes successful leaders. I will focus on the characteristics,

traits and actions that, I believe, are key.

Choose to lead.

Be the person others choose to follow.

Provide vision for the future.

Provide inspiration.

Make other people feel important and appreciated.

Live your values. Behave ethically. (Current article - you are here.)

Set the pace through your expectations and example.

Establish an environment of continuous improvement.

Provide opportunities for people to grow, both personally and professionally.

Care and act with compassion.

Traditionally, the view of leadership has been that the main goal of leaders is to increase production and profits<sup>7</sup>. The traditional view of leadership is slowly diminishing, as more theorists are asserting that leaders also have the responsibility for ensuring standards of moral and ethical conduct. Good leadership refers not only to competence, but to ethics and transforming people as well. All leadership is responsible for influencing followers to perform an action, complete a task, or behave in a specific manner<sup>6</sup>. Effective leaders influence process, stimulate change in subordinates attitudes and values, augment followers self-efficacy beliefs, and foster the internalization of the leaders vision by utilizing strategies of empowerment<sup>6</sup>. It is believed that the nurturing aspect of leaders can raise organizational cultures and employee values to high levels of ethical concern<sup>6</sup>. Ethical leadership requires ethical leaders<sup>6</sup>. If leaders are ethical, they can ensure that ethical practices are carried out throughout organization.

### **3. Ethical Leadership**

Ethical leadership is leadership that is involved in leading in a manner that respects the rights and dignity of others. As leaders are by nature in a position of social power, ethical leadership focuses on how leaders use their social power in the decisions they make, actions they engage in and ways they influence others. Leaders who are ethical demonstrate a level of integrity that is important for stimulating a sense of leader trustworthiness, which is important for followers to accept the vision of the leader. These are critical and direct components to leading ethically. The character and integrity of the leader provide the basis for personal characteristics that direct a leaders ethical beliefs, values, and decisions<sup>7</sup>.

Individual values and beliefs impact the ethical decisions of leaders.

Leaders who are ethical are people-oriented, and also aware of how their decisions impact others, and use their social power to serve the greater good instead of self-serving interests. In ethical leadership it is important for the leader to consider how his or her decisions impact others. Motivating followers to put the needs or interests of the group ahead of their own is another quality of ethical leaders<sup>3</sup>. Motivating involves engaging others in an intellectual and emotional commitment between leaders and followers that makes both parties equally responsible in the pursuit of a common goal. These characteristics of ethical leaders are similar to inspirational motivation, which is a style component of transformational leadership. Inspirational motivation involves inspiring others to work towards the leaders vision for the group and to be committed to the group. Similarly, ethical leadership falls within the nexus of inspiring, stimulating, and visionary leader behaviors that make up transformational and charismatic leadership. Ethical leaders assist followers in gaining a sense of personal competence that allows them to be self-sufficient by encouraging and empowering them.

#### **4. Opposing Viewpoints**

Opposing perspectives surrounding ethical leadership exist. The perspectives of ethical leadership summarized above present a social learning view that involves role modeling and promotes normative and ethically appropriate conduct that is demonstrated in the decisions that leaders make. Contrasting perspectives focus on the leaders cognitions and actions, and assert that ethical leadership is demonstrated through multiple levels of psychological processes<sup>7</sup> that impact behavior and not social learning.

#### **Topic : Legal Considerations In Evidence Based Leadership**

##### **Topic Objective:**

At the end of this topic student would be able to develop learning regarding:

Legal Considerations on Economic Basis

Corruption: Its Forms And Causes

The Relationship of Business Curriculum development and Business Concepts development

##### **Definition/Overview:**

**Legal Considerations in Leadership:** The enjoyment of all regimes of rights is they economic, social and cultural or civil and political, is seriously undermined by the phenomenon of corruption. It is perhaps not necessary here to waste time on the definition of corruption; corruption nonetheless can be defined in a broad sense to reflect the very many dimensions that corrupt practices may take. It can be defined in a narrower context with specific focus on certain expressions of corruption, i.e. the fraudulent acquisition by individuals, or groups of individuals who take advantage of their privileged position in the national polity to enrich themselves, or the international dimension such as organized crimes and money-laundering, of huge sums of money generated through arms smuggling, drug trafficking, human trafficking, terrorism, etc.

**Key Points:**

**1. Legal Considerations on Economic Basis**

Economically, corruption leads to the inefficient allocation of resources, raises the cost of investment, decreases investors' confidence, promotes inequalities and inefficiencies in the private sector and raises the cost, and decreases the quality of, public-sector projects and services. Diversions of public funds into private pockets or bank accounts (whether foreign or local) by corrupt officials lead to the denial of rights, in particular economic, social and cultural rights. Corrupt public officials, having assumed their offices, usually overlook the shoddy executions of public projects with dire consequences. Invariably, there are often breakdowns of facilities; citizens' rights to adequate water supply, electricity supply, hospital needs, shelter, etc. are violated. Supplies of fake and sub standard drugs are commonplace in countries where endemic corruption subsists, leading to premature deaths, malformation of foetuses in pregnant women, etc.

Regrettably, many corrupt dictators in developing countries had stolen from their countries, even poor ones, only to invest such funds in developed societies that ask no questions about the origin of such funds which usually are known to them to be illicit. Equally worrisome has been the massive destruction of major institutions through corrupt practices. Developing countries are more adversely affected, as most institutions necessary for the building of a stable polity are not spared. The severely damaged bureaucracy and judiciary, incessant military incursions into the polity, politicized armed forces and police, de-robed legislature, distorted financial institutions and poor educational and health sectors are some of the fall-out of corrupt practices.

In many societies, bad leadership breeds corruption and poverty. Unfortunately, poverty itself induces corruption in the societies. Everywhere corruption is frowned at, yet, in many countries, corruption thrives, and becomes systemic or endemic; it becomes a way of life. In some it is blatant and crude; in others it may be refined and indeed camouflaged in public relations budgets. Whether open, endemic or systemic, blatant or polished, corruption has disastrous effects on society generally and on most vulnerable groups in particular.

Corruption creates poverty, which in turn engenders denial of economic, political, social, civil and cultural rights. This paper does not want corruption to be seen as a moral issue but rather as one that affects the very survival of people and their ability to enjoy fully the basic rights enshrined in the International Bill of Human Rights.

The genesis of funds of illicit origin is corruption. The events of 11 September 2001 have brought money-laundering and illicit money transfers to the forefront of global issues. First, let us attempt to understand the concept of funds of illicit origin, sometimes called "dirty money". The concept refers to funds laundered from bribes, kickbacks, drug trafficking, commodity smuggling, misappropriation of public funds by public officials, human trafficking and other transnational activities. Illicit funds could "belong" to individuals or organized criminal groups. The important point to note is that there is always a need to launder the proceeds of these illegal and corrupt practices. Illicit funds laundered are often employed to subvert national or international interests.

Left unchecked, illicit money can erode a nation's economy by changing the demand for cash, making interest and exchange rates more volatile and causing high inflation in countries where criminal elements are doing business. The corrupt practices of siphoning away of billions of dollars erode the concept of good governance and the rule of law.

Siphoning away of such monies by corrupt officials from the developing countries and illicit enrichments through organized crimes, regrettably, are always facilitated by the receiving States on the ground of bank secrecy laws. Since long-term foreign direct investment depends on stable conditions and good governance, funds of illicit origin can effectively close doors to foreign investment and long term growth, invariably impacting negatively on the enjoyment of human rights by the citizens of the affected country or countries.

## **2. Corruption: Its Forms And Causes**

It is possible to identify few interrelated forms of corrupt practices in many countries, though they may vary in intensity, depending on the country as well as during certain phases of national life such as military dictatorship, depression, war, etc. The following list of various

forms of corruption is by no means exhaustive.

The main causes of corruption can be summarized as follows:

Dictatorship and lack of democracy. Wherever there is a dictatorship, there would be neither transparency nor public accountability. This could explain how President Mobutu of the then Zaire could pay the entire export proceeds of his impoverished country into his personal bank account abroad, or how the late dictator Abacha of Nigeria could siphon off billions of United States dollars from the coffers of the Government of Nigeria into some bank accounts in the developed countries with devastating effect on the citizens;

Poor law enforcement. This makes it difficult to impose sanctions against corrupt practices.

A State whose law enforcement agents are infected by corrupt practices lacks the capacity for effective criminal investigations, judicial proceedings and physical enforcement of sanctions. There is the basic problem of maintaining law and order in such States;

Pervasive poverty. This contributes to corrupt behaviour in conditions of extremely low salaries and wages and high unemployment and the difficulty of physical survival. Servicing of debts, some bogus, supposedly owed by many developing countries invariably rob those countries of funds that would otherwise have been used to provide the basic necessities of life to the citizens. Each of these problems can prompt officials to misappropriate public funds and receive gratification in order to make both ends meet;

Morbid greed and materialism. Some have argued that the capitalist system panders to corruption; this however is debatable. The argument goes that corruption is partly due to the traditional practices of capitalism; and partly to its cherished values - accumulation, materialism, wealth, etc. In the developing countries that are on the periphery of the world capitalist system, accumulation takes the predominant form of "primitive accumulation of capital" by theft, looting, graft, expropriation, enslavement, etc. On account of this culture of primitive accumulation, even the Governments of these developing capitalist societies are not too eager to probe the sources of doubtful personal wealth. This promotes corruption with impunity, and the classical capitalist work ethics (the dignity of labour) is replaced by a debased and permissive get-rich-quick mentality;

Cultural backwardness and moral decay. At the aesthetic and spiritual level, corruption is a form of debasement. It reflects retardation in social development, a cultural backwardness, and an ethical fall or moral degradation. This lends credence to the general belief that pervasive corruption in any society is a very serious problem - a symptom of a fundamental

moral and cultural crisis. Corruption erodes societal values.

### **3. The Relationship of Business Curriculum development and Business Concepts development**

The Queensland Middle School Business Pre-publication Syllabus (2003) exemplifies a number of core business learning objectives. These broad learning objectives promote development of Business and Economic systems, Informational Enterprise and Ventures, and the Work Environment. Application of De Cecco's (1968) Model of concept development and Tyler's (1949) approach to curriculum and concept development provides the theoretical structure for the definition of key business learning concepts.

De Cecco's Model of concept development emphasizes the three main processes involved in the development and facilitation of concepts. The first is where the educator defines the expected performance of the student. The second is the reduction of the number of complex attributes of the concept into more manageable pieces, and the third is the provision of clear visual and verbal associations. Tyler's model supports teacher directed facilitation, while emphasizing student awareness of the purpose of learning. Tyler's curriculum and concept planning principles suggest developing curriculum that initiate from tentative objectives towards the application of the Philosophy of Education and the Psychology of Learning. The Philosophy of Education will be applied to the identification and facilitation of three business concepts. The Psychology of Learning establishes the attributes of business concepts that direct the student towards a process of lifelong learning. Tyler's Philosophy of Education provides a rationale for defining key concepts from broad objectives. Tyler's Philosophy of Education is this process of combining societies, schools, classes, and teacher's ideologies and value systems and applying these to the development of effective learning environments.

The application of Tyler's principles suggests four key ideas in developing curricula. Principle one is determining which educational goal the teacher/class/school should seek to attain. Principle two is the selection of learning experiences which are likely to meet the above objectives. Principle three is to organise the learning experiences for instruction and principle four is the evaluation of the effectiveness of learning.

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