

Christos Saitis · Anna Saiti

Initiation of Educators into Educational Management Secrets

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Dedicated to Valya

Preface

It is generally accepted that in educational management the role of the school head is crucially significant. The significance of the role is attributed to the position of the educational hierarchy and the functions of its position. Theoretically, the position of the school head is at the managerial bottom of the national organizational structure for education. However, this position is linked directly to the communicative role of the school head between the upper educational managers and their subordinates. Each programme of educational policy is created centrally, at the top of the administrative pyramid, and is then filtered through to all schools via school management. It is “coloured” by the psychological attitudes and abilities of the school head in order to be realistic. Ultimately, the degree of success of an educational change (and more generally the achievement of a school’s aims) depends on the selection and appointment of effective educational managers in school units. Indeed, in an appropriately organized educational system, the school head has the main role in managing human resources. Furthermore, no matter how rationally a communication and organization system is designed, it cannot fulfil the desired outcome without appointing the role of school head to appropriate people. In order for educational leaders to be successful in their work, they have to be appropriately trained. In other words, educational leaders at all hierarchical levels of educational management have to be equipped with the necessary administrative skills to a degree that will lead them to comprehensively examine a problem that has to be solved.

This book is useful for university students, educational practitioners and educational leaders since it addresses a wide range of issues and proposes a simple method for learning modern management techniques. The book includes case studies and solving techniques of different managerial problems to help members of the educational community improve their abilities in matters such as taking effective decisions, time management, conflict management and oral communication. More broadly, this book could also be a valuable tool for the employee of any organization, whether private or public.

This book is divided into chapters that cover basic issues of educational management:

- Chapter 1 examines the meaning and the functions of school management. It also refers to the field of school leadership.
- Chapter 2 analyses the meaning and content of the management's role in planning/programming with a special report on strategic planning. It then addresses time management techniques.
- Chapter 3 investigates the meaning and content of the decision-making process. It also analyses the term "problem" and presents various ways of solving a problem.
- Chapter 4 addresses the nature of managerial work with emphasis on the basic dimensions of exercising school leadership.
- Chapter 5 presents and analyses the meaning of communication with emphasis on oral communication and the development of good relations in the school working environment.
- Chapter 6 examines the phenomenon of conflicts and complaints in the school working environment and presents conflict management techniques.
- Chapter 7 focuses on issues regarding collective management (e.g. rules governing the functions of the teaching council, informal groups at schools, etc.) in school units.
- Chapter 8 discusses the leadership dimensions of school leadership with an emphasis on the motivation and monitoring of teaching staff.
- Chapter 9 presents and analyses the function of control in the field of education. Furthermore, it comprehensively examines the appraisal of educational work.
- Chapter 10 addresses crisis management in school units and presents a plan for confronting unpleasant situations in specific units.

Athens, Greece

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Chapter 1

Basic Dimensions of School Leadership

Abstract Over the last few decades, there has been much research into school effectiveness showing that the role of the school leader significantly influences the effectiveness of school performance. The significance of the school leader's role stems from their position within the educational hierarchy and their duties. While, in theory, this position is at the bottom of such a hierarchy, it nevertheless plays a key communicative role between the upper and the lower leadership levels. Each program of educational policy created by the central administration is filtered by the school leadership. Therefore, the implementation of the educational program within individual schools is very much influenced by the abilities and psychology of the school leader. Indeed, in an appropriately organized educational system, the school leader plays the most serious and significant role in managing the human factor.

This chapter is an introduction to the science and practice of school leadership. In particular, this chapter:

- Examines in brief the meaning, the significance and the functions of management within the school environment
- Determines the significance of management as an art and as a science
- Briefly presents the historical development of management thought
- Describes the basic principles of management that can determine the strategy of an educational leader
- Outlines the factors that make lifelong learning a necessity for educational leaders

Key Chapter Concepts

- Educational management includes a number of actions that aim to use in a rational way all the available personnel and material resources for the realization of targets and aims in the best possible way.
- Management is a science since it is based on certain principles and uses scientific approaches; at the same time, it is an art since, for those who

(continued)

exercise management, it gives them the opportunity to be flexible and to take the initiative.

- The terms “management” and “execution” are not the same simply because they are two different actions.
- In order for a school director (or head) to be effective in the way they exercise their duties, they should not rely exclusively on the power of their position. On the contrary, they need to perceive what factors influence staff members’ behaviour and be able to offer them the incentives necessary to motivate them in their roles and develop positive interpersonal relations.
- In order for an educator to be an effective school director (or head), they should acquire the appropriate knowledge and actively engage in exercising managerial duties in order to accumulate the necessary skills (i.e. “learning by doing”).

1.1 The Meaning of School Leadership

Every school unit is a social organization or a social system that is created to serve specific purposes and aims to achieve desired outcomes. Different factors have been identified that contribute to the materialization of school units’ aims. These factors are:

- Human (educators, administrative staff, etc.), with its work and knowledge
- Material, e.g. books, photocopying machines, etc.
- Space (e.g. teaching classes, schoolyard) where work and recreation take place
- Time (as regards the academic year) during which the best possible result has to be achieved

The above factors are combined, structured and activated through the process of management so as to reliably achieve their aim—the effective functioning of the educational unit. Hence, management constitutes a group of activities that are necessary for the achievement of specific tasks.

In the past, there have been different definitions of the term “management”. Consequently, it is difficult to find a common agreement among researchers in management science for its definition.

In a more general perspective, Anderson et al. (2015) defines management as “an approach to decision making based on scientific method, makes extensive use of quantitative analysis” (p. 2). Within this framework Taylor (2010) considers management science as “an application of a scientific approach to solving management problems in order to help managers make better decisions” (p. 2), while according to Schermerhorn (2011), the management process is planning, organizing, leading and controlling the use of resources to accomplish performance goals (p. 16).

According to another definition, management is “the process of achieving organizational activities, within a changing environment, by balancing efficiency, effectiveness and equity, obtaining the most from limited resources and through other people” (Naylor, 1999, p. 6).

There are also researchers who perceive management as (Kotter, 2012) “a set of processes that can keep a complicated system of people and technology running smoothly” (p. 28) or as (Eyre, 1989) “the art or skill of directing human and material resources in the attainment of a specific goal or goals” (p. 11) or as Papa, English, Davidson, Culver, and Brown (2013) “. . . politics, politics, politics. Politics is the art of influence and the means to extend that influence in the various work realms of the school” (p. 4).

In this analysis, we can define educational management as a system of actions that consist of the rational use of the available resources—human and material—for the realization of the aims that the different types of educational organizations strive to achieve.

1.2 The Significance of School Leadership

Social organizations (schools included) have a mission and a set of goals that justify their existence and consequently their function (Bush, 1995; Bush & Bell, 2002; Kotter, 2012; Papa et al., 2013; Saiti & Saitis, 2012a, 2012b). In addition, the functions of a formal organization can be distinguished into two basic categories: productive (those who focus their activities on the production or supply of goods) and supplementary (those who secure the existence of the first category).

In the case of educational units, for example, the cognitive (learning) function that contributes to the transfer of knowledge and skills to students and the pedagogical function that shapes values, attitudes and learning behaviour belong to the first category. In contrast, the managerial function belongs to the second category since school leadership, through its services in support of education, ensures the realization of a variety of school goals. For example, school units of primary and secondary education pursue different purposes. However, they all strive for the harmonious and balanced development of students—for their overall physical, spiritual and mental well-being.

In order for those purposes to be fulfilled, humans (educators, students, etc.) and material resources (maps, Projectors, etc.) are certainly necessary but not enough. The appropriate use of the administrative function is additionally required. To this end, management creates analytical school programs and also coordinates the efforts of human resources and the use of material resources while developing efficient criteria and control systems for the effective performance of schools.

At this point it should be emphasized that school management not only refers to educational leaders but also to “classroom managers” (classroom management). The term “classroom management” implies the creation of a secure and interesting educational environment. It requires a combination of traits such as educators’

personality as well as their ability to shape professional attitudes and conduct professional roles. At the same time, it is linked with a wide range of activities that are executed by the class educator (Marzano, Marzano, & Pickering, 2003; Watkins & Wagner, 2000; Wragg, 2001) such as:

- Management of the materials (e.g. computers)
- Time and space management (e.g. allocating lessons to classrooms, defining the start and end of a didactical hour)
- Choice of strategic teaching and learning, including the management of students' behaviour, their security and health
- Communication with parents, colleagues, etc.

From the above description of an educator's activities, it seems that their management functions also readily apply to the organization and function of a school class. This allows us to perceive every educator as a leader in their class or department (Everard, Morris, & Wilson, 2004).

Based on the above and considering that (a) "effective classroom management is a crucial element in effective teaching" (Marzano et al., 2003, p. 4), (b) "...designing and implementing rules and procedures in class and even at home has a profound impact on student behavior and on student learning" (Marzano et al., 2003, p. 16), (c) "classroom management is an important element of pre-service teacher training and in-service teacher behavior. . .while the maximized allocation of time instruction, arrangement of instructional activities to maximize academic engagement and achievement (Simonsen, Fairbanks, Briesch, Myers, & Sugai, 2008, p. 351) and (d) many educators after some years of experience undertake managerial duties in school units, and then the significance of management in the field of education becomes clear.

1.3 Is Management Art or Science?

Managers in an organization, whether public or private, can use many working methods to attain their goals. Good practices in management can be characterized as those which are ruled by the principles of science and result in positive outcomes.

But this does raise the question: is management an art or a science?

In practice, scientific working methods often do not lead to the results expected. For example, in order to build a school, the basic aim may be defined and a rational plan of action prepared as to how, when and where the plan will be executed and who will execute it. However, at the implementation stage, there may be a substantial deviation from the predefined project deadlines, budget and quality of the building structure. Why? Well, anyone can make predictions based on theory and hypothesis. In practice however, actual costs and time frames may differ due to the complexity and variability of human behaviour. For example, in the case of a construction company, employees may not be performing according to their abilities for different reasons. This simple example can lead us to conclude that the

completion of a project does not only depend on the rational and scientific methods of the various actions but that it is also necessary to secure the willing cooperation of the human resources—an organization/cooperation based more on the human skills of the managers and less on scientific criteria.

Based on the above, we may support the view that management is both science and art. Science, is because it consists of principles and uses scientific approaches, and art, because it provides those who exercise it with a degree of flexibility and innovation (Bush, 2008; Fullan, 2006; Georges, Efthimiadou, & Tsytos, 1998; Harris, 2005, 2010; Koontz, O'Donnell, & Weihrich, 1982; Papa et al., 2013; Saiti, 2010).

1.4 “Management” Differs from “Execution”

A formal organization consists of various people, some of whom have managerial responsibilities towards planning, organizing, managing and controlling the actions of the organization which they serve. Others are subordinates who execute the orders of their superiors. In the first case, managers accomplish their task by laying out the policy of the organization (e.g. planning actions, responsibility, etc.). By contrast, the subordinates fulfil their tasks out of their obligation to execute the orders of their superiors (Bush, 1995; Bush & Bell, 2002; Papa et al., 2013; Saiti & Menon Eliophotou, 2009; Williams & Johnson, 2004).

On a daily basis, in a school environment, the school head plans their own work and is responsible for the organizing and functioning of the school and for monitoring all actions of the educators. On the other hand, educators execute (beyond their didactical work) all the legal instructions of their head.

From the above, it is clear that management fulfils a special role and coincides with the duty/project of the manager. In summary, the school head accomplishes a task, whereas the educator executes the orders received from the head and is an executing organ. Consequently, we may say that “management” and “execution” do not have the same meaning simply because they are two distinct actions with differing levels of responsibility and accountability.

1.5 Management Functions

With reference to the number and ranking of duties/functions of a manager, there has been little agreement between the theorists of the organizational sciences (Dubrin, 1997; Fayol, 1949; Gulick & Urwick, 1937; Hytiris, 2006; Kotter, 2012; Salavou, 2013; Schermerhorn, 2010; etc.). However, in this book, we will focus on the five basic functions of the duties of managers, namely, planning, decision-making, organizing, leadership and control.

Planning

Planning is one of the basic functions of a manager. It is directly connected with predicting future circumstances and making decisions accordingly; out of all the managerial duties, it is the first priority for a manager. It is an inherent rule of every personal or collective approach since it demands answers to the following questions: “what will happen?”, “when will it happen?”, “where will it happen?”, “how will it happen?” and “who will do it?” The outcome of planning is the plan—an activity map based on the results of different types of predictions that will determine the timing and processes of the project which the organization must follow in order to achieve specific goals.

Decision-Making

Managerial leaders of an organization make decisions on every activity. For example, when the planning manager wants to determine a plan, they make decisions on the objectives, their strategy(ies) and the cost of implementing the plan. We may therefore consider that decision-making is not only one of the most important managerial duties but is also the function that links all the other functions. It is possible to “interlace” decision-making in all other managerial functions and thus to convince many researchers in the field not to consider it as a separate managerial function.

Organizing

Organizing, as a managerial function, is the structuring of the internal framework of an organization in which all activities take place towards the achievement of the planned goals. In particular, this managerial function includes:

- The creation of a formal role/structure through the distribution of work in different activities that are related with the nature of the work
- The set of activities that help clarify the different roles that each staff member will play in the execution of the predetermined work
- The assignment of appropriate powers to the heads of department that will enable them to execute their mission in the most effective way

Directing (Leadership)

Direction, as a managerial function, includes all managerial actions that directly relate to the management of human resources in a formal organization. In particular, direction refers to:

- Staffing, finding the appropriate people that will staff specific activities
- Systematic training of all employees of the organization so as to develop their abilities and knowledge
- Motivation of employees to achieve their goals
- Monitoring, namely, providing direction for the supervision of work
- Communication between managers and subordinates.

Controlling

Control function includes the measuring of real outcomes and comparing them with those originally planned. From these measurements, any inadequacy of the initial

decision-making becomes evident, and those managers who are responsible for organization reconsider the original plan and propose appropriate changes so as to realign the progress more closely with the intended result. The control is exercised over people, things and actions at all hierarchical levels, and its mission is threefold:

- Regular: this refers to the evaluation of the current situation of the organization.
- Confirmatory: this refers to the induction of rewards or punishments (depending on the deviation between real and expected progress and the causes).
- Creative: this consists of taking measures that contribute to the further improvement of the effectiveness of current activities.

1.6 Historical Development of Management Science

Development in Managerial Thinking

Historically, management science was founded at the end of the nineteenth century, giving us a framework for the first theoretical and applied scientific principles in the field. However, many general principles of organizational science were considered many centuries ago, in ancient Greek history, in fact, without fully establishing a scientific foundation or determining the principles of organization management.

During the twentieth century, many theories were developed according to different schools or approaches. It is worth noting that perceptions of management scientists differ across the various schools of thought, since many scientists (e.g. Dubrin, 1997; Theophilidis, 1994) talk about three major schools, whereas others (e.g. Zevgaridis, 1973) mention four and others still (e.g. Naylor, 1999) refer to five. This differentiation can be attributed to the fact that not all scientists use the same ranking criteria of the theoretical approaches in management, e.g. according to content or time development.

For the purpose of this book, we should briefly mention the most representative trends in management thought on organization which are the classical approach, the neoclassical approach or the approach of human behaviour and the modern approach.

Classical Approach

In the first decade of the twentieth century, the American engineer Fr. Taylor and his colleagues Fr. Gilbreth and H. Canff lay the foundations for organizational science. The central point of the Taylor theory is the rational organizing that is succeeded by the principle of work distribution (March & Simon, 1958, pp. 79–91). For this reason, Taylor noticed the need to study work that shows the scientific calculation of movement and time, aimed at specialization and the economy of strength and time. The Taylor model is known as “scientific management”, and it is based on the following principles:

- Implementation of science for each step of human work
- Choice of the best person for each specialized work and then training and implementation of theoretical knowledge so as to execute work in the best possible way
- Development of a cooperative spirit between superiors and subordinates for the execution of different activities
- Division of work among the management and workers of an organization and the balanced distribution of responsibility between the two sides

It is worth noting that the Taylor model has been judged negatively by fans of the human behaviour approach (such as C. Barnard, D. McGregor, Ch. Argyris, etc.): they support the view that Taylor's model does not personify human beings and is therefore outdated since it does not recognize human-specific problems that influence the efficiency of employees. While Taylor was devoting himself to ways of transferring the general organization principles of scientific work, a French theorist, H. Fayol, was writing his views about the management of formal organization.

Fayol (1949), contrary to Taylor, put emphasis on the rational work of organization and focused on the development of a theory as to how managers can execute their duties effectively regarding organization. Although Fayol (1949) advocated that there was no limit to the number of principles, Table 1.1 summarizes some of the general principles of classical management theory that are crucially important, even today.

Other scientists who made key contributions to the development of the classical school include:

- Max Weber, who studied old organizing systems (e.g. Catholic Church) in a systematic way, developed the theory of power structure and described a bureaucratic model of organization that consists of the specialization of work, a defined hierarchy of power, formal rules and processes, impersonal interactions and the selection and justified promotion of employees (Dougherty & Corse, 1996; Macrydimitris, 1986, 2004; Mullins, 1996, 2007; Naylor, 1999; Saiti, 2009; Simkins, 2000; Weber, 1947).
- L.F. Urwick, who put emphasis on specialization and proposed, among other things, the principle of "definition" according to which power should be defined with sufficiency and preferably written (Zevgaridis, 1973, pp. 57–60).

To conclude, in this section, we note that scientists of this approach to management did not directly address the "human" factor. Instead, the emphasis was on the rational organization of work—clarifying power relations and management execution, all based on the basic principles. While the human side of work and management may not be completely ignored, scientists certainly give it a lower level of significance in their attempt to raise the efficiency of formal organizations.

Neoclassical Approach: Human Behaviour

Historically, the neoclassical approach has its roots in the Hawthorne Studies of Professor Elton Mayo conducted in the period 1924–1932 and puts emphasis on the human factor and its contribution to the realization of organizational goals.

Table 1.1 Definitions of general principles of classical management theory

Principles of classical management theory	Definitions of principles of classical management theory
Authority and responsibility	They are interrelated. When authority is exercised, responsibility arises. There must be a balance between them. Responsibility cannot exist if authority is not executed. Firstly, the spectrum of responsibility is wider than that of authority so it is rational to assume that the holder of the position cannot respond to all its obligations since they do not have the right to decide or execute part of its duties. Secondly, when the level of authority is greater than the level of responsibility, then the holder of the position can (ab)use their power without any control and no penalty (Bouradas, 2005)
Centralization	Always present to some extent but may be variable
Esprit de corps	The process which harmonizes and smoothes out organizational performance. It is necessary for every kind of organization since it helps to defuse uncertainties
Equity	The process which enhances the status of staff and encourages and motivates them
Unity of command	An employee receives orders from one superior only. This principle is closely related to that referring to authority and discipline
Discipline	Obedience and application. Essential tools in an organization which respects agreements
Division of work	Specialization is the key concept for this principle. It helps to produce more with less cost and effort
Initiative	A source of strength and encouragement at all levels. It helps the organization to retain authority and discipline
Subordination of individual interest to general interest	Fair agreements of interest between individuals and groups

According to this approach, “management” has the same meaning in terms of human resources. However, the significance of the human factor is based on the hypothesis that the contribution and cooperation of the organization’s members are necessary for the organization to achieve its aims.

Within the framework of the neoclassical approach, various trends emerged between the managers of various social organizations. Scientists who contributed to those trends include:

- Elton Mayo who, after a series of long-term studies and research in 1933, published his significant results concerning the reduction of retiring employees, limiting employee absenteeism, increasing employees’ willingness to work, improving social relations, etc. (Hytiris, 2006; Mayo, 1933; Petridou, 1998; Zevgaridis, 1973)
- Abraham Maslow who, in his efforts of 1943 to determine factors that motivate human behaviour, investigated human needs and their motivational power,

ranking them into five categories of increasing significance: natural needs, security, social needs, self-esteem and integration needs (Hytiris, 2006; Maslow, 1943, 1954)

Although Maslow explained that the implications of his theory varied according to personal differences in humans, subsequent research opened up a discussion on the accuracy of his theory (Koontz et al., 1982, pp. 636–638) since:

- Once a need has been satisfied, it does not always lead people to pursue the satisfaction of a higher need.
- The satisfaction of one need (mainly a higher one) does not necessarily mean that motivational power is reduced.
- Human needs do not belong to a certain hierarchy.

Despite the criticism, Maslow's theory has significantly influenced managers in their implementation of motivational systems, mainly because prioritizing human needs helps the manager to better understand the needs of the subordinates with whom they depend in order to achieve the organization's goals.

- Douglas McGregor (1906–1964) wrote about the well-known theories (suppositions) of X and Y and always supported the view that behind every decision or action of management in an organization, there are some hypotheses on human nature and human behaviour that work in it (Hytiris, 2006; McGregor, 1960).

The X theory is based on, among other things, the general hypothesis that most humans are by their nature slothful and desire to be managed by others so as to avoid taking responsibility. Those managers who accept this theory tend to monitor and control with the use of power. Furthermore, here the priority is being given to organizational needs and not to employees' needs (Kanellopoulos, 1995). In the real world of management, this practice ignores the factor of motivation that could positively influence the majority of the workforce.

For McGregor, suppositions of the X theory are questionable since:

- Innate laziness is in contrast to scientific developments that confirm the physical and spiritual dimensions of human energy.
- With a management style that follows an authoritarian way of exercising power—especially in today's society—it is quite difficult (if not impossible) to motivate a great number of employees.

On the other hand, the X theory accepts, among other things, that humans are capable of offering much more in the workplace when in a proper working environment. Therefore, McGregor supports the view that the fear of punishment is not the only motive.

From the above, it is clear McGregor accepts that there is a “right and “wrong” way of managing human resources. But how rational is this view?

With reference to the delegation of duties, Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) developed a model known as the “consequence of leadership behaviour” in which they state that the way a decision is taken depends on how urgent the hypothesis is,

as well as on the group's maturity. According to the above, a manager ought to monitor more closely those subordinates with less experience. Conversely, it is absolutely rational that more freedom be given to those colleagues with more experience and ability.

- Rensis Likert, after researching the industry sector, supported the view that managers use power and direct their subordinates in one of four ways: authoritarian, accommodating authority, consulting and participative (Likert, 1961; Petridou, 1998; Zevgaridis, 1973). For Likert the ideal management system is an "interaction system," while the most effective way of coordinating group efforts towards the achievement of an organization's goals is through "problem distribution" between managers and subordinates.
- Chris Argyris examined human behaviour from within the internal environment of organizations. Argyris (1957) is well known for his "mature and immature" theory. According to Argyris, people hired in an organization have difficulty reaching maturity due to the way management is exercised in the organization. He suggested that people have little control over their working environment and hence are forced into apathy. Others concluded that the central administration ought to create a favourable climate in which each employee has the chance to develop and mature (Hytiris, 2006; Zavlanos, 1998). In this way a point could be reached whereby subordinates engage proactively with their work, long-term plans can be formulated, promotions pursued and a generally creative atmosphere be established in the workplace.

To conclude, the neoclassical approach does not reject the conclusions of the classical but rather attempts to complement those with due attention to the human factor, to the human side of management. Human behaviour in an organization is of fundamental interest for research. However, it would be a serious mistake to consider the school of human behaviour as an alternative management model since this approach does not address organizational principles. For example, it refers to the "goods" of cooperation but does not explain the function of organizing in terms of the needs and values of people nor does it provide us with any details on the function of coordination and control or calculate the results of the group effort. This explains why the improvement in social relations in a working environment and the development of employees' morale did not have the expected results in the productivity sector.

Modern Approach

After 1950, a number of important theories contributed to further developments in the field of organizational science. All theories involved in the above approach support the view that the basic functions of a formal organization are determined not so much by the formal structure or the behaviour of its members but more through knowledge of the interactivity and mutual interplay between the needs, aims and behaviours of the members inside the organization. The most significant theories include:

The Decision-Making Theory The main supporter of this theory, Herbert Simon (1974, 1976), understood that “management means to take decisions”. As such, this theory considers decision-making to be management work, conducted mainly by managers. The interesting point in this theory focused on:

- An attempt to find possible alternatives
- How to contribute to more rational decision-making through the assessment of possible alternative solutions

It is worth noting that the theory of decision-making is characterized by the tendency to rely on mathematical models and processes in order to find the best possible solution to managerial problems.

Total Quality Management is a key way of managing organizations so as to improve product/service quality (Crawford & Shutler, 1999; Creech, 1994; Deming, 1986; Mullins, 2007; Powell, 1995; Saiti, 2012; Saitis, 1997; Zavlanos, 2003). In both public and private organizations, anyone can be involved in a program of performance review at their work and can result in changes that will help to improve the product or service. Certainly, improving the quality (and therefore the competitiveness) of an organization’s product or service is not a matter of luck. On the contrary, it demands on training and the implementation of a program from the organization’s central management. The constituent words of total quality management can be analysed as follows:

Total refers to the extent of the influence, firstly, on all those who are in the work environment, e.g. a school, and, secondly, on all the activities (i.e. pedagogical, administrative) that have to be implemented by specific school organization.

This demands that all participants (stakeholders) involved with the school are aware of the full set of services offered by the school (and its stakeholders) for “quality” to be assured.

Quality is the degree of perfection that a product or service can provide.

Management is method or style used to direct the human and material resources so as to fulfil the mission of the organization.

From the above analysis, it is clear that any improvement in the quality of a product requires a strategy which only the leadership of an organization can effectively plan and implement. A responsible leadership, through its unique all-encompassing role, can establish a working environment whereby each employee in the organization can gain feedback on their progress, agree on an appropriate personal development plan and thus lead to higher-quality work and continued improvement. An effective leadership facilitates others’ work to help them succeed in their mission and so meet or even exceed their expectations.

Theory of Social Systems This approach studies the organization (e.g. school) as a social system that is in a position of mutual dependence with its environment in which it influences, and is influenced by, other systems. The main objective of the theory is not the personal behaviour of the members of the organization (as with the neoclassical approach) but the organizational behaviour of the group.

In favour of this approach was Chester Barnard (1938) who, in order to explain the function of management, wrote about cooperation theory which is based on peoples' need for cooperation, with the ultimate goal of balancing the biological and social limitations of their abilities. However, the first to conduct a significant research on issues concerning social systems were Getzels and Guba (1957).

Contingency Theory During 1967 there was a fundamental theory for the management of formal organizations, named "contingency theory" (Carsisle, 1973; Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967). This theory added factors that came to influence the effectiveness of organizations and the "environment". In addition, the same theory added the necessity to investigate and confront problems not with generalized solutions but to regard them "as separate cases". And this is because (Carsisle, 1973) "different organizations with different duties and different competitive environments demand different programmes. No one will be expected to behave in the same way in a social institution, an enterprise and a family business. In each case, management has to be related with the personality of the leader and the ability, training and attitude of subordinates. Like human personality, every organization is unique so each managerial position or case is unique. So there is no better way of planning, there is no better leadership, there is no better way of organizing a group and there is no better control of organizational activities. The better ideas and techniques can be chosen only when someone is informed of the special cases that they confronts. . ." (p. 7).

Today, there are new perceptions such as the theory of aims (Drucker, 1998; House, 1971), Theory Z (Ouchi, 1981) among others, which may possibly lead to new approaches in modern management.

To conclude, modern management is a combination of different sciences and seeks to find a balanced management model that serves the needs of both sides, namely, organizations and their employees.

1.7 Managers in Education

1.7.1 *The Meaning of the Term "Educational Managers"*

A manager is generally characterized by an institution as someone who takes decisions that directly influence the work of others within that institution. Consequently, education managers are considered those that supervise other job positions within their domain (Kanellopoulos, 1995; Salavou, 2013). Among the key characteristics of "managers" are:

- Their authority: which is broader than for lower job positions
- Their responsibility: which varies according to the powers delegated to them
- Their delegation: the right of a manager to direct and lead subordinates

- Their initiative: the right of a manager to make autonomous decisions and to carry them out

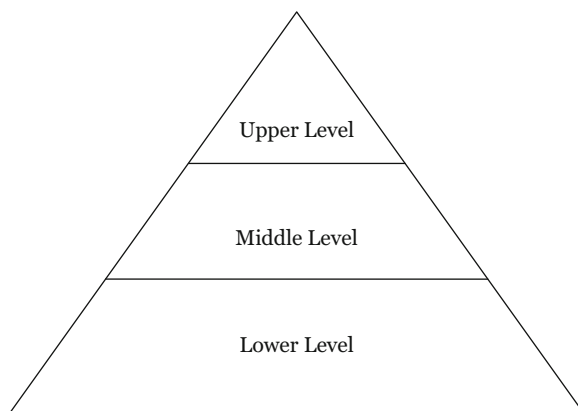
Later in the chapter, we mention how educational managers can be classified into upper, middle and lower levels that are activated within the hierarchical levels of education's organizational structure. By "organizational structure", we mean a system of principles and rules that clarify who does what, who is responsible for what, who decides what and who is accountable to whom within the organization. It defines the way an (educational) organization functions. According to this perception, educators/members of the teaching council are not involved in the educational hierarchical structure since they do not get involved in the everyday administrative functions of the school. In practice there are exceptions, namely, the head and deputy head of the school who are members of the teaching council but are also educational managers.

1.7.2 Ranking the Managerial Levels in Education

Based on the relevant references (Dubrin, 1997; Ewing, 1964; Kanellopoulos, 1995; Koontz et al., 1982; Salavou, 2013) and in practice, the managers of an organization fall into one of three basic levels: upper, middle and lower (see Fig. 1.1). The exceptions are overcentralized educational systems such as the Greek one, which has four levels:

Upper level. At the top of hierarchy of an organization, there are a few people that exercise administrative power in the organization. The top managers in these upper echelons are responsible, among other things, either for collective or personal administration. They constitute the upper administrative leadership that sets the general aims, principles and policies of the organization and establishes the strategic organizational planning. They have full power and

Fig. 1.1 Managerial levels in a schematic pyramidal approach



responsibility in the decision-making and delegation process, as they directly take charge of motivating and overseeing their subordinates.

Middle level. At this level, there are the managers that are responsible for implementing the various functions of general organization that have been set by the upper managerial level. Additionally they direct, coordinate and oversee the activities of the lower managers. Furthermore, they facilitate the communication process between the upper and lower levels.

Lower level. At this level are the managers accountable to the middle level and are responsible for ensuring that the activities set out by the upper hierarchical levels are carried out by the employees. They also direct and oversee the work of the nonmanagerial staff in the organization (employees) and in many cases are required to balance all the pressures and contradictions that may arise from their supervisors and subordinates.

1.7.3 Relationship Between Managerial Hierarchy and Degree of Decision-Making

In general practice, decision-making is a specific task of all managers in an organization. However, the scope of the decision-making is different at each managerial level. Under good organizational conditions, the power and responsibility are rationally distributed across all hierarchical levels of the organization:

- The upper managerial level has full powers and is responsible for each decision; sets the general aims, principles and organizational policies; and establishes the organizational planning that influences future organizational performance.
- The middle level managers have fewer decisions to make; they exercise the orders of their supervisors and realize programs that intend to achieve the general goals set by the upper management.
- The lower level managers have limited decision-making capacity; they mainly exercise the orders of their superiors and are responsible for ensuring that their subordinates carry out the programs set by the upper and middle managerial levels.

According to Fig. 1.2, there is an evident relationship between the managerial level and the likelihood of a given type of decision being taken. For example, an educational system which follows a policy of decentralized power in its lower managerial levels (such as that of England) encourages school managers to take important decisions. On the contrary, an educational system in which policy and power are restricted to the top of the hierarchy, the important decisions belong exclusively to the political leadership of the relevant Ministry of Education. Subsequently, with limited decision-making powers, the lower managerial level is

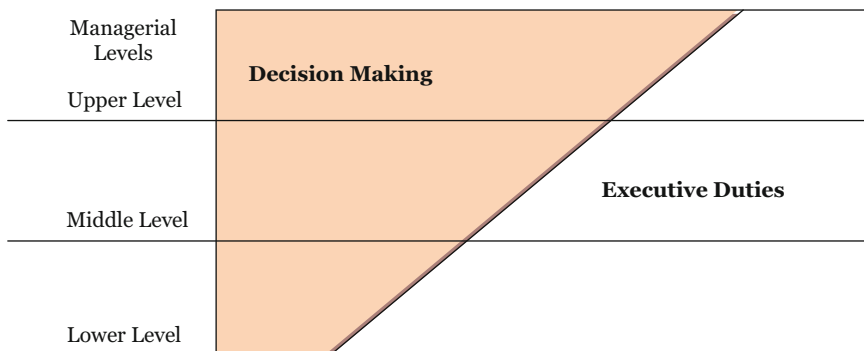


Fig. 1.2 Decision-making at different managerial levels

restricted to decisions that are less important or of a more routine nature (Saiti, 2009; Saiti & Saitis, 2012b).

1.8 Approaches to School Management

1.8.1 Dimensions of “School Leadership”

Leadership, as a managerial function, is a dynamic process that activates and directs human resources in order to effectively contribute to the achievement of the organization’s objectives. Certain scholars see school leadership (and leadership in general) as specific directions provided to human resources in order to prompt conscious actions that will materialize the organization’s programs (Georges et al., 1998; Papa et al., 2013). It is the most difficult function of management because it has to confront the human factor, where behaviours are difficult to define and control. Good leadership involves the correct handling of the organization’s members—directing them in a way that nurtures cooperation between them and motivates them, so that efforts can be maximized. In particular, within a leadership framework, researchers (Georges et al., 1998; Papa et al., 2013; Petridou, 1998) have identified the following as key administrative activities: delegation of power, motivation of human resources, communication, coordination of all school unit actions and conflict management. It is important to note that the exercise of leadership is not only the duty of managers at the top of the organizational hierarchy but also that of those who lead a small group or team.

But what is the correct way for a manager to direct and lead an organizational unit?

According to the relevant literature (Mullins, 1996, 2007; Naylor, 1999), there are two fundamental approaches to exercising leadership:

- The classical way, according to which a manager exerts leadership by imposing himself/herself over other organization members. This way of exercising

leadership (authority) is often the preferred method in a centralized management system.

- The modern way, according to which the aim of any collective effort is easier/more successful when there is willing cooperation between superiors and subordinates.

In both cases, managers have to consider employees as “production factors”. However, it is not necessary for them to be interested only in the organization’s interests. As members of other social organizations (e.g. families, cultural groups, political parties, etc.), all employees have needs, desires and concerns. Therefore, in order for a manager to effectively exercise their managerial duties, they cannot rely solely on their position of power and domination over colleagues. On the contrary, a manager needs to perceive what influences subordinates’ behaviour and have the necessary interpersonal skills to sufficiently motivate the employees so that they become willing to cooperate towards the attainment of the organization’s goals. An example of this approach would be the “managerial grill” of Blake and Mouton (1964), which we will look at later in the chapter. The process of how a group leader influences group behaviour is the essence of leadership. In this approach, one could suggest that “direction” and “leadership” constitute an important part of administrative work. They are, however, not the same, since there are elements that mean different things, and we will refer to those elements later in the book.

1.8.2 School Leadership Activities

School activities are multidimensional phenomena with specific aims and intentions that are successfully completed through appropriate planning, organizing, effective leading and continuous monitoring. These (management) actions are to be implemented in all activities of a school unit, whether these activities have to do with organizing, with class functions or with the monitoring of teaching staff or simply concern the cleaning of the school.

In practice, if we ask heads of school units to describe what they do on a daily/weekly basis, they will highlight more or less the same actions that will include:

- Talk with newly appointed educators about their duties.
- Call a technician for maintenance/repairs (e.g. fix a window or put in a new door).
- Participate in the school committee meeting.
- Act as arbitrator and mediator in resolving any conflicts between educators.
- Inform parents about their children’s behaviour/progress.
- Send statistical data to the relevant authorities.
- Hear complaints from parents about educators’ behaviour.

These highlight just some of the facets of the numerous multidimensional activities of a school head. Those actions can be categorized as follows:

Pedagogical

- Consulting role
- Leading role

Administrative (Bureaucratic) and Economic

- Define and manage the school budget.
- Manage supplies, e.g. books, stationery, etc.

Handling of the Human Factor

- Monitoring of school members
- Interpersonal relations
- Professional development of educators
- Induction of newcomer educators
- Motivation of educators

Cooperation with the External Environment

- Communication with parents
- Communication with social agents

Due to the above and in recognizing the wide variety of individuals that constitute the workforce and end users of school units (in terms of gender, sector, age, etc.), the importance of the role of the school head becomes clear. Indeed, the degree of effectiveness in school performance is heavily dependent on how school heads exercise their duties. Their difficult and complicated role requires the development of abilities and skills which we will address in detail in Chap. 4 of this book. Furthermore, the workload in a school environment is compounded significantly by tensions/conflicts in working relations. So, for educational managers, the above factors can become sources of stress.

Distress is basically a natural response to stress, with physiological (increased blood pressure, rapid heart rate, etc.) and behavioural (smoking, aggressiveness, etc.) symptoms. As some researchers have noted, “distress, in contrast with the distress that creates positive feelings and can be beneficial for human health, can provoke psychological and physiological ailment (Fontana, 1993; Iordanoglu, 2008; Robbins & Judge, 2012; Seyle, 1976).

The following story sheds a humorous light on the dimension of distress (Bucay, 2013)¹:

One day a mother woke up his son around 7am for him to go to school and he says:

“Mum, I don’t want to go school, I don’t...”

“But you have to, my boy”, answered the mother, showing him concern.

“But I don’t want to, I don’t want to. Please, Mum, don’t make me go. I don’t ever want to go to school again”. He continued “I am afraid Mum. I am really afraid of going...”

“What’s wrong, my boy? Why don’t you want to go to school?”

¹This story is from the Greek translation of the book Bucay, J. (2000). *De la autoestima al egoismo*. Mexico: Oceano.

“Mum, kids throw things at me and they take things from my table” he cried “and the teachers treat me badly. . .making jokes about me. . . I tell you, I don’t want to go to school. Please don’t make me go. . . Please! . . .”

“Look my boy . . .”, the mother said, “you have to go to school for four reasons: first, you must learn to confront your fears. Second, you are obliged to go. Third, because you are 42 years old. And fourth. . .because you are the head of the school!” (pp. 110–111).

Strategies for handling work-related stress are divided into two categories (Iordanoglu, 2008; Robbins & Judge, 2012): personal and organizational. Personal strategies include the conscientiousness of stress factors and their handling (solving) through communication, increased physical exercise, techniques of time management, etc. In the organizational approach, an organization’s management team can adopt different practices (e.g. offer training for managers on how they exercise their duties and manage stress, improve the organization’s communication methods, etc.) so as to reduce the stress factors. The appropriate training of educational managers could increase their effectiveness and hence contribute significantly to a reduction in the work-related tension among school members.

1.8.3 Coexistence of the School Head and the Deputy Head

Given that the administrative work taking place in the internal and external environment of a modern school is complicated and difficult, a question arises: can the school head successfully exercise their duties without the assistance of the other school members? The simple answer is “no”, because the delegation aspect of managerial power is a phenomenon that occurs in all physical and social organizations (Berry, 1997; Koontz et al., 1982; Levin & Fullan, 2008; Paisey, 1992; Sallis, 2002; Winter & Melloy, 2005; Yukl, 2002). To be more sufficient, the head of a social organization (small or large, public or private) necessarily must delegate at least some of their work since:

- People differ in their nature, abilities and skills.
- The same person cannot be in different places at the same time.
- A person cannot do two jobs at the same time.

The range of knowledge and skills in management is so great that, during one’s lifetime, a manager can come to know only a relatively small subset of them (Gulick, 1937, p. 3). In other words, the delegation of work derives from the limitations of human nature, time and space.

Bringing this perception into the field of educational organization, we may converge on the conclusion that a school head—according to their skills and abilities—cannot single-handedly respond fully to all the school activities, and so they are obliged to delegate part of the administrative workload to another person (or persons). Thus, the position of deputy head is an inevitable consequence of their limited human capacity to deal with the complexities involved in managing a school.

1.8.4 A School Head Ought to Adhere to the Basic Principles of Management

The field of education is a vast and inseparable part of society, because it serves almost the entire young population and its educational needs. As a state function, education is under state control, and hence management in the field follows the same organizing methods encountered in public administration. Since in educational work factors are interrelated with many others, educational management has its own principles and helps define it as a unique sector. Therefore, besides the general management principles, there are others that can influence the strategy of an educational manager (Bush, 1999; Bush & Bell, 2002; Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Harris, 2005, 2010; Koontz et al., 1982; Leithwood et al., 2004; Papa et al., 2013; Saiti, 2009, 2012; Saitis, 2012b; Southworth, 2002) such as:

- Defined purpose, according to which every activity in an organization has to be linked and harmonized with the organization's aims.
- Hierarchy, which defines clear chains of command, from the top of the organizational hierarchy down to each position, for a more effective organizational communication system and decision-making process.
- Rational management, which covers managers' abilities to cultivate a spirit of cooperation, their personality and ability to inspire and "win" the cooperation of other educators, and managers' skills to direct and control subordinates' actions.
- Equality in power and responsibility, which suggests that responsibility held by an individual cannot be greater or less than the power delegated to them. And this is because managers should have the power (right) to give orders and sustain discipline but at the same time to take responsibilities for the right execution of their work. If there is only power without responsibility, then managerial control becomes arbitrary. In contrast, if there is responsibility without power, then a scenario is created where a manager is not able to take the measures necessary to fulfil their responsibilities, which invariably results in "non-responsibility" (Allen, 1958, p. 75; Hiner, 1972, p. 148).
- Unity of order, which ensures a clarity of roles among superiors and subordinates, thus minimizing the possibility of conflicts and instilling a sense of personal responsibility for the outcomes.
- Choice of the best person for each position (or the right people for the right positions), suggesting that empty work positions are covered objectively and with the use of criteria.
- Unity of personnel, which implies a spirit of cooperation and mutual assistance among the organization's members.
- Legality, which is defined by the national constitution and serves a double aim: first, it guarantees satisfactory arbitrations involving educational managers and their employees, and second, it protects managers since management is not a personal activity. In practice, this means that school managers are obliged to act

within the current legislative framework so as to ensure that all aspects of the school system operate within the law.

- Efficiency, suggesting that school management should have high standards of efficiency. Indeed, researchers have shown that a high level of efficiency in school management contributes substantially to effective school performance (Bush, 1999; Crawford, Kydol, & Parker, 1994; Fullan, 2006; Harris, 2005; Hoy & Ferguson, 1989; Mortimore, 1995). The matter draws greater attention as the expectations for increased productivity and competitiveness are currently higher than at any other time. Productivity relates to the quantity and quality of work, according to the resources available. Organizational productivity includes two measuring features: effectiveness and efficiency. Effectiveness is a measure of the outcome and indicates the extent to which a goal has been achieved. On the other hand, efficiency measures inputs and compares the cost of resources to the goal achieved. Finally, competitiveness has a wider meaning and includes productivity since it refers not only to the manufacture of a product (or supply of services) but also to the ways that the products (or services) are promoted in the market, namely, their marketing (Schermerhorn, 2010, 2011).
- Democratic principle of management, by which, during the decision-making process, the school head should practise participative leadership. It reminds us that, in a democratic society, decision-making is closely linked with the participation and cooperation that exists between superiors and subordinates.
- Direct control, according to which, the more directly a superior relates to their subordinates, the more effective the execution of managerial duties will be.
- Principle of justice, according to which the educational manager's actions towards all subordinates have to be legal and objective. After all, as a regulating social principle, justice is considered necessary in order to regulate the relations between managers and employees in a social organization such as a school unit.
- Principle of rational decision-making, which indicates that any decision should not be taken hurriedly or under the influence of a bad mood/negative psychological disposition but should be a result of a calm and comprehensive study of the problem. It is not enough for a decision to be the product of a democratic and legal process, but it should also be effective so that it contributes to the realization of the school unit's goals.
- Principle of adjustment and flexibility, according to which the school head ought to react to data on the school's environment so as to adjust to the situations, circumstances and people in the school system.

1.8.5 School Leadership Demands Continuous Learning

From the above, it is clear that, in order for an educational manager to respond successfully to their difficult job, they should be good (i.e. display effective leadership behaviour) and be capable. A good and capable school head is someone who:

- Understands administrative work very well
- Is a good time manager
- Has a two-way communication channel with all school members. They can also talk with compassion (sympathy) about the problems of educators, accept their opinions and be open to new ideas
- Listens carefully to all complaints and responds in a timely manner
- Offers a professional development programme for the school educators and motivates them to take initiatives for creative activities
- Is honest and direct and asks the educators to do the same
- Uses rational methods for monitoring educators
- Is willingly cooperative with parents and institutions from the local authorities
- Is stable, acts justly and takes decisions objectively.

However, a question arises: how can an educator be an effective school head?

This question is very important and difficult because in management there are many recipes for success. Certainly, there are principles and techniques that contribute to the effective execution of management, but all these require that a manager seeks ways of reinforcing their knowledge and skills while at the same time exercising their managerial duties so as to positively shape their attitude and behaviour. Everyone understands what management is, but this does not mean that they know “how” to manage. Managers develop their understanding as a result of reading the relevant literature, guides and lectures. However, knowing “how” to manage only comes through practice in exercising managerial duties (Buradas, 2013). For example, by reading instructions on how to swim, ride, etc., we might understand them. But this understanding alone does not ensure that we will be able to swim or ride. This perception expresses a fundamental truth: practice is the best teacher. Hence, in order for an educator to be an effective school head/leader, they should be equipped with knowledge and participate in the exercise of managerial duties in order to develop the relevant skills—effectively “learning through action”.

Based on this perception and considering that every person has their own learning style (Kolb, 1981; Schermerhorn, 2010), we may consider the position of a deputy head of a school unit to be the starting point for the development of a school head (pending their objective selection and training on managerial issues).

1.8.6 Why Is Learning a Crucial Factor for a Manager?

As life’s circumstances can change rapidly, a good school manager/leader should:

- Serve as an exemplary model of behaviour for others to follow.
- Ensure they are continuously informed on issues affecting their duties so that they can adjust to changes (social, economical, technological) that may happen. This is important because methods that were successful in the past may no longer be appropriate/relevant today.

- Continuously question the system under which the organization functions, e.g. how can they work more effectively? How can they use time, money and human efforts more efficiently? How can they help prevent accidents in the schoolyard?

1.8.7 Factors Hindering the Learning Process of Managers

Despite the significance of lifelong learning, some researchers suggest that many managers are failing to learn. This is due to factors that inhibit their learning process, among which are the following:

- The false perception that a manager already knows everything they need to know about their role.
- Habit, which serves as a resistance to changes in attitude and procedure, as people usually prefer to stay with the status quo. It is mainly adults who find it difficult to break a habit. In order to better understand how difficult it is to change habits, try the following exercise. In his book, Bucay (2013)² tells a story:

Put your hands together by crossing your fingers so that each finger of one hand is between the fingers of the other hand. This means placing one finger of one hand, then one of the other hand, etc. Imagine that one of your thumbs is above the other. As your fingers are crossed, there will always be one thumb that is uppermost. When some people do this exercise, they observe that many people have the right thumb on top while some have the left thumb. Look: you have the left thumb on top and I have the right one on top. You see? Yes. Very good. Separate your hands now and lower them. Now, on the count of three, try to quickly cross your fingers again but the opposite way. One, two, three! Do you understand what is happening? It is almost impossible to cross your fingers in a specific way every time you do so. A difficult task! Why? It is simple. Because it is a matter of habit. There is no rational reason why all people should cross their fingers in a specific way. It is not a matter of anatomy, nor a coincidence: it is just habit. And certainly, it is very difficult to change it. I suggest that you try another exercise: cross your arms please. One arm above the other. Some people may put the right arm on top, others the left one. Good. Now do it again but the opposite way. I can see that you are smiling. What is going on? I understand that it is a foolish thing. . . however, it is almost impossible to do it, unless I concentrate and do it slowly. . . . (pp. 52–53)

- Inactivity, which serves as an obstacle to change. Managers consider an organization to be static and so may perceive any change as a provocation that threatens the existence of the organization and hence their careers. The anecdote of the frog in boiling water provides a good illustration of the dangers of

²This story is from the Greek translation of the book Bucay, J. (2000). *De la autoestima al egoísmo*. Mexico: Oceano.

inactivity: If we put a frog in a bowl of boiling water, the frog will jump out immediately. However, if we put the frog in the same bowl with the water at room temperature and gradually increase the water temperature until it approaches boiling point, the frog will just get hotter and hotter until it boils and we end up with frog soup! We must ask ourselves, why does the frog jump out of the bowl in boiling water but, when the water temperature is gradually increased, the frog stays and boils? Many might say that the frog simply gets used to, or does not realize, the temperature. In reality, as the frog warms up, it adjusts to its immediate environment without any awareness of its external environment (outside the bowl). By the time it realizes that it is in physical danger and tries to get out of the bowl to save itself, it is too late: it loses the responsiveness of its muscles and can no longer get out of the bowl. So it boils (Buradas, 2013; Salavou, 2013). The moral is that we must be aware of gradual as well as sudden changes in our environment and be ready to act accordingly.

- The Peter Principle effect. According to this principle, managers tend to be promoted to the level at which they are no longer competent (Koontz et al., 1982; Mullins, 1996, 2007; Parthenopoulos, 1997; Peter & Hull, 1969). It considers that, if a manager is successful in a position, then their success prompts their promotion to a higher position. This process continues until eventually they are promoted to a position that is beyond their abilities (Koontz et al., 1982, p. 549). Consequently, there will be times when an organization has managers who are not appropriately qualified for their position.

Based on the above, and considering that the effective functioning of a school unit depends to a large extent on capable management, then the issue of the development of educational managers becomes a burning one. Addressing this need, the purpose of this book is to provide educational managers and educators with some practical guidance on how to confront the different managerial problems in school administration.

1.9 Case Studies

Case 1: Management Differs from Execution

Mr X is a school deputy head in a secondary school. In cooperation with the school head, he helps out with the smooth and effective functioning of the school and deputizes for the head whenever he is absent. Mr X is responsible for the school registers; he also completes and sends statistical school data to the relevant state services. Furthermore, he defines the daily program for the educators who will supervise students and is responsible for ensuring it is implemented.

According to the above actions of Mr X, in your opinion, does this particular school deputy head exercise management?

Case 2: Implementation of Management Principles

Mr B serves as a school deputy head in a high school, and, one morning, he gave an order to Ms F (one of the educators in his school) to complete an administrative task after her lesson, by the end of her working day. The same day, in the afternoon, Mr P (the school head) invited Ms F to his office and gave her a different administrative job, also to be completed by the end of the day. Ms F informed Mr P that Mr B had already given her administrative work that morning and that she did not have time to complete both by the end of the day. In an increasingly heated dialogue, Mr P (as the school head) eventually told her angrily: “you will do what your head says!”. After this, Ms F executed Mr P’s order.

The following day the deputy head prepared a written report on Ms F stating that she did not execute his order.

Based on the above, ask yourself the following questions:

- (a) Which basic principle(s) of management seem to be absent from the management team of this particular school?
- (b) If you were in the position of Ms F, how would you react?
- (c) In your opinion, what are the factors that could contribute to a more effective cooperation between the school head and the deputy head?

Case 3: Difficulties in Changing the Management Philosophy of an Organization

A school is aware of the higher success rates of students in well-known and high-ranking universities. Over the summer the management of the school decides to recruit (based on very difficult ability tests) educators who teach the final year of high school. In the autumn, at the beginning of the next school year, the educators are given the main goal of the school, which is directly related to the previous year’s student success rates in the more well-known universities. If an educator achieves the goal, they will get a high monetary bonus. However, it should be noted that, for the last three years, the success rates of this particular school have been decreasing—a fact that has forced the school management, through specialist managers, to devise a reorganization plan for the school and to make proposals for the modernization of its processes.

Based on the above, ask yourself the following questions:

- (a) Which elements of the classical approach may be found in the above case study?
- (b) Do you consider that it is achievable for an organization (school) to “shift” from one management approach (e.g. classical) to another (e.g. modern)? If so, how?

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Chapter 2

The Function of Planning and Programming

Abstract The success of management in a typical organization (and hence a school unit) demands effective planning and programming. Planning and clarifying the school goals, and determining ways that these goals can be achieved, are the main responsibilities of the school leader. Indeed, plans are the basis for coordinating and directing school activities so that the school can succeed in achieving its goals. Taking into consideration that, today, schools function within a very complicated and competitive environment, then planning and programming is the most necessary of managerial functions. This chapter:

- Briefly analyses the terms “plan”, “purpose” and “strategy” and emphasizes the significance of planning and programming in a typical organization.
- Examines the basic elements (procedures, techniques) of planning and programming and refers to factors which influence the determination of a program, both positively and negatively.
- Presents, in a practical way, the procedure for planning and programming at the school level.
- Examines the necessity of, and the procedure for, strategic management in modern organizations and summarizes aspects of strategic planning within the educational field.
- Presents the strategic changes in education and summarizes key aspects of programming and good time management that we should expect of school leaders. Relevant case studies are also presented.

Key Chapter Concepts

- A strategy is not merely a set of rules or guidelines but a comprehensive plan that an organization implements so as to respond to its mission and reach its vision. It is, therefore, a declaration of intentions that map out where we want to be in the future, and how we can get there.
- Strategic management requires the use of more substantial ways of planning and programming that aim to ensure the creditable use of an

(continued)

organization's capabilities over the long term. It is a new managerial philosophy that primarily aims to develop a strategic plan which integrates policies, visions and targets and elaborates on how they can be implemented/achieved.

- Strategic management differs from “general management” in terms of the time frame in which each plan is implemented and acted upon. General management is concerned with the daily activities of an organization and is exercised by managers of all hierarchical levels. On the other hand, strategic management is concerned with the long-term orientation of an organization and is usually exercised by managers of the upper hierarchy.
- The role of a school manager is crucially important in introducing and implementing new ideas in decentralized education systems. On the other hand, school managers in centralized education systems do not have the flexibility/freedom to function autonomously because they have to act within a legislative framework that requires them to function more as executive organs of the school's management and less as school leaders.
- Any significant change in the field of education should not be used as a periodical magical therapy but as part of a long-term strategy, the success of which depends on governmental support, the choice of planning model, educational members' attitude and perceptions, financial support and certainly the abilities and experience of the decision-makers in the education system.

2.1 What Do “Design” and “Programming” Mean?

Many people think that planning and programming is one of the most important managerial functions since it more or less describes what we know about a managerial executive: programming, organizing and controlling. In reality, however, planning and programming are routine daily activities, something that we all do continuously and effortlessly in our personal and professional lives. We all, in the way each of us understands, talk about plans, programs, etc., in such a way that there is no doubt that we all mean planning and programming. So, what is it?

Planning in the broader sense refers to a general conception of the aims of a future effort. It is about an expectation we all want to achieve in the future in relation to resources we have decided to commit for this aim. In general, we may say that planning helps the managers of an organization to think about the bigger picture and to develop a managerial strategy that is more proactive than reactive.

On the other hand, *programming* defines the general framework of a specific activity or set of activities and the training tools for the execution and adaptation of an organization's contingency plans. Through programming, organizational managers are able to predetermine, down to the smallest detail, all the objectives,

methods and actions involved as well as the time and location for executing each task.

From the above, it is clear that planning has a wider context than programming because the former is based on aims that are general and non-specific, while in programming the aims and action tools tend to be defined in greater detail.

2.2 Definition of the Basic Terms in Planning and Programming

What Is a Mission?

A social organization (e.g. a university, hospital or enterprise) establishes rules for achieving their mission. With the term “mission”, we mean the way in which an organization chooses to achieve its purpose. Within this framework, the mission of an organization expresses a basic function or duty that a society has assigned to it (Daft, 2007; Koontz & Wehrich, 2010; Koontz, O’Donnell, & Wehrich, 1982). Although the relevant literature (such as Hill, Jones, & Schilling, 2015; Papoulias, 2002; Zavlanos, 2003) sometimes makes a distinction between the terms “mission” and “aim”, in this book these terms will be considered as synonymous, and we will be using them interchangeably. Thus, the aim of a university is to teach and conduct research, and the mission of a school is to offer education that will satisfy educational needs, mainly of the young. Similarly, the aim of a hospital is to provide effective health-care services to citizens. In simple words, the mission of an organization could be taken as the reason for its existence in society (Daft, 2007; Hill et al., 2015).

Based on the above examples, the term “mission” seems to answer basic questions that shape an organization’s existence:

- Who are we?
- What are we?
- What do we want to achieve?

The mission of an organization should be clear and succinct because, through this, the management develops its objectives and goals. This would certainly be difficult if they did not know what they wanted to achieve. Indeed, while an organization’s mission may be a general concept, it is a very crucial one as it forms the foundation of the organization’s strategies and policies that shape all their activities.

What Is a Plan?

The goal of the planning process is to produce plans which map out the execution of a specific task (or tasks). “Planning is an intellectually demanding process; it requires the conscious determination of courses of action and the basing of decisions on purpose, knowledge and considered estimates” (Koontz et al., 1982, p. 156).

Based on the above, we may say that plans are a series of steps, the connection of which creates problems in the achievement of aims especially if some elements (policies, procedures, budgets, etc.) are lacking. We will see later in this chapter that action plans of a typical organization can be grouped into different categories.

Is There a Difference Between “Aim” and “Objective”?

The terms “aim” (purpose) and “objective” are not same. A purpose refers to a general intention of the organization, while an objective is more specialized. For example, the purpose of a school head is to ensure the smooth functioning of the school—an intention (desire). An objective towards the smooth functioning of the school unit could be to reduce the number of accidents in the school yard during a school year without increasing the number of educators in the school yard. In this example, the purpose has been turned into a specific goal.

What Is Strategy?

The term “strategy” has its roots in Ancient Greece, and in the past the term was regularly used by military writers referring to the art of war (Georgopoulos, 2006; Papadakis, 2007). The “art” of generals was to find the right plan that would overcome the enemy power and hence win the war. Or, as an ancient Chinese philosopher put it, the ultimate type of strategy is to cancel out the enemy’s plans (<http://www.Classics.mit.edu>, p. 22).

But what is a strategy? Hill et al. (2015) define strategy as “a set of related actions that managers take to increase their company’s performance” (p. 3). Within this framework Hill and Jones (2012) see a strategy as a set of actions that managers take to increase their company’s performance relative to rivals (p. 2). Silbiger (1993), Koontz and Wehrich (2010) and Dubrin (1997) see it as a full plan of what the organization wants to be.

Other researchers define the term “strategy” as a dynamic that includes aims, organizational plans and an action plan for achieving them in a competitive environment (Kanellopoulos, 1995, p. 86). So it examines not only the organizational aims but also the tools.

Based on the above definitions, a strategy is not simply a set of rules or programming guidance, but it is a plan that an organization implements in response to its mission and to attain its vision—a declaration of intentions that defines where it wants to be in the near future.

2.3 The Significance of Planning and Programming

Planning and programming are significant for the following reasons:

- They are the prerequisite for the other managerial functions—decision-making, organizing, direction (leadership) and controlling. In particular, planning and controlling are two directly interrelated managerial functions since planned

action without control produces random results. Similarly, control without a plan produces aimless results.

- It helps managers to make decisions for the future from a broader perspective.
- Prediction helps to anticipate future activities and actions according to present and future elements (Daft, 2007; Hill et al., 2015; Kotler & Rath, 1984; Schermerhorn, 2011). It is the basis for planning and programming since in the initial phase of this function, data is gathered and measurements and calculations are made, leading to the estimation of where we will be according to the current situation. However, what is predictable and what is not is a very difficult question. Certainly, accurate predictions for the future are rare since there are uncontrolled factors that could interfere even in relatively short time frames. However, as Mintzberg (1987) stated, to engrave someone a direction in unexplored waters is the perfect way to fall on a snow-covered mountain (p. 26). Despite the uncertainty that a prediction creates for the future of an organization, Fayol (1949) considered forecasting to be a principle of each managerial activity since it provides the basic guidelines (direction) of planning and programming. Otherwise, the unplanned action of an organization is simply a random action with no productivity at all except chaos (Goetz, 1949, p. 63). If you want to try your talent in forecasting, keep a diary today by writing down all your predictions about what will happen in your work, policy, stock market, etc. next year. At the end of next year, you may compare what you have written with what actually happened.

2.4 Basic Elements of Planning and Programming

2.4.1 *Process of Planning and Programming*

The process of planning and programming is linked closely with the decision-making process since this function determines what should be achieved and how this will be done in the future. It is about a function that consists of some phases or stages (Daft, 2007; Hill et al., 2015; Hytiris, 2006; Kanellopoulos, 1995; Koontz et al., 1982; Schermerhorn, 2011).

Determination of the organization's Aims The first stage of the planning and programming process is the determination of the organization's aims—what should be achieved for the organization to not only survive but also to develop.

Determination of the organization's Current Situation In this stage managers assess the current situation of the organization by examining not only the internal possibilities but also all the influences coming from the organization's external environment.

Drafting of Alternative Solutions or Proposals The third stage of the planning and programming process leads to the study of all the available resources and the

writing of alternative proposals that can facilitate the fulfilment of the organization's aims.

Choice of the Best Alternative This stage includes the assessment of all alternatives by estimating the pros and cons of each alternative, and then, based on managers' judgments, the best solution for the organization is chosen.

Implementation of Action Plan Managers at this point call for the implementation of the chosen action plan.

Assessment of the Results In this last stage, managers initially assess the results of the action plans so as to conclude whether or not the initial aims have been achieved and consequently to analyse the new data for the best possible implementation of the organization's future plans.

2.4.2 Basic Types of Plans

In the first chapter, we mentioned that the result of the planning and programming process is a plan (or plans), which is (or are) linked with the execution of a specific task. These plans may be ranked into three basic categories. According to the scope of the aim, the plans may be divided as follows:

- *Strategic plan*: determines the long-term plan and the position of the organization within its environment. As we will see further in this chapter, this type of plan is for the future and is made by managers in the upper level of the managerial hierarchy.
- *Operational plan*: made by managers in the middle and lower levels of the managerial hierarchy and provides details of how the strategic plan is implemented. This type of plan focuses on the internal function of the organization and has short-term and specific aims. For example, a school head can, within only a few minutes, plan their weekly activities if they consider the following:
 - Objectives. What results do you want to achieve by the end of this week? Write them down and rank them according to priority.
 - Activities. What should be done to achieve the aims and objectives? Write down the necessary activities and place them in order.
 - Time: how much time do you need for each activity? In order for planning and programming to be realistic, give yourself more time than you think you may need. Thus you will be better able to deal with unpredicted problems and still stick to your time plan.
- Plan your programme: by carefully examining your diary, you will be able to decide when you can do each activity.

The majority of people underestimate the contribution of the plan, but you will succeed less if you do not plan the ongoing process of things (Daft, 2007; Dubrin, 1997; Kotler & Rath, 1984).

Regular/operational/business planning and programming is a process through which we decide—quantitatively, qualitatively and timewise—the actions that should be taken and the tools that should be used so as to define short- and long-term targets that are measurable. The basic target of functional programming is the budget, which in fact is the economic expression of aims, actions and tools. It is worth mentioning that functional programming stems from the materialization of strategic programming and is the reason of its existence (Bouradas, 2001; Daft, 2007; Hill et al., 2015; Schermerhorn, 2011). Indeed, there is a direct correlation between strategic and functional programming since the latter is the agent through which the former determines the future direction of the organization.

Based on the criterion of duration, programmes and plans can be categorized as follows:

Short term—these have a time frame of between one and 3 years, the duration of which is determined by the long-term perspectives of the organization.

Long term—these have a duration of three to 10 years and address (among other things) how to confront unpredictable and potentially disruptive situations. The main purpose of a long-term plan is to define the organization's goals and to outline the distribution of resources required to achieve them. According to Georgopoulos (2006) the basic idea of the long-term plan is to predict possible environmental tensions and define the goals for the right guidance of organizational function and actions of all people involved in the process. However, the situations that exist mainly in the organization's external environment often frustrate managers as these situations tend to confound their forecasting. Hence, managers are increasingly using more efficient tools to predict situations such as tension analysis and regression models using a PC and relevant software. In this way they will be partially successful with some improvements, but in many cases it is not enough.

Despite the weaknesses and uncertainty of long-term planning and programming, it does improve the effectiveness of strategic decisions. It helps managers to consider the long-term impact of decisions and think of the possible consequences of environmental tensions for the organization, early enough for appropriate (evasive) action to be taken. All the issues addressed in the long-term plan help to facilitate decisions that are right for the organization and thus enhance its competitive position in the long term.

The success of long-term planning depends on certain conditions such as a high rate of development, easily predictable tensions, etc. If these conditions are not met, then the planning will lose its effectiveness.

Plans are also distinguished according the criterion of elasticity:

Inelastic plans are clearly defined and fixed, with little room for readjustment. In real situations, however, it is doubtful whether a plan (particularly long-term) can remain inelastic due to the high levels of uncertainty.

Elastic plans offer more general guidance, allowing for the opportunity to adjust the plan according to any variations in environmental conditions. Undoubtedly, having a plan that could be changed without requiring any extra cost would be of great value. However, in practice, elasticity is possible only within certain limits (Koontz et al., 1982, p. 184).

Based on the above:

- Plans in all categories are closely linked with the organization's general and specific targets.
- Managers at all hierarchical levels should be responsible for determining and implementing the relevant plans.
- Long-term plans (mainly) should, due to environmental uncertainty, have a relative degree of flexibility to allow the organization to deal with any unexpected problems.

2.4.3 Conditions for Effective Planning and Programming

Effective planning and programming requires certain conditions that include the following:

First, foresight is the first basic condition of planning and programming because, through this, managers attempt to clarify the internal and external factors that will facilitate or hinder the achievement of the desired goals.

Second, the planning and programming process needs to determine with sufficient clarity the aims and the powers of each organizational department because (a) people can be more productive when they know what is expected from them and what the extent of their authority is, and (b) there is a closer correspondence between the real and the desired result at the end of period.

Third, planning and programming is a product of the contribution of all managers at all hierarchical levels since plans are formed based on an information framework in which all managerial levels are involved. To establish such a framework, the general organizational policy should be determined by the upper hierarchical levels. This, however, does not mean that managers of the lower managerial levels should not participate in the formation of organizational policy. On the contrary, their contribution is crucially important: first, because managers at lower levels have experience and special knowledge to share with the upper levels, and, second, by participating in this process, they will be better motivated to implement the action plan(s). In any case, plans are generally better implemented when the people expected to implement them have participated in the process of their development.

Fourth, planning and programming ought to derive objective, sufficient and flexible plans and programmes whose implementation is based on the human and material resources available for the given time frame and on the potential to adjust to unpredictable circumstances. Certainly, elasticity does not have to be in conflict with the orientation of the organization's activity.

Fifth, planning and programming is closely linked with the decision-making process since upper management calls to choose targets and available tools so as to implement action plans among alternatives that were created based on certain criteria.

Finally, planning and programming require good coordination for the efficient implementation of the main plan since it is based on a cluster of interrelated actions, plans and programmes.

It is worth mentioning that it is extremely difficult for managers to recognize and write down all the future factors that will influence the organization's environment. For this reason managers are usually restricted to securing those conditions which, according to their opinion, are essential for carrying out their plans and programmes.

2.4.4 Limitations of Planning and Programming

According to the relevant literature (Koontz et al., 1982; Zavlanos, 2003), in many cases, the planning and programming process is influenced negatively by internal and external organizational factors such as:

Uncertainty of the organization's Environment The uncertain and unstable environmental conditions that characterize our era have a negative influence on the function of planning and programming. This impact could be greater in long-term plans. And this is because managers cannot foresee the organization's future environment with any reasonable accuracy. The lack of accurate foresight could be attributed to continuous changes (e.g. technological, social, economical) taking place in the organization's environment.

Lack of Time and Increase in Expenditure Planning and programming is a rather complicated procedure that requires adequate time and resources. However, managers often do not have sufficient time nor are they granted adequate resources in order to work thoroughly and systematically to form long-term plans. For many organizations the cost of researching into, and coordinating, the various plans is restrictively high.

Resistance to Change Another limiting factor in planning and programming is the psychological inelasticity of employees, that is, their internal (negative) reaction to new ideas and processes. This can stem from several issues: they may have either developed specific thought and behavioural tendencies that are difficult to change (Koontz et al., 1982, p. 298), or they may be aware that the effective

implementation of plans and programmes requires new procedures and knowledge and a greater effort on their part, or because they did not participate in the decision-making process or perhaps they have not been properly informed about the organization's future activities. Besides, people tend to fear the unknown—a fear which in most cases leads to suspicion and ends in resistance to every planned change. Those obstacles can be overcome with the substantial participation of employees in the decision-making process, the timely distribution to employees of information on developments, and the ability of leadership to convince managers at all hierarchical levels of the benefits of the proposed changes.

Influence of External Organizational Factors Some of the most important external factors that can prevent planning and programming include political climate, where the national government determines economic and social policy, the nature of technological changes and the reaction of unions; these and other factors can cause completely inelastic situations.

2.5 Planning and Programming in School

Bringing all the above thoughts into the working school environment, we may underline that for the school head to be effective, they have to achieve results. This requires them (together with the educators) to determine targets that are both sufficient and credible. A powerful way of ensuring educators' commitment is to encourage them to propose their own targets. In particular, a school head who is responsible for the smooth functioning of the school unit and the coordination of school life at the beginning of the school year should:

- First, investigate and plan future school activities in such a way that it will lead to the implementation of the school unit's targets.
- Second, call for a meeting of the teaching council to make decisions concerning the rational distribution of teaching and non-teaching duties to all educators of the school unit.
- Third, call for the teaching council to reconvene after a few days in order to make decisions (based on the educators' reports for their classes) on general school matters such as the weekly timetable, the planning of school excursions, visits, parents' meetings, and activities that will give students a better understanding of society and civilization at local and national level.
- Fourth, to determine, according to the decisions made by the teaching council, an action plan regarding the organizing and functioning of the school unit for the whole school year.
- Finally, on a weekly basis, to determine a timetable for exercising duties.

2.6 Modern Managerial Approach: Strategic Planning in Education

Prior to any analysis of strategic planning and programming, it is worth looking into what strategic management means.

2.6.1 *Meaning and Necessity of Strategic Management*

There has been a lot of discussion about the term “strategic management”. Like in most cases, there is no convergence regarding the meaning of the above term.

One perspective on strategic management is the managerial perception that considers the organization’s problems combined with the total general economic situation of the existing environment (Papoulias, 2002). From this perspective, strategic management is perceived as a competitive advantage by organizations that strive to create strategic programmes and certainly have the motivation to implement them effectively. The latter is very important, especially if we consider the fact that the general environment is extremely competitive and that we are living in an era of great uncertainty, increased complication and interrelation (Papoulias, 2002, p. 19).

From another perspective, the key role in strategic management is for the “managers to use all their knowledge, energy and enthusiasm to provide strategic leadership for their subordinates and develop high-performing organizations” (Hill et al., 2015, p. 29). Hence, it is a shaping process that strives to achieve company’s long-term targets and thus sustain a competitive advantage (Hill et al., 2015; Schermerhorn, 2011). Here, strategic management is perceived as the process by which managers express and implement strategies (Glueck & Jauch, 1984).

There are researchers that define strategic management as the set of decisions and actions that result in the development of a strategy that achieves the desired targets (Georgopoulos, 2006, p. 32). It should be noted that these decisions concern the general environment in which the organization is functioning. They presuppose that the organization has sufficient resources and that there is an interrelation between the environment and the resources.

From the above, we may say that strategic management substantially involves various ways of planning and programming and is mainly concerned with the appropriate use of the organization’s capacities. It is about a new philosophy that is primarily concerned with strategic programmes that establish policies, visions, targets and their means of implementation. Or, as Georgopoulos (2006) put it, strategic management is the most difficult and important challenge that an organization may face (public or private). Given the present competition for survival and sustainability, it lays the foundations for the organization’s future direction (p. 31).

As necessary as strategic management is, no matter how systematically developed the strategic planning may be, its successful and effective implementation is

dependent on maximizing human resource effectiveness, on the available resources and on the ability to overcome the dangers of (and exploit the opportunities presented by) the external environment (Hill & Jones, 2012; Pearce & Robinson, 2011; Sarsentis, 1996). Furthermore, the radical developments in the economic and technological sector dictate the need for a competitive working environment, and thus managers must be constantly aware of the developments in their organisation's broader environment. Hence, it is crucially important that they are able to make rational and timely decisions. This requires managers to be capable of thinking and reacting strategically, to be able to analyse each situation and then, based on their intuition (most of the time as a result of their accumulated experience), to be able to try to make the most effective strategic decision for the future good of the organization (Georgopoulos, 2006; Hill & Jones, 2012; Hill et al., 2015; Koontz & Weihrich, 2010; Pearce & Robinson, 2011). This perception underlines the necessity for strategic management in organizations.

Therefore, strategic management differs from general management, specifically in terms of time frame, but more generally with regard to the people who implement it. General management concerns the daily action of an organization and is implemented by managers at all hierarchical levels. By contrast, strategic management concerns the orientation of the organization in the long term and is implemented by managers from the upper hierarchical level. This implementation is based on strategic decisions that have fundamental and long-term influences on the whole organization.

2.6.2 Basic Elements of Strategic Management

According to the relevant literature (Georgopoulos, 2006; Hill & Jones, 2012; Hill et al., 2015; Koontz & Weihrich, 2010; Pearce & Robinson, 2011; Sarsentis, 1996; Schermerhorn, 2011), the elements of strategic management are:

Strategic analysis according to which managers gather all possible information so as to be able to take rational decisions. This phase is critical because the quality of information regarding aspects of the organization is bound to influence managerial decisions and consequently the future path that the organization will take.

Strategic choice. After gathering the necessary data and keeping in mind the mission and the aim of the organization, the responsible managers consider various strategies to help them make the best possible strategic choice.

Strategic implementation according to which managers inform the relevant agents about the chosen strategy so as to proceed with its implementation and to adapt it in order to conform with any change in conditions and with the other organizational activities.

2.6.3 Process of Strategic Management

The engraving of strategies is shaped by a number of elements such as the environment in which the organization functions, the resources that are available, etc. It is also a specific approach according to which the management proceeds to actions that support the achievement of specific targets. For the latter, the organization should balance the strengths and weaknesses of the internal environment with the prevalent opportunities and threats of its external environment. This balance refers to the organization's desired strategy through which the process of strategic management ends in a carefully thought-out strategy which is then implemented (Georgopoulos, 2006; Hill et al., 2015; Pearce & Robinson, 2011; Schermerhorn, 2011).

Focusing on the process of strategic management (Hitt, Ireland, & Hoskisson, 2005; Liedtka, 2000; Schermerhorn, 2011), this includes analysing the organization's environment, shaping the strategy, implementing the strategy and assessing and checking the results. In this process we may include the rational model of strategic management, a basic data analysis tool for decision-making which focuses on the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of/facing an organization, known as SWOT analysis (Table 2.1).

2.6.4 The Nature of Strategic Planning and Programming

Planning and programming as a managerial function includes all those managerial activities that determine an organization's targets and appropriate tools with which to achieve those targets. These managerial actions result in the implementation of the organization's functional programmes (to which we have referred in previous sections). Furthermore, this function also includes strategic planning and programming (Georgopoulos, 2006; Hill et al., 2015; Naylor, 1999; Pearce & Robinson, 2011; Schermerhorn, 2011).

Hence, strategic planning and programming can be considered as a plan that fulfils the main organizational targets, policy and actions within a consistent framework (Quinn, 1980, p. 7); or as a development function of strategic planning and programming with a long-term horizon that includes the orientation of a mission, strategic organizational targets and a grid of strategies that will contribute to the achievement of targets after the organization's position in the external environment is assessed (Petridou, 1998, p. 99); or as a process through which the organization shapes its mission, vision, long-term targets and strategies (Bouradas, 2001, p. 51). Based on the above definitions, strategic planning includes all those actions that:

- Direct the organization's functional activities
- Allow the organization to reconsider its strategic position and situation in the context of its environment

Table 2.1 SWOT matrix:
Analysis of the organization position.

	Internal environment	External environment
	Current situation	Future situation
What is it?		
Good	Power	Opportunities
Bad	Weakness	Threats

Focusing on the significance of strategic planning, it is clear that the basic target of strategic planning is attained through foresight and includes consideration for the potential impact of changes in the variables of the external environment. As a result, uncertainty and risk are limited, and future opportunities are better exploited, all within a framework whereby the organization effectively manages its responses to changes (Petridou, 1998, p. 199). Certainly, it is very difficult, if not impossible, to accurately foresee the future (Stylianidis, 2008).

To focus the above thoughts, we may support the view that in the case of strategic planning and programming, the interest of managers is to focus on the changeable external environment of the organization, to recognize any need for change in the organization’s direction, to develop the capabilities of all organizational members and to create competitive advantages—a challenge made more difficult due to possible radical social, economical and technological changes in the organization’s external environment. It is rational to assume that management in modern organizations forces to a greater use of the process of strategic planning and programming and hence to a more dynamic approach to planning.

It should be mentioned that the result of planning and programming is the development of strategic programmes that will determine future long-term targets and orient the organization’s position in its environment. These programmes are determined by the managers at the upper hierarchical managerial levels. Strategic planning is favoured over other programmes for the following reasons (Hill & Jones, 2012; Hill et al., 2015; Kefis, 1998):

- It recognizes the organization’s problems; it offers basic qualitative information on strategic issues that help with rational decision-making.
- It contributes to the collaboration of different organization agents for the achievement of the organization’s objectives and targets.
- It reduces the uncertainty surrounding the future direction and process of the organization.
- It is a document for democratic leadership.
- It is the appropriate tool for the organization’s timely preparation when faced with environmental challenges.

To conclude, all the above advantages are positive elements for the organization’s sustainability under the condition that the whole process of strategic planning and programming (this will be analysed later) is systematic, methodological, continuous, structured and collaborative so as to get the best out of the organization’s members.

2.6.5 *Process of Strategic Planning and Programming*

In the previous section, we mentioned that strategic planning includes activities that lead to the determination of targets and the choice of strategy for their achievement. The establishment of these strategies is actually the organization's destiny. Hence the result of the process is the development of strategic programmes.

In the sphere of strategic reality, when an organization obtains a strategy, management proceeds with the development of a programme that implements the specific strategy.

The formulation of a strategy and a strategic programme is not a matter of following a specific recipe or certain stages but is mainly a matter of rationally organizing knowledge and information in the direction in which the organization can be moved with continuous interventions (Papoulias, 2002). According to Papoulias (2002) there is not just one way of creating strategic programmes and strategies but many:

- First, because strategic programmes and strategies, by their nature, need to be adjusted to the needs and to the specific characteristics of the organization.
- Second, because if it were a straightforward procedure, it would simply be a recipe and not a strategy (p. 168).

However, in this book we may support the view that the rational formulation of strategic planning is based on five stages (Dubrin, 1997; Kanellopoulos, 1995; Naylor, 1999):

- *Investigation of the external environment.* Based on the systemic theory, we may claim that the external environment of an organization supplies resources (human and material) that will support it, independently of whether or not the organization is public (e.g. a school unit or enterprise). In the exchange of these resources, the organization ought to provide services and goods to the environment at affordable prices and good quality (Kanellopoulos, 1995). In order for this to happen, the organization's management needs to monitor any developments (social, ecological, etc.) that occur in the environment. In simple words, the management ought to gather, on a continuous basis, all the elements and knowledge that are necessary in order to properly organize the planning and programming. It is a continuous effort in the creation and development of strategies and strategic programmes (Papoulias, 2002, p. 164).
- *The mission.* Determining the organization's mission is a fundamental element of planning and programming (Daft, 2007; Koontz & Weihrich, 2010; Petridou, 1998). Considering that the external environment can change rapidly, it is rational that management reconsiders the mission according to the new environmental elements. Therefore the mission is a long-term vision relative to the one the organization is trying to attain (Kanellopoulos, 1995; Pearce & Robinson, 2011; Schermerhorn, 2011).
- *Targets of the organization.* This answers the question "what do we want to achieve?" An organization's targets stem out from the analysis of the first stage

of the planning procedures, namely, from an investigation into the challenges and perspectives of the external environment and the consequences of confronting the organization's strengths and weaknesses. In the practical sense, this means that an organization's targets should be actual and hence realistic, measurable and clear (Hill et al., 2015; Pearce & Robinson, 2011; Petridou, 1998).

- *Strategies of the organization.* After formulating the mission and targets, it is rational for the management to know where they are going. For this reason, the management develops a general plan that facilitates the organization in reaching its target. This plan consists of the organization's set of strategies (Hill et al., 2015; Kanellopoulos, 1995). According to Kanellopoulos, the role of strategy in strategic planning is the recognition of general approaches that the organization wishes to use so as to achieve its goals. In this process the organization's main direction is also determined (p. 107)
- *Formulation of strategic programmes.* At this stage of the process, the management proceeds to develop strategic programmes which are long term and are formulated by the upper management hierarchy. An example of a strategic programme is the school curriculum of a country. According to Dubrin (1997) there are four elements through which strategic programmes are turned into actions: *functional programmes, policies, procedures and rules.*¹ At this point it should be mentioned that for the proper management of an organization, whether public or private, all the organization's members are collectively responsible for the creation of functional programmes that must be harmonized with the strategic programmes. There is a direct relation between strategic programming and the programming formulated by all levels of the managerial hierarchy.

2.6.6 *Strategic Programming and Implementation of Changes in Education*

Definition of Change

Modern organizations (and hence schools) are obliged to carry out substantial changes concerning the manner in which they function in order to respond to the changes that occur in the external environment. Planning and programming in any change is part of upper management's activities regardless of the organization's mission.

¹*Operational plan* determines short-term activities for the implementation of strategic plans (Schermerhorn, 2011).

Policy is the general direction line that should be followed for the decision-making and actions of an organization (Dubrin, 1997).

Procedures or rules accurately describe actions that should be implemented and followed in particular situations (Schermerhorn, 2011).

But what is change? From time to time, there have been several definitions about the term “change”. But there has been no convergence in defining what constitutes change in an organization.

For Gareis (2010) “change has a strategic dimension” (p. 315). According to the same researcher, in order for change management to be facilitated, there should be a powerful variable such as the dynamics of an organization to control the environmental powers that will allow to reduce complexity.

Papalexandri and Buradas (2003) define organizational change as the transformation of the current situation into another (p. 442). Within this framework, change includes not only the meaning of the transformed organizational elements (such as structure, culture, etc.) but also the meaning of the transition from the current to the new situation. Daft (2007) defines organizational change as the adoption of a new idea or behaviour from another organization (p. 444).

From the above, we may say that organizational change is a subconscious dynamic process that incorporates ongoing changes to an organization’s current situation in order to arrive at a more desirable situation. This transition is in fact a process of adjusting and reconsidering the different elements (structure, procedures) of an organization in the light of new information to enable that organization to function in a more effective way.

Reasons that Enforce Change

Social organizations (and hence educational units) are forced to change due to a variety of factors. These organizations are established and operate within a complicated and changeable environment in which conditions can change radically. Hence, such adjustments become necessary so as to ensure an organization’s survival.

Factors that cause changes come from both external and internal environments. The external factors are mainly the following (Beer, 1980; Kefis, 2005; Mitchell, Dowling, Kabanoff, & Larson, 1992; Papadakis, 2009a, 2009b; Zavlanos, 2003):

Political/Legislative Sector For example, changes in the legislative framework that govern the staffing of school units, or indeed any educational institution, could impose changes. Also, a reduction in the budget for education due to a negative economic climate is likely to provoke a series of changes in school units.

Scientific and Technological Sector The pace of change in this sector is extremely high. As such, if an educational system intends to remain modern and effective, then it should be open to emerging tools and services in the external environment that could help achieve this. For this reason the central administration in education ought to be informed on a continual basis of relevant new educational and technological developments that are economically viable and then train educators accordingly so that the new technology/tool/service may be readily adopted in the school system.

The internal factors that may provoke change are mainly the following (Hill et al., 2015; Papadakis, 2009a, 2009b; Zavlanos, 2003):

- *Structure of the organization's system.* Control systems (e.g. the recruitment and resignation/retirement of educators as well as the flow of information) can influence the thinking of educational managers concerning the improvement of the school unit's performance.
- *Human capital.* The appointment of a new school head with a personal vision, or the appointment of new teaching members with innovative ideas, can be factors that will bring about changes in a school. Certainly such changes would be facilitated if they were accompanied with radical changes in educators' attitudes.

Based on the systemic theory, both external and internal factors which lead organizations to change are not independent but very often are interrelated since each organization is a subsystem of a wider one. In practice, this shows the complication of organizational changes but underlines the need for a global confrontation of the issue since a one-sided approach to change could result in the organization's failure.

Resistance to Change

The only way for an organization to have any certainty about the future is through continuous change and its ability to keep up with those changes by introducing new technologies, procedures, personnel, etc., where appropriate. The planning and programming of these changes depends to a large extent on their recognition. A frequent phenomenon concerning change is that its necessity becomes more and more apparent in periods of crisis as organizations adjust to their new environment in order to address their needs more optimally. Although change is a necessary part of life within an organization, most of the time, an organization's staff members are resistant to change. The main reason for this resistance is "the doubt concerning accuracy and the fear that this will create more problems" (Papadimitropoulos, 2008, p. 18). Hence, as Fullan (2010, p. 120) indicated, the reluctance to adopt something "new" stems mainly from the fact that "Along with a blind sense of urgency is a mounting 'pressure' without the means to act on it. This is pressure without a theory of action. It shows the failures and the goals but no way of getting there. . . Pressure without means can make for ridiculous goals". Independently of whether or not the change is gradual or radical, limited or strategic, nevertheless it tends to generate some resistance.

An organization's staff members may resist for a variety of reasons. Among the most significant are the following (Papalexandri & Buradas, 2003; Zavlanos, 2003):

Personal Level At this level, resistance is at its roots in basic human characteristics that include the fear of the unknown; any change will lead to a new set of circumstances so it is rational that people may have difficulties in perceiving the consequences that will result. Change creates in people a sense of uncertainty, and this in turn generates a feeling of fear that makes people resist change. Certainly such resistance from individuals does not occur for all changes, since there are cases (such as an increase in salaries, a reduction of working hours, etc.) that are clearly in favour of staff members.

- *Fear of losing established rights.* It is not only uncertainty that will cause resistance but also the feeling that valuable rights are being lost which brings job satisfaction, such as power, income, etc.
- *The force of habit.* Habit leads to an inertia that resists change. For example, changing the timetable of educators will possibly provoke resistance.
- *The loss of control.* Employees resist change when they believe that the change will diminish the control, responsibilities and duties they have concerning their work.
- *Fear of increased workload.* People react negatively to change when they believe that it will increase their workload. In their new set of circumstances, perhaps they will also need to develop new skills, methods, etc. The resistance of many employees towards technological change is characteristic in this regard.

Group Level At this level, resistance stems from groups (formal or informal) that are usually outside of the decision-making process, or they do not trust the central administration of the organization, or perhaps they see the change as a threat to economic interests, etc.

Organizational level. At this level the factors that account for resistance are (Katz & Kahn, 1978; Papadakis, 2009a, 2009b; Payne, 1993, 1995):

- The organization's structure (with a vertical lean)
- Operational reconsideration of the organization (job description, reward systems, training, etc.)
- Inaction of groups
- Organizational culture
- Threats (through the redistribution of power)
- Resource distribution

Focusing our interest in the field of education, West-Burnham (1990) mentions factors that generate resistance in the field:

- Conservative tendencies. Schools are conservative organizations. And this is because educators have the ability to assimilate changes in such a way so as to maintain their existing working methods. This happens not only in the classrooms but also in schools in general. The negative attitude of educators towards changes could be attributed (among other things) to the power of habit and current sense of security, as well as to the fear of losing power or status and an increased workload (Nadler, 1983, pp. 551–561).
- Resources. A change requires, among other things, the necessary economic resources for its implementation. Unfortunately, a frequent complaint among educators is that the demand for changes to be implemented is rarely accompanied by the necessary resources (Iordanides, 2006, p. 96).
- Weakness of school leadership. Many researchers in education have made a list of key factors for the effective functioning of schools, among which is school leadership. It is generally accepted that the quality of leadership behaviour is an important aspect of the school's effectiveness in the process of adapting to regular changes—a process considered necessary for their survival. Hence,

schools that fail to respond effectively to the introduction and implementation of important changes possibly do so due to poor leadership (Iordanides, 2006, p. 96).

Undoubtedly, the role of the school head in introducing and implementing new ideas is important, especially in decentralized educational systems. By contrast, in centralized educational systems, school heads do not have the power to operate freely and autonomously because they are functioning within a limited legislative framework that requires them to act more as executive organs and less as educational leaders.

Basic Elements for Successfully Adapting to Change in Education

In relevant literature, Kotter (2012) claims that “. . .the much bigger challenge is leading change. Only leadership can blast through the many sources of corporate inertia. Only leadership can motivate the actions needed to alter behavior in any significant way. Only leadership can get change to stick by anchoring it in the very culture of an organization” (p. 33). Hence leadership is accompanied by a high quality leadership since it is “leadership that has a set of process and creates organizations in the first place or adapts them to significantly changing circumstances” (Kotter, 2012, p. 28). Therefore, it is useful to emphasize in this section the basic conditions for effectively adapting to change in the field of education. Besides, it should not be forgotten that education does not only have a social and civil purpose but also has economic value since its contribution to increasing productiveness and production is crucially important (Saiti, 2013a). Due to the sensitivity of the educational sector, any change needs to be carefully interpreted and strategically planned so as to be properly implemented in a timely manner. The impact of the change on the system also needs to be assessed so as to provide a measure of the progress made. Indeed, the main purpose of a change is to bring qualitative improvements to the educational system, and in order for this to be achieved, there has to be equal emphasis on both the quantitative and qualitative elements of change in order to promote the initiatives and innovation of the system (Coburn, 2003; Elmore, 1996; Fullan, 2006, 2008, 2010; Hargreaves, 2002; Levin & Fullan, 2008; McLaughlin & Mitra, 2001; Saiti, 2013b).

The positive development of an educational system is determined by different factors, the starting point of which is the shaping of coherence around targets and techniques for strategic planning (Levin & Fullan, 2008; Saiti, 2013b). In particular, the basic elements that can contribute to the success of educational change are:

2.6.6.1 High-Quality Leadership

A key element in the introduction of change is the quality of leadership which, according to Kotter (1995, 2012), determines the future path of an organization, orients the staff members to this vision and motivates them to work towards it. In practice, a manager who leads an organization ought to have a global approach to

problems, to have new ideas and to suggest changes within a clarified ideological framework, within which the changes can take place.

Ideas provide new ways of bringing improvements to certain aspects of an organization, whether it be something general (e.g. a vision) such as creating a new image for the school in the eyes of society or something specific such as an improvement in educational services, etc. However, in general, these ideas do not have any hope of succeeding if there is not a sense of urgency to change. Despite the visible difficulties, a leader of change can overcome any resistance and create a sense of urgency so that all members understand and appreciate the need for that change. And this is because a leader is an individual who develops the vision and the strategies for adapting to changes that demand such a vision to be established. They also direct staff members towards that vision and, through words and actions, steer staff members in the direction that they should all follow so that their cooperation is ensured. In this way, all obstacles can be overcome (bureaucratic, organizational, etc.) through the satisfaction of basic human needs (Kotter, 1995, 2012).

By contrast, if a leader of an organization decides that a number of educational changes are needed and demands that the educational members just accept them, such an effort would lead to failure for at least two reasons: (a) because there was no substantial participation of educators in the decision-making process and (b) because educational changes are generally implemented by a variety of administrative and educational staff members and those who favour such changes tend to vastly outnumbered by those who oppose them. Therefore, central administration in education should keep in mind that the enforcement of educational policy in such way is completely inappropriate, especially in the present-day environment of interdependency. If this attitude does not change, then the consequences will undoubtedly be a disaster for the social and economical development of the country. Furthermore, the decision-makers in education should accept the fact that the days when the central administration was only needed to make decisions, and the educator was needed only to execute them, are over. Since educational changes cannot happen overnight, there should be a stable strategy that moves towards a philosophy of continuous improvement in all elements (subsystems) and procedures of the educational system.

From the above, it is clear that the effective implementation of an educational change requires qualitative leadership since only this type of leadership can, through national strategy and actions (that modern management defines), overcome all sources of inaction and resistance that exist in the educational system.

2.6.6.2 Constitution of a Powerful Group of Leaders to Manage Change

Education is a large and complicated sector and hence cannot be transformed by a single leader. Many people have to assist in the execution of administrative duties. Thus, in the sphere of administration, this means that there should be a powerful group of leaders to manage change, consisting of excellent scientists from different

disciplines who are knowledgeable in matters of education. And this is because (a) education is a sensitive sector in society and (b) the political establishment in developed countries has shown that, at least in educational matters, it is not ready for substantial changes. The members of the particular group should be ready to take critical decisions after an extended research study and to transfer the idea of change into plans and action programmes. In this way, any proposal of the group would be adopted much more easily by the educational community because the whole process would have been carried out on a scientific basis, and most importantly the political cost for the government and the chance of manipulation by the opposing political party(ies) would be minimized.

Hence, as Saiti (2013b) indicated, the planning, programming and implementation of an effective change are a result of a system of roles and responsibilities that educational members undertake as agents of change (p. 6). Rationally, the success of a particular change depends on the way the various groups or agents play their role. That said, time must be taken to motivate the relevant groups and make them understand the importance of change and ultimately to “assume ownership” of the change (Fullan, 2006, p. 13). Only then will the result be successful and be of benefit to the system (Borko, Wolf, Simone, & Uchiyama-Pippin, 2003; Fullan, 2005, 2006, 2006, p. 10; Fullan & Miles, 1992; Hargreaves, 2002; Hargreaves & Goodson, 2006; McLaughlin, 1990; Willis, 2010).

Within this framework, the particular group that manages change ought to:

- Act in a global and effective way in the implementation of research for the educational issues in order to realize the real weaknesses and shortfalls of the educational units. The planners of changes in education are obliged to consider the fact that the formation of educational policy does not constitute an isolated organizational and administrative procedure. On the contrary, it is part of the wider structural changes that take place at the societal level. Hence, a change in education should be based on a systematic approach, especially if one considers that the success of a change is based, among other things, on the linear, harmonized and coordinated elements of the educational system (Papalexandri & Buradas, 2003).
- Create a communication network for at least three purposes: *First*, to reach an agreement across the educational community on the content of the change in a timely manner through a substantial dialogue between the group members, educators and students in order to develop arguments for the benefits of change, to confront reactions and to facilitate practical issues for the implementation of the change. *Second*, to properly organize the procedure for the implementation of the change. Group members should define the lower hierarchical levels, what exactly should be done, how and when it should be done and by whom it should be implemented. *Third*, for the group members to have continuous feedback on the process as well as the results of the action programmes executed and, if needed, to proceed with any corrective steps.

The best possible effort should be put into altering employees’ attitudes towards change. And this is because the existence of positive organizational culture is the

basic component for the achievement of common decisions or values which will be shared or accepted by the central administration of education and the largest part of educators. Certainly the culture of an organization (and hence of an education institution) is directly linked to possible changes since:

- They include emotional and psychological elements, as the aim is to change situations and human relations that have existed potentially for many years.
- They are difficult since they demand fresh efforts for change in scientific fields, involving new types of collaboration and new commitments.
- They influence, on a personal level, the working environment and conditions.

Therefore, group members should create a climate for dialogue, free expression, creative critique and disagreement and, most importantly, reward the innovative and creative ideas of the educational staff members. They should not forget that in the educational field, there are no magic recipes and that education does not change with laws and rules but through conscious attitudes. However, there will be no significant changes in education in the long term if there is no change in attitude and educators remain unconvinced.

2.6.6.3 Stable Administrative and Economic Support

It was mentioned in previous sections that changes in education need to move forward based on a well-designed long-term strategy. According to this perception, and given that the duration of political decision-makers is rather short, the effective implementation of changes in education requires the management to be devoid of political interests for there to be a stable reform effort in education and continuous administrative support from each political party.

Apart from administrative support, the effective implementation of a change also requires the necessary budget to be secured because without adequate financial support, the change merely remains a statement of intention.

Based on the above, we may say that an important change in the educational field does not have to be approached as a sort of periodical act of magic, but as a long-term strategy, the success of which depends on governmental support, the design model, the behaviour/attitude of the educational members, the financial support available and certainly the abilities and experience of the decision-makers.

2.7 Planning and Good Time Management

The achievement of an organization's targets (and hence a school's targets) requires, among other things, good time management. Unfortunately many school heads tend to be in a state of panic; they are late for meetings, forget things and never seem to be available when needed. Others, on the other hand, seem to have a well-organized life, both personal and professional. Why? Simply because they

manage their time in a more appropriate way (Burt & Kemp, 1994; Claessens, van Eerde, Rutte, & Roe, 2007).

Good time management means:

- Writing your activities on a daily, weekly and monthly basis
- Ranking your issues in order of priority/significance
- Assessing the amount of time that each action demands
- Acting according to your diary

But How Should We Put Our Issues in Order of Significance?

Try this exercise: Based on the figure, identify the important and urgent issues of your school. The characterization of an issue as “important” or “non-important” and “urgent” or “nonurgent” is a managerial choice. It is good to rank issues according to criteria. This means that a manager should question:

- Why is this important? Because. . .
- Why is this important and urgent? Because. . .
- How much time is needed for the handling of the issue?

Hence, the time and the importance of the issues are two basic and crucial criteria for the implementation of our programme on a daily, weekly, etc. basis. The programme is implemented on condition that there will be no urgent matter to obstruct it. Hence, due to future uncertainty, school heads should set aside time on a daily basis for unexpected occurrences.

Distribution of time according to the nature of the duty

	Urgent	Nonurgent
Important	Crisis and problems: Give as little time as possible	Personal development and achievement of target
Unimportant	Do not give any time at all	Do not give any time at all

It is important to note that urgent and important school matters should be solved as soon as possible for two reasons (Bouradas, 2013; Burt & Kemp, 1994; Kotter, 2012; Payne, 1993, 1995): (a) the avoidance of a possible danger or other negative consequence and (b) more time for important but not urgent issues.

2.8 Techniques of Time Saving

Given that (a) being delayed often becomes a matter of habit which is then difficult to break and (b) the work of a school head is complicated and difficult, then it is good to be aware of certain practices that facilitate time saving.

Some of the practices in this direction are as follows:

- The school head should learn to say “no”. The “open door” policy may be theoretically well intended, but in practice it means that a lot of time is lost due to frequent work disruptions. There are school heads who accept every

interruption and never say “no” to their colleagues. And then there are school heads who always say “no” and insist on this practice. Clearly, the latter category of school heads always complete their work, but their colleagues accuse them of a lack of understanding and collegiality, and colleagues generally avoid them. These two types of behaviour are due to completely different reasons, but they are equally wrong! So it is good to decide which of the above two “sins” you are committing (Blanchard & Johnson, 1982 (cited by Claessens et al., 2007); Drucker, 1967). Of course the above scenarios represent the two extreme cases, and the ideal scenario would be a compromised approach: Do not say “no” in all cases, but when you do have to say “no”, say it but in a constructive way. Even when one of your colleagues presents you with a very serious problem, try to reconsider your programme in order to help. However, you should check that your colleague’s situation is indeed very serious and is not simply a false panic at work. If the problem is not serious and urgent, you should always explain why you cannot respond to their needs; this means you should explain the significance and urgency of your work. For the above reasons, the school head should “teach” educators not to interrupt them for no good reason and at the same time to convince them that they will make themselves available at particular times.

- School heads should confront uninvited visitors (e.g. parents) “skilfully”. In times of very heavy workloads, a manager wants to be alone so as to work without any disruptions. Unfortunately, though, in some difficult administrative moments, there might be unexpected and uninvited visits, and consequently the manager (in this case, the school head) might get confused and frustrated. The way a manager feels in these times is difficult to describe. . .you might have been in this position, and perhaps you may have said silently, “Oh no! this is just what I need right now. . .”. So if they come, they take a seat in front of you, and at that moment you know a conversation is about to begin that will go on for ages! The difficulty is when the visitor starts to talk, and you don’t have any idea how important the topic of conversation is. If it is important or urgent, then there is no problem—the disruption was worth it. But what will you do if the unexpected visitor wants to discuss about their holidays when you are desperately hurrying to prepare a presentation for your school, and it has to be ready the next day? The answer to this question is: do not allow them to get “comfortable” until you decide that their visit is absolutely justified. Do not offer chairs to visitors. . .you might try this: by the time you see that someone is coming. . .stand up. People are reluctant to sit while you are standing. Then you may say, “Good morning, what can I do for you?” From the answer you will understand what you need to know. Then you can offer them a chair or arrange a later meeting (Lakein, 1973 (cited by Claessens et al., 2007)).
- School heads should delegate duties to educators. Many school heads consider the delegation of duties/responsibilities to educators a difficult task since they feel either that they are overburdening their staff, or they may not be confident that the work will get done. Undoubtedly, when duties/responsibilities are delegated to inexperienced educators for the first time, you might discover that

you will need more time than you would have needed to do the job on your own. However, during the learning process, as you grow in confidence about the job your employees (educators in this case) are doing, you might consider that, in the not-too-distant future, your time will be freed up for you to handle other school administrative issues.

- Finally, school heads should organize their office appropriately, since a lack of organization consumes time “searching” for things. Furthermore, we should emphasize that the school head’s office is a place where many educators and students visit on a daily basis. Moreover, it is known that in order to achieve the best possible performance and result, it is crucially important to create the appropriate conditions that will allow us to work comfortably. For this reason (and this reason alone), whether the school head’s office is large or small, it should always be impressive, clean and well organized. In this way, time delays are minimized. Indeed it is worth noting that many school heads lose effectiveness because their office is untidy. They spend time searching for things and then neglect to read important documents. The drawers of the office should be organized in a way that directly facilitates the work. Also, special care should be given to the lighting in the office because this will facilitate to a large extent our alertness and concentration.

Therefore, maintaining an organized and tidy office should be a top priority for the school head which, together with all the above factors, aims to create a favourable natural environment that consequently facilitates the administrative work.

2.9 Case Studies

Case Study 1: Resistance of Educators to Changes Suggested by the School Head

Mr. F has been a school head in a secondary school for more than 12 years. The school has 25 educators, out of whom 10 are from the same area in which the school is located. Some of those educators were students in the same school together with Mr. F when they were young since Mr. F grew up in the same area.

Last June, Mr. F and three of the educators left the school to retire. Ms. P was appointed the new school head, and, at the beginning of September, three new educators were appointed to the school.

During the first 4 months, as the new school head, Ms. P thought that the school needed some changes as regards students’ discipline, school-family relations and the introduction of new innovations to the school, among other things.

After a series of meetings with the teaching staff and parents’ council, Ms. P believed that the changes she suggested could be implemented. However, the teaching staff strongly resisted implementing any of the changes. In fact, one

educator with many years' experience in the same school supported the view that "the school is functioning just fine, so why do we have to introduce changes?"

When this final meeting with the teaching council ended and she saw the educators leaving the meeting room, Ms. P had the impression that her colleagues' lack of cooperation was attributed to the influence of an informal group of educators that she suspected had been unofficially governing the school for years.

Now, based on the above, ask yourself the following questions:

1. For what reasons did the members of the teaching council reject the suggested changes?
2. Why has Ms. P attributed the rejection to the influence of an informal group of educators?
3. How could Ms. P win the educators' "commitment" to implementing the suggested changes?

Case Study 2: Good Time Management

Last Thursday a school head, Mr. A, invited all school heads of the educational district to his school for a meeting. During this meeting many school heads had the chance to exchange views about the problems they faced at their schools.

Among the numerous exchanges, there was a discussion between Ms. M and Mr. K in which Ms. M raised the point of a lack of time.

"Unfortunately", Mr. K replied, "we (as school heads) do not have much time because our time tends to belong to everyone else!"

"And how do you stay on top of everything at your school?", asked Ms. M.

"At the beginning", Mr. K said, "I had many difficulties. Later, however, I happened to read the book entitled *The Effective Executive* by Peter Drucker, and after reading the book, I came to the conclusion that without time planning, it is very difficult for school heads to respond effectively to their duties".

"I agree", continued Ms. M, "if we can't manage time rationally we can't manage anything else!"

Now, based on the above, ask yourself the following question: If you were Mr. K, what advice would you give Ms. M in order for her to make better use of her time?

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Chapter 3

Decision-Making and Problem Solving

Abstract Decision-making is a fundamental activity that significantly influences the efficiency of an organization. That is because this activity is at the heart of management in every typical organization. Therefore, one of the key prerequisites for an educational leader is to have effective decision-making skills.

During an average working day, a school head makes different kinds of decisions, regardless of their importance. Indeed, within the wider framework of a school unit's activities, the resolution of problems and the decision-making are two fundamental elements that assess, to a significant degree, the effectiveness of the school's performance. Consequently, it is absolutely necessary for all educational leaders to understand the process of decision-making and of resolving problems, since the sheer existence of schools (and indeed all typical organizations) depends on their decision-making processes. This chapter:

- Analyses the meaning, types and the procedures for effective decision-making
- Outlines suggestions (e.g. careful assessment of the credibility of information) on how to avoid wrong decisions
- Emphasizes human weakness in the decision-making process (e.g. when a manager puts too much emphasis on the initial information and does not assess whether or not it is creditable)
- Examines the meaning of the term “problem” and also summarizes the process and methods of problem solving in the field of education
- Presents case studies related to the school reality

Key Chapter Concepts

- Decision-making is the responsibility of all managers in an organization. Hence, it is absolutely necessary for all education managers to understand the decision-making process since school organizations (as with every typical organization) owe their continued existence to their decision-making.

(continued)

- Both personal and group decisions have disadvantages and advantages. Therefore, there is no “one-size-fits-all” decision-making strategy that can be applied to all the managerial actions of an organization. Indeed, any given decision is influenced by many factors, among which is the degree of uncertainty in that given situation.
- The “correct” decision-making method is the one that leads to a creditable and qualitative solution, one to which the people will be committed to implementing to the greatest extent.
- It is not enough for a decision to be rational and to show the best way of achieving the intended goal. More factors need to be considered such as the school’s environment, which can influence or even prevent desired outcomes from being achieved.
- An effective solution to a problem depends on the availability of information on which the decision is based. More specifically, it depends on the solution chosen from among the alternatives. Furthermore, we cannot find effective solutions if we do not know the root of the problem, nor can we assess solutions if we do not know their limitations or aims.

3.1 The Meaning of “Decision”

Decision-making is an interesting and important skill because it determines the future of an individual. For this reason, we should take great care with the decisions we make. Certainly, we have all regretted an important choice at some stage in our lives. In the case of school heads who deal with organizational matters, human resources and control issues, they inevitably encounter dilemmas deriving from conflicting situations. In simple words, the function of decision-making affects all the other managerial functions: planning-programming, organizing, direction (leadership) and control.

Based on the above, a question arises: what do we mean by the word “decision”? While several definitions exist, in this book we will refer to two of them. The first considers a “decision” to be the preferred procedure among alternatives for the achievement of some aim (Dittmer & McFarland, 2007; Drucker, 1967; Simon, 1974). This definition clearly underlines the existence of an action process that aims to give the best possible result in view of the alternatives. Certainly, it is important to know whether or not alternatives exist for a given problem.

The second definition considers a “decision” to be the process by which solutions to a problem are sought which address the organization’s targets (Kosiol, 1962). This definition states the existence of a systematic action or procedure and its connection with the problem-solving approach of an organization. Indeed, the impact of a decision is key since a decision that is not implemented is not a decision at all but is, at best, merely a good intention (Drucker, 1967; Hoy & Miskel, 1987).

Regardless of which definition is adopted, interesting issue is whether or not the choice of a particular option yields the best possible result compared to the other options in any given context (Dittmer & McFarland, 2007; Macrydimitris, 1989). If, for example, someone wants to get from their residence to their place of work some distance away, they might have four alternatives (to go by bus, bike, car or motorbike), so the rationale would be to choose the option that succeeds in reaching the target in the most effective way (according to the person's priorities/constraints in terms of time, cost and comfort). Considering that each alternative has different prerequisites and consequences, the effectiveness of the decision is influenced by the set of consequences for each available alternative as well as by the available resources that the person has in order to make their decision. Such a procedure seems straightforward; it simply requires that we are aware of all the factors that could affect our decision. In the case of managers, however, the situation in practice can be quite different since managers often find themselves taking decisions without knowing essential information associated with the problem and the desired outcome. Koontz, O'Donnell, and Weihrich (1982) considered that full rationality can rarely be achieved in management since:

- Decisions are for the future and the future is characterized by uncertainty.
- It is often impossible to have all the alternatives at one's disposal that could lead to the realization of the goal.
- You cannot analyse all the alternatives even with the most modern techniques available.

The above limitations often force managers of an organization to take either "satisficing" or "convenient" decisions (Simon, 1957, p. 198). In simple words, managers take their decisions within a framework of limited rationality in which the size and the nature of the risk involved exists in a climate of uncertainty.

To conclude, decision-making is a huge responsibility for all managers in an organization. Therefore, the understanding of its procedure is absolutely necessary for all managers in education because school organizations (like all others) owe their existence to effective decision-making.

3.2 Types of Decision-Making

Managerial decisions within an organization fall into different categories. These include:

Degree of Stability

According to this category, decisions are distinguished as either scheduled or unscheduled. Scheduled decisions concern the "structured" (or routine) problems of an organization and are taken according to a specific procedure (Daft, 2007; Dubrin, 1997; Robbins, 1976; Simon, 1960). It is about problems that had similar characteristics in the past and consequently can be confronted in advance.

Unscheduled decisions concern new and complicated organizational problems that can be described as unpredictable situations (Armstrong, 2006; Daft, 2007; Dittmer & McFarland, 2007; Dubrin, 1997; Kanellopoulos, 1995; Simon, 1960). These are problems that rarely occur, and for this reason, the organization tends to have only limited experience and therefore is not likely to have an existing protocol for their solution. For these types of problems to be confronted, managers require a high level of decision-making ability. Such decisions in the field of education are usually taken in response to isolated incidents, for example, violent/improper behaviour by an individual or group on school premises that threatens to disrupt the infrastructure and/or the functionality of the school.

Number of People Participating in the Decision-Making Process

According to this category, decisions are distinguished into individual and group (or collective) decisions. Individual decisions are taken by a manager and are based on whatever information is available at the time. Individual decisions tend to be made in real time, and in the case of capable and well-trained managers, there are many ways of recognizing an organization's problems promptly so as to make appropriate and timely decisions. However, there are situations where the personality of a manager can have a negative impact on the effectiveness of decisions made. For example, a careful, conservative manager tends to choose a low-risk solution. Group (or collective) decisions are taken by a group of people such as a teaching council. On the one hand, group decisions have an advantage over individual ones for a number of reasons. Firstly, they tend to have greater accuracy/appropriateness since they combine the knowledge of many people; secondly, many alternatives are produced; thirdly, such decisions are better respected by employees; and fourthly, the process of group decision-making is more in accordance with democratic values (Deetz & Brown, 2004; Dittmer & McFarland, 2007; Dubrin, 1997; Hytiris, 2006; Paritsis, 1989; Saiti & Eliophotou-Menon, 2009; Schermerhorn, 2011; Zavlanos, 1998). On the other hand, collective decisions are usually time-consuming and characterized by a lack of individual responsibility. Such a climate does not help the decision-making process. Certainly some disagreement is useful so long as they are not personal/emotional attacks. A technique for the avoidance of unpleasant situations, e.g. a conflict between two educators, is to use a table: You ask all those present to give his/her perception or view and then ask them to write it down on paper and leave it on the table. In order to ensure that all points of view are heard, do not allow anyone to interrupt, before proceeding to the writing stage. This control measure usually leads to soothed spirits and a calmer climate and encourages opposing sides to "think before you talk" instead of allowing a difference of opinion to develop into a personal attack.

Let us refer to another drawback of the collective decision: Have you ever felt like giving your individual opinion during a meeting of a teaching council but have held back? For the vast majority, the answer is likely to be "yes". You do not say anything, and, instead, you nod your head to show that you agree with the proposals. You do not want to be perceived as "the disagreeable one", even if you are absolutely sure about your different approach, but there is a chance the others might

be right. So you remain silent. If everyone does the same then we are faced with a pitfall of group thought: A team of clever people making potentially bad decisions because everyone adjusted their individual view to a perceived common agreement. So they can end up taking decisions that each individual member would normally have rejected. This can happen due to the phenomenon of social proof whereby it is generally accepted that “I behave correctly if I behave like the others”. Subsequently, the more that people like an idea, the more the idea seems the most suitable—a fact which is naturally insane (Dobelli, 2013). To avoid these situations, each proper member of a collective body should always tell his/her opinion, even if some of the members are not happy to hear it.

From the above, it is clear that both individual and team decisions have advantages and disadvantages—implying that neither of the above types of decisions can, on their own, be considered the ideal tool for determining all the managerial activities of an organization. At this point, it is important to note that an effective decision is influenced by a number of factors:

- **Certainty:** a manager makes a decision on a given problem of the organization after having seen all the relevant information available and hence can be reasonably confident of the outcome.
- **Uncertainty:** a manager is not aware of all the alternatives available and their consequences. Hence, the decision that is made is based on limited information.
- **Risk:** a manager associates each alternative and its cost with an estimate for its possibility of success. The risk is often expressed as a probability.

The question then arises: For a given problem, must a decision be taken individually or by a team? The relevant literature (Vroom, 1973; Vroom & Jago, 1988) supports the view that “clever” managers frequently shift between individual and team decisions so as to approach an organization’s problems in the best possible way. For example, when a school head has to make an individual decision, they will tend to follow school procedures and make the decision through participative leadership, i.e. meet with their subordinates and discuss the matter with them before making the decision. Let us not forget that the “right” means of decision-making is the one which leads to a creditable and qualitative outcome, but also one that yields decisions which people (affected by those decisions) will largely be committed to implementing (Dittmer & McFarland, 2007; Maier, 1967).

Decision types may be distinguished according to managerial level:

- **Strategic decisions**—those taken by the upper hierarchical level and which steer the organization’s direction
- **Operating decisions**—those taken by the lower hierarchical levels and which facilitate the implementation of the organization’s targets (as determined by the upper managerial levels)

They may also be characterized as:

- **Rational**—where the best option is chosen among the available alternatives, according to a rational thought.

- Creative—where the initiation of innovative approaches and ideas is cultivated. Techniques such as brainstorming and brainwalking cannot be considered as tools of decision-making but as techniques for producing ideas that help a manager to make creative decisions. The conditions for the success of these techniques are: the choice of team coordinator, team members should cover different scientific sections, team members should be creditable and the number of members in the team should be no greater than 12 (Robbins & Judge, 2012).
- Rapid—it is broadly accepted that, on average, 80% of our decisions fall into this category.

For example, someone asks you if they can take a day of leave tomorrow or if they can borrow the laptop for 2 h. While there are people who would take time to think in detail and in depth about each of these questions, most of us would react almost automatically and impulsively to such requests as we are driven by our instincts. In other words, our immediate reaction would seem completely natural at that moment in time. So what is the problem? An overly detailed contemplation could lead to the same result as the immediate reaction, while a delayed decision could result in undesirable consequences. On the other hand, a rapid approach with an almost impulsive reaction could be erroneous and cause more problems than perhaps it solves. As an ancient Greek historian Thucydides once said, “two things are opposite in correct decision making, haste and anger”. The instinct for decision-making may be a rational process but is nevertheless one where our mind is not working in an analytical way but in a synthetic one. So what we need is an approach that will both secure the quality of our thoughts and their speed. That said, it is worth noting that a rapid decision does not necessarily mean a momentary decision (Payne & Payne, 1999). Usually there is no time for thinking, even for a brief moment. Most of the time, the instinctive choice is simple: either “Yes” or “No”.

Now try this exercise: train yourself to make quick decisions by considering these two questions:

1. What are the substantive criteria for your decision?
2. What are the basic risks of your decision?

Suppose, for example, it is Friday . . . and you ask to borrow my laptop for the weekend. Implementing this idea, I would then think:

I have a report to finish for my school head by midday. If I answer “Yes” to your request, then I will not have access to it, and it would be rather impossible for me to finish the report. If I answer “No” however, I might seem to you to be uncooperative.

Conclusion: I agree to lend you my laptop.

Let us now suppose that the financial manager of an organization that recently hired you makes you two proposals and requires an answer from you within the next half hour: The first proposal is a one-off payment of 15,000 euros; the second proposal is for you to have an additional 10 min off on Mondays, an additional 20 min on Tuesdays, 40 min on Wednesdays, 80 min on Thursdays and 160 min on Fridays. Which of the two proposals you will choose?

3.3 Decision-Making Process

Decision-making in social organizations and hence in school units is a daily process. In practice, it is rather difficult for managers to recognize the problem because (a) it involves subjective assessment which is well known to be a critical element in decision-making and (b) in many cases, there are only indirect indications of an organization's problems. In our example, a school head who is only interested in monitoring the educators' attendance record rather than the reason for their absence shows that he/she only cares about the functioning of the school and is not willing to identify the root (or roots) of the problem—one that will remain until the school head determines the factors that caused it and has taken appropriate action. Certainly, the issue of absences (e.g. health problems) might initially appear to be "seasonal". However, the roots of it could be completely different, such as a bad working environment, an authoritative leadership style, etc. Hence, as long as the school head is focusing only on the symptom instead of the real problem, the number of educators' absences will continue to be more than is necessary. Therefore, determining the problem is the first and most important step in the rational decision-making process, or as Taylor III (2010) put it " . . . the problem must be clearly and concisely *defined*. Improperly defining a problem can easily result in no solution or an inappropriate solution" (p. 3).

Development of Alternatives

After determining what the problem is, the manager then ought to gather elements and information that will be helpful in resolving it. By "information" we mean a set of data that can facilitate the decision-making process. Hence, organization managers continually need accurate and reliable information. According to Schermerhorn, (2011), information that is really useful in management should be:

- Timely and readily available when you need it so that appropriate decisions and actions can be taken within prescribed deadlines.
- High quality, accurate and creditable so that it can be used with certainty.
- Comprehensive for each mission and as up to date as possible.
- Relevant and appropriate for each mission so that time is not wasted on irrelevant material.
- Understandable, clear and sufficient for the user; unnecessary details should be avoided (p. 171).

Information helps managers to note down and analyse alternatives. By the term "alternatives" we mean all the possible paths (or proposals) which could lead to the resolution of the final problem (Dittmer & McFarland, 2007; Dubrin, 1997; Koontz et al., 1982; Taylor III, 2010). Based on this perception, for each problem, there is more than one alternative or proposal. Some could be quickly implemented and more economically viable but less effective compared to others and vice versa. Hence, not only does each alternative have different consequences, costs and preconditions but also the manager should approach each problem from different perspectives. Indeed, as has been noted, "where it seems that there is only one way

for something to happen, that way is possibly wrong” (Koontz et al., 1982, p. 239). Even when it is not possible for a manager to have a clear perspective on an organization’s problem, the indication is that an individual’s decision ensues without any attention given to circumstances.

As concerns alternatives, writers such as Lucey (2005) stated that, for each problem, it is necessary for the one who decides to mention and explore a number of alternatives. Furthermore, there are some writers who supported the view that “the more alternative solutions there are, the better the final choice will be” (Zevgaridis, 1978, p. 292). While identifying the alternatives, a manager may confront obstacles such as:

- Limitations (political, economical, legislative, etc.)—factors that limit the decision maker’s degree of freedom when specifying the alternatives
- Uncertainty, which characterizes the outcome of some or all of the proposals (Dekleris, 1989, pp. 90–91) since decisions relate to the forecasting of future events or circumstances

Such obstacles require the individuals who develop appropriate alternatives to have experience and creativity.

For identifying and assessing the alternatives, we use different quantitative and nonquantitative techniques. One of the most widely known and practised techniques is brainstorming. According to this technique, a group of people (who ideally have not previously cooperated very closely) are asked to gather all their thoughts on a particular problem within a given time frame under the guidance of a supervisor/coordinator. This method is not an alternative managerial decision-making tool but rather a technique for gathering new and different ideas for solutions based on the relevant information of the organization. In particular, the success of brainstorming is about the supervisor guiding the creation of new ideas and then ranking them according to the degree to which they can be implemented on a practical level (in terms of cost, time, legislative commitments, etc.). The effective implementation of the above technique is based on certain rules, such as a predetermined problem, a time limitation and the forbidding of any criticism of ideas contributed to the proposed solution(s) (Georges, Efthimiadou, & Tsytos, 1998). Moreover, it is based on preconditions such as an appropriate choice of group members (in relation to the topic of the discussion), the ability of the coordinator to lead the discussion in the brainstorming session and the number of the group members, which cannot be too large. Ideally the group should be made up of between 3 and 12 specialists who have been provided with the background information necessary to contribute effectively to the main aims and objectives of the discussion (Robbins & Judge, 2012).

It should be mentioned that Kevin and Shawn Coyne, in their book entitled *Brainsteering: A Better Approach to Breakthrough Ideas* (2011), proposed the replacement of brainstorming with the technique of brainsteering. According to the above researchers, this technique is more focused on particular questions and demands greater preparation compared to the more traditional brainstorming.

Moreover, they supported the view that brainstorming is more likely to be successful if the management in an organization takes the following steps:

- Step 1: the head of the brainstorming activity should have good knowledge of the criteria an organization uses in order to make decisions.
- Step 2: raise the right questions.
- Step 3: choose the right people for such a meeting.
- Step 4: create small groups of people (three to five) when the set of ideas is rather large.
- Step 5: orientate the subgroup meetings so that not more than two or three ideas emerge from each question.
- Step 6: gather the ideas from all the subgroups without naming which group is the winner.
- Step 7: implement the ideas consistently, i.e. those selected should all be actioned directly and fully (Damoulianou, 2011).

The Choice of Best Alternative

If we think rationally, choosing the best proposal constitutes a careful comparison between the pros and cons of all the available alternatives. For this to happen, the relative managerial organ should consider the following questions:

- To what degree does each alternative contribute to the achievement of the organization's target(s)?
- What, if any, are the undesirable consequences of implementing each alternative?
- Is it feasible to implement each alternative (in terms of cost, popular support/acceptance, etc.)?

It is clear that the proposal which generates the most positive answers will be considered by the decision maker to be potentially the most fruitful and hence provide the best solution. However, choosing the best alternative is a difficult managerial job since each decision tends to be made through a combination of personal and professional circumstances and is always taken with a level of uncertainty. Moreover, the more alternatives there are, the more negatively the decision maker is influenced since it causes stress and frustration. This is the phenomenon of the "choice paradox". As Schwartz (2004) explained, this phenomenon is evident when the supply (in our case, the number of alternatives) is rather large; then, the individual often remains indecisive and prefers not to "buy" any of the options or else ends up making a bad choice. Hence, in situations where our decisions (private or professional) are likely to have a significant impact, we ought to be as rational as possible and to keep our thoughts firmly on the basic choice criteria. Indeed, we should not forget that the art of correct thinking demands much time and energy (Dobelli, 2013).

So how should a manager confront situations that cause dilemmas? Basically, dilemmas are evident when an individual is faced with a choice that might be in accordance with some values or desires but at the same time is also in conflict with

others (Bouradas, 2013). When faced with these situations, a school manager ought to:

- Rank values by considering what is worth more (e.g. accuracy or friendship) and to act accordingly.
- Examine whether or not a particular choice will create any more difficulties in the future.
- Find a clever solution in which the chosen option satisfies both sides at the same time.

For example, a school head could be faced with the dilemma of whether to propose to the teachers' council a heavy punishment for a student with violent behaviour or to propose something else that ensures student conformation and the smooth functioning of the school. In any case, the school head ought to make all the previous considerations (ranking values, examining whether or not the choice will create limitations for the future, etc.).

It is worth mentioning that, at this stage, a decision must be made on the preferred path of action. This stage determines exactly how the decision will be implemented and who will be responsible for solving the problem successfully. Management theory recognizes substantial differences between classical and behavioural decision-making models (Table 3.1).

In the classical model of decision-making, the manager acts with rationality in a certain world. The hypothesis foresees that a rational choice of suggested actions will be made by a decision maker that has been fully informed of all possible alternatives. In this case, a manager confronts a sufficiently determined problem and knows all the possible alternative actions as well as their consequences. As a result, he or she makes an optimal decision which offers the best possible solution to the problem (Schermerhorn, 2011, p. 172).

On the other hand, behavioural scientists have expressed doubts about the hypothesis of perfect information on which the classical model is based. They point out the intellectual limitations of human information processing. These limitations prevent managers from being fully informed and hence from making optimal decisions. They create a bounded environment in which managerial decisions are rational only within these limits which are themselves oriented to the available information and the known alternatives—neither of which are perfect.

The behavioural decision model supposes that humans act according to circumstances, as they are perceived for a given situation. Since these perceptions are usually not perfect, the individual who makes the decision can only have partial knowledge of the actionable alternatives and their consequences. Therefore, it is quite possible for the decision maker to choose the first alternative that appears to give a satisfactory solution to the problem. Simon (1956) called it a “satisficing decision”. The behavioural decision model is permitting organizations “to select specific paths that lead with certainty, or with very high probability, to a need-satisfying point” (Simon, 1956, p. 136).

Table 3.1 Differentiations between the classical and behavioural decision models (Schermerhorn, 2011, p. 172)

Classical model Structural problem Sufficient determination Stable environment Integrated information Knowing all alternatives and their consequences	Rationality Manager acting in a perfect world as a decision maker	Behavioural model Unstructured problem Not sufficiently determined Unstable environment No full information Not knowing all alternatives and their consequences
Optimizing decision Choice of the best solution among alternatives	Oriented rationality Act within known limitations	Pleasant decision Choose the first “satisfactory” alternative

Implementation of a Chosen Decision

Even if all the previous stages of the decision-making process are correctly carried out, the degree of its implementation is the critical issue which either characterizes a decision as “good” or reduces it to being simply the best of good intentions. Hence, it is not enough for a decision to be rational and to indicate the best way of achieving the desired goal. Consideration also needs to be given to the factors (e.g. expenditures, environmental conditions, etc.) which in some way influence or prevent the desired result from being achieved.

But what should the management of an organization do in order to implement a decision effectively?

Initially, there needs to be careful planning to involve people with the necessary determination and to put in place the material resources needed for its implementation. At the same time, there also needs to be good cooperation among the different services and certainly effective coordination and control. The details of the implementation process should be clarified: who will do it, as well as where, how and when it will be done. Furthermore, a communication network is required in which the person responsible for policy implementation can be continually informed of the decision’s execution and its outcome. Finally, the successful implementation of a decision requires stable leadership—one that is continually involved in the policy planning of the organization but also one that has the organization’s ongoing support.

Assessment of the Result

Assessing the outcome of a decision taken is the final stage of a rational decision-making process. In this stage, the management examines, according to criteria, whether or not the decision has been successfully executed and if it resulted in a satisfactory solution to the relevant problem. More specifically, the assessment mechanism determines the extent to which the goal has been achieved, the factors that have contributed to the success or failure of the decision’s implementation and the degree to which the problem has been resolved.

The process of assessing a decision’s outcome is a useful managerial action because, through this mechanism, managers are able to:

- Monitor all the organization's activities and then to respond to any deviations from the plans.
- Gain more experience in decision-making, which is a fundamental and crucial factor in making better and more rational decisions in the future.

3.4 Remarks on the Decision-Making Process

In practice, the above procedure is rational and therefore should:

- Avoid being influenced by our personal preferences, which can lead to wrong choices. The answer is to apply criteria before making a choice. These criteria should describe the ideal scenario that we desire. It is usually helpful to rank these criteria (both fundamental and desirable) in order of importance. For example, if we buy a house, some of the criteria we could use are: "I cannot pay more than 100,000 dollars. Moreover, I should have three bedrooms. I would like the house to be close (within a 15-minute walk/drive) from the underground station and the school . . . ". Certainly, there is nothing bad about including our personal preferences in our criteria but on condition that they are properly defined (and within the legislative framework!).
- Always consider the risks and benefits. A proper decision-making process should be objective, and this involves considering both the risks and benefits of each choice we make. We should mention here that although we are aware of what is theoretically required to make the perfect choice, this is often practically impossible, firstly because we often do not have all the available information and secondly because making mistakes is simply part of our human nature!
- Carefully examine the credibility of the information. Managers tend to trust the credibility of the available information and thus insist on relying completely on that information while neglecting other facts that perhaps could have led to a more appropriate alternative being chosen. Moreover, instead of saying "I have the information I need to decide on option A or option B", you should say "I have all the fundamental information to make a justifiable decision". Why? Simply because we will rarely have gathered all the information on our desires (preferences).
- Finally, we should create alternatives by comparing the pros and cons of each solution. But if we are all doing the same thing, then why do our choices differ so much? Because each person has a predetermined perception on a given matter which is very difficult to change. Have you ever been at a meeting in which you had decided on a certain issue and at the same time felt incapable of understanding why someone was so opposed to the choice that you or somebody else supported? Most people would claim this difference is just down to a person's "personal judgement" or the "presupposed position". In practical terms, each person tends to believe that their own judgement is the right one. That is why

views and perceptions from one person to the next will always show some variation.

It is true that people will tend to lean towards either the advantages or the disadvantages of any given solution. Someone with a pessimistic attitude will end up perceiving more disadvantages than advantages, whereas the one with an optimistic attitude will see the benefits outweighing the risks. Hence, each person type will tend to favour a different option.

If you find yourself in such a situation in the future, try to find a mutually agreeable way of objectively assessing both the advantages and disadvantages of all available options, perhaps by ranking them or by grading them as low, satisfactory or high. Remember that numbers should provide the means of making your judgement. This seems to work much better than an emotional argument that inevitably results in a dead end, especially if the disagreeing parties try to justify why they are judging the situation in a particular way (Bouradas, 2013). It should be emphasized at this point that people's values determine their preferred alternatives A or B. In other words, each one is being influenced by the perception that they have developed of what is right and wrong. Hence, when one person values integrity more highly than friendship and another gives more value to friendship than integrity, it is rational for each one to end up making different choices. The text below is a characteristic example of preferences between alternatives A, B and C.

Suppose that you are with your best friend/soul mate in their car and they accidentally kill a person while driving. You are the only witness. If you report it to the police your friend will go to jail. If you not declare it to the police no-one will ever find it out. So what are going to do? When a sample of Finish people were asked what they would do in such a case, more than 90% answered that they would report it to the police, even if it meant their best friend going to jail. Would the Greeks have done the same in this case? No, only 17% of the Greeks questioned indicated they would go to the police (and many of those were not sure if they would have done so in a real situation). Think however: why does this difference exist in the percentages between Finish and Greeks? In such a scenario, what is it that has determined what is right and what is wrong? Certainly, there are differences in attitudes and values. For Finish people, the value of integrity counts much more than friendship whereas, for Greeks, friendship is valued much more highly than integrity . . . (Bouradas, 2013).

3.5 Human Weakness in Decision-Making

As we have already mentioned, (a) a problem requires us to consider and define the desirable scenario (goal), yet the data reflect the current situation, and (b) its solution presupposes a certain procedure (determination of the problem, development of alternatives, selection of the best solution, implementation of the chosen decision and assessment of the result).

In practice, however, when a manager follows the above procedure, due to human nature, certain difficulties emerge in the process. According to Paritsis (1989), there are three factors that somehow affect a manager during the decision-making process:

- First, possibly for reasons related to an individual's development history, they tend to put great emphasis on the first information they receive. Much research has shown that once a person has gone through the first round of information gathering and they have a problem to solve, then, before attempting to gather any more information, they tend to try and solve the problem straight away, based on the initial information gathered.
- Second, in order for a manager to make decisions, they mainly tend to consider information that impresses them and that seems to be important, without attempting to find out if this information is up to date and creditable.
- Third, a manager tends to use the knowledge they have accumulated over the years, mostly through personal experience, and then tries to make comparisons between these personal experiences and what is happening now.

From the above, it is clear that people in general (managers in this case) try to solve a problem quickly but with minimal information. This certainly is a drawback because we know that the more information we have available to us, the greater the possibility is of reaching a more appropriate decision. Hence, in order for a manager to solve a problem, they should depend on creditable and useful information and not exclusively on their feelings and experiences.

3.6 Our Life Depends on Our Decisions or Is It a Matter of Luck?

We can look back at the past and consider big decisions that have determined our future. In referring to these decisions, many people talk about their "good" or "bad" luck. Others support the view that each individual creates their own luck. Certainly, some gain more money by picking the winning numbers in the lottery, whereas the vast majority usually lose their money in such games of luck. There are those who, through their will and pertinacity, are the source of much creativity and innovation, whereas there are many others who resist change.

From the above, it is evident that decision-making is not only an important managerial function but also hides an unexplained mystery. Questions arise: Do our decisions determine our future? Are our decisions an expression of our personal freedom or are they just part of the greater scheme of things (our destiny)?

It is true; there are certain things that people do not choose such as their parents, the time and place of their birth or their social status in childhood. In these cases, we talk about the factor of "luck". Without forgetting the above limitations, we may say that we shape our future through our choices. This means that each of us is free to choose the alternative that we assume to be the best option, regardless of whether the particular choice we make proves to be bad for us in the future (Bouradas, 2013). Indeed we only recognize a bad choice in hindsight, namely, when we realize that it was not the best choice we could have made. Therefore, instead of dismissing a negative outcome as "bad luck", it is better for us to wonder "Why did

I take that decision? Did I have enough information and was it creditable?" In other words, a decision cannot be assessed by examining the outcome alone but by examining the decision-making process itself.

Based on the above and considering that (a) people do not intentionally make wrong decisions, (b) a decision is for the future which is uncertain and (c) the effectiveness of decisions moves within the sphere of possibilities, it becomes difficult to give the above questions an objective and commonly accepted answer.

From our experience, we understand that success in life is a combination of certain parameters that include:

- The dedication and commitment of a person working to achieve the desired target.
- Luck, which we try to swing in our favour

We finish this section with a question. Are we the product of our destiny or do we create our destiny? What do you think?

3.7 Definition and Solution of a Problem

3.7.1 Definition of a Problem

We have mentioned previously in this chapter that the problem lies in the difference between the desired situation and the real one. The solution of a problem presupposes its correct definition which requires us to understand the problem's roots, limitations and scope. We should mention that the extent to which a problem is successfully resolved depends on the type of information used for making the decision. Indeed, we cannot find alternative solutions if we do not know the roots of the problem, and neither can we assess the solutions if we do not know their limitations and the targets (Armstrong, 2006; Payne & Payne, 1999).

3.7.2 Procedure for Resolving a Problem

In order to resolve a problem, we should adopt the following procedure:

- (1) Clearly distinguish the root of the problem from the solution.

For example, the central heating system in a school could malfunction for a variety of reasons:

- A filter is missing.
- The plumber has not put a filter in place.
- The pump has got stuck.

In our example, what is the main reason why the central heating has a problem? The pump needs replacing? A filter needs to be put in place? The plumber needs to be properly trained? (The solution to the above problem is: ask the plumber to put a filter in the system and then replace the plump. This illustrates that we need to recognize the roots of the problem so that we can then take the action necessary to overcome the problem.) (Payne & Payne, 1999).

(2) Specify the problem properly (diagnosis).

By “properly” we mean that relevant information is gathered systematically. Remember: (a) What you have been told may not necessarily be entirely factual as it could include personal estimations and decisions, and (b) when we specify a problem clearly, it is as though we are halfway towards the solution. Beforehand, we should try to understand in more detail the deviation we want to analyse, and this prompts the following questions:

- Who or what is involved?
- Exactly how much deviation is there from the reality?

Regarding the problem of the school central heating system, by answering these questions, it is possible to conclude: the plumber has not put a filter in place (Armstrong, 2006; Payne & Payne, 1999).

3.7.3 *Ways of Solving a Problem*

A way of finding the root of a problem is to base our diagnosis on an analysis of those factors that could possibly be responsible for creating the problem: the human factor, systems, the structure and circumstances (Armstrong, 2006).

Human factor: is there any human error involved? If yes, why? Is it because, for example, the school head does not have sufficient guidelines from the upper management to effectively fulfil his/her role? Is it because the school head lacks the appropriate training?

Systems: to what extent can the system(s) be held responsible for the problem? For example, could it be the school head’s selection process? Is it because people who handle and manage the systems are responsible?

Structure: do the educators and the school head know their role? Does the school head monitor educators appropriately?

Circumstances: to what extent does the problem appear to be due to the working environment? (Think of the economic crisis, continuous changes in the legislative framework, etc.).

Remember that to overcome a problem, it is necessary not only to do enough of what needs to be done but also to consider how it should be done.

Another way of finding the root of the problem is to gather relevant data on the specific issue by using the following questions:

What (is happening)?

Why (is it happening)?
 When (is it happening)?
 How (does it happen)?
 Where (is it happening)?
 Who (is involved)?

Attention

We should be very specific when answering the above questions. We should avoid speculation, particularly when the roots of a problem concern people (educators, parents). For example, it might be easy to assume (but not necessarily correct) that someone with whom we have had a bad relationship in the past is once again the centre of our problem. Remember, the analysis of a problem's root(s) needs to be based on facts and not on a third party's opinion (Payne & Payne, 1999).

Although we may have arrived at a solution to a problem, we may still be left wondering what the added benefits of the solution are. In order to avoid such a scenario, a creative approach based on the ideas of Nolan (1987) and DeBono (1991) has been developed that sees the problem as the difference between what we are now and what we want to be. To clarify this approach, let us consider two examples:

Example 1

Consider a big primary school in which year 4 and year 5 each have three classes. Two of the three teachers in year 5 have been complaining for a long time about the frequent absences of their colleague in the third class. Some educators do not complain to the school head with the same intensity, whereas no single educator is absolutely happy with the school climate.

If a newly appointed school head made a suggestion to the teachers' council that the teacher in the third group of year 5 be changed with an educator from another class, do you think that this will solve the problem?

The conclusion that can be derived from the above example is that it is not only the two teachers of year 5 that are dissatisfied with the school environment. This may provoke some concerns. It is certain that something else is at play. A technique that may help us to determine the real problem is to ask the question "why?", until we get to the root of the problem.

Why are the teachers of year 5 (classes 1 and 2) continuously complaining to their head?

Because often the students of the third class of year 5 have to split up into the other classes.

Why is this happening?

Because the teacher of the third class of year 5 is often absent.

Why is she often absent?

Because she claims she needs to attend to urgent family matters.

Why has the head tolerated this behaviour for such a long time?

Because he was appointed at the beginning of the school year without having the appropriate experience and training.

These questions and answers have redefined what the problem is.

So, from how to address the teacher absences of the third class of year 5, we move to how the head can be trained appropriately in school management issues so as to manage the school effectively.

Example 2

Let us suppose that your son does not want to go to school. Based on the above technique, the questions below may arise:

Why does my son want to avoid school? Because he has to stay there for many hours and cannot play with his friends.

Why does he stay for so many hours? Because on top of normal school hours, he spends several hours doing his homework to be prepared for the next day.

Why does he have to do this preparation at school? Because I have to be at work for many hours and cannot collect him until late.

Why do I work for many hours? Because I have a demanding job.

Why do I not inform my manager? Because I am afraid of his reaction.

Hence, my problem boils down to how I can convince my manager to address my workload.

3.8 Case Studies

Case Study 1: Chocolates Stolen by Students

Every day during the first break, three students from year 5 would steal chocolates from a mini-market nearby their school and then share them with the other students—an act which they copied from actors of a popular TV series.

Last Tuesday, the school head approached the window of his office to look out onto the school yard to check if there were educators on playground duty for the break. Looking towards the mini-market, he saw three students eating chocolates in a peculiar way.

When all students were present in the year 5 class, the school head visited the class and asked the students whether or not they had eaten chocolates that day.

“Yes”, some students replied.

“Have you paid for those?” asked the school head.

At the beginning, no one said anything but then a student stood up and said “No Sir”. After the relevant explanations, the three students and the head went to his office where the young students began to cry, declaring their remorse for their actions . . .

“Sir”, said one of the students, “we can pay for all we had taken from the owner of the mini market but please we don’t tell our parents because they will punish us”.

“Well, this is not possible”, said the head. “We can’t hide it from your parents because everyone in the class knows. Now go to your class and we will see what we can do about this”. Then the head began to think of how best to handle this situation.

Based on the above, if you were the head in this school, what would you do?

- (a) After a relevant communication with the teaching council, you would call the police.
- (b) You would consider the matter as closed since the students had expressed their sincere regret.
- (c) After a relevant communication with the teacher of the class, you would have called the parents of the students to inform them about their actions.
- (d) After the relevant communication with the teaching council, you would call a social worker or a specialist psychologist.

Case Study 2: Productive Use of a Financial Grant

In a small primary school, there are 90 students, of which 40 are boys.

A rich person in the district has decided to offer the amount of 50,000 euros to the school under the condition that “young students of this school be given more skills so that they be better equipped to face life’s challenges”.

After a meeting with the school members, the head decided to ask the opinion of different institutions among the local authorities. After receiving feedback from various institutions of the local community, four proposals emerged:

To build an athletics facility near the school

To buy musical instruments so as to improve the aesthetic cultivation and the general education of students

To buy the relevant equipment and materials for the teaching of two foreign languages

To build an extra class and to create a garden near the school for young students to learn about agriculture

Suppose you were the head of this school and you had to make a decision on how to make best use of this amount. Based on the above, assuming that the donated amount was enough to completely cover the cost of just one proposal and that you can choose only one, consider the following:

- (a) Assess which of the above proposals would better serve the general interests of the students.
- (b) Choose one of the above proposals which, in your opinion, would best fulfil the wishes of the donor.

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Chapter 4

Leadership and Leaders

Abstract Leadership is an important aspect of the managerial function, aiming to motivate an organization's members to carry out their work effectively. Indeed, a leader can be perceived as a person who exercises his/her influence over organizational members in such a way that they feel encouraged to follow him/her willingly. Given that this influence cannot be left to luck, leadership presupposes that the person in this role of responsibility, such as a school head, has the skills necessary to lead effectively. In the case of a school head, in order for this to happen, they should have the ability to combine both material and human resources in a way that optimizes school performance.

This chapter:

- Clarifies the terms “leadership” and “leader”, looks at various ways of exercising influence over colleagues and provides a general overview of leadership
- Examines the models of leadership behaviour, analyses the leadership skills that school heads should possess/acquire and presents examples of how emotional intelligence can be applied in a school's working environment
- Addresses development paths for educational managers and also identifies the root causes of leaders' failures
- Finally presents case studies from real school scenarios

Key Chapter Concepts

- In order for a country to be economically well-developed, it should have powerful leadership and an effective public administration. It therefore needs leaders that will challenge the status quo, create visions for the future and be an inspiration for members of society.
- The basic difference between “a manager” and “a leader” lies in the manner in which human resources are managed in terms of quantity and quality and in terms the impact of the result.
- A school manager's professional ability to be effective essentially derives from three key factors, namely, experience, cognition and character.

(continued)

- The performance of the school members (both manager and educators) is improved when the educators are distinguished by high managerial maturity, and the school manager adopts a transformational and participative leadership style.
- Many people say that jealousy is the worst human ailment. It is also said that arrogance is a leader's greatest enemy as it can bring about their downfall.

4.1 Dimensions of the Terms “Leadership” and “Leader”

4.1.1 Clarification of the Terms “Leadership” and “Leader”

Leadership can be defined as “the art of influencing procedure” exercised by an individual or subgroup in order to get the group members working willingly for the achievement of certain aims (Robbins & Judge, 2012). It should be noted, however, that this definition of leadership is not related to the hierarchical levels of an organization.

Peter Drucker (1967), considered by some as the founder of modern management, perceives a real leader to be a people's servant that is either appointed or elected to lead the members of an organization, group, company, government, central administration, hospital or even a church. Others (Blanchard & Miller, 2014; Bush, 2008; Hargreaves, 2009; Hargreaves & Fink, 2008; Hopkins & Stern, 1996; Leithwood et al., 2004; Middlewood, 2010; Moolenaar, Daly, & Slegers, 2010; Munroe, 2003; Saiti, 2012 & Schermerhorn, 2011) consider that the duty of a leader is to override any personal preferences, hopes and desires for the common good of the organization. Certainly, the results of any organization, whether positive or negative, are attributable to its style of leadership since it plays a pivotal role in all the key areas, including problem solving and its responsiveness to the needs of the group members.

Based on the above, we may say that countries (mainly developing ones) rely on, among other things, strong leadership and a strong public administration so as to develop economically and socially. Countries need leaders that will question the status quo, create a vision for the future and inspire members of their society into wanting to realize those visions. All countries need an honourable leader who understands that history will remember them fondly only if they genuinely care for public interests and not for personal ones, since serving the latter only facilitates corruption and inequality. Hence, it is necessary for altruistic and capable leaders to create an efficient organizational structure, to determine detailed programmes of action and to supervise the routine functions of its central administration.

4.1.2 Ways of Exercising Influence

There are two main ways that a leader exercises their influence: through their power, whereby they exploit their personal characteristics/talents to impose their ideas/wishes on other people, and through their authority, which refers to the legal rights associated with their position (such as those afforded to a school leader). In effect, these are the tools that a leader uses to influence the behaviour of group members.

According to Bush (2008), Creech (1994), Crawford, Kydol, and Parker (1994), Fullan (2006), Hytiris (2006), Powell (1995), Schermerhorn (2011), and Yukl (2002), a leader’s power may take the following forms:

- The power to reward. A leader can reward colleagues for good performance through benefits such as promotion, bonus, material goods, etc.
- The power to punish. When a leader is able to impose punishments, this naturally generates an element of fear among group members that influences their behaviour.
- Legal power. This power derives from the position that a person holds in an organization and gives them the authority to establish “house rules” that influence the behaviour of subordinates.
- The power to act as a reference point. When an individual is successful in a given field (e.g. an athlete), then other people who are active in the same field may be inclined to use this person as a reference point to boost their own image and would thus want to establish a good rapport with them by being particularly cooperative with them.
- The power of specialization. This type of power stems from the knowledge and abilities of an individual in a specific field. For example, when a computer-related problem arises at school, an educator who is an expert in computers has influence over fellow educators who are not.

At this point, a question arises: from the three basic formal types of power (reward, punishment and legal) and two basic personal types of power (specialization and acting as a reference point), which is the most important? Research suggests that the types of personal power are clearly more effective because they are positively associated with subordinates’ satisfaction, their organizational commitment and performance. Conversely, more formal types of power such as punishment can produce negative results due to their association with staff members’ lack of satisfaction (Carson, Carson, & Roe, 1993; Robbins & Judge, 2012).

4.1.3 Is a Leader Born or Made?

A leader is both born and made. Some are endowed with charismatic leadership from birth, since leadership abilities can be inherited. For example, Alexander the Great’s father was Philip II. A more contemporary example might be Nelson

Mandela, who was from a royal family (though an English judge ruled that his father lose his title when he resisted the British colony's status quo (Keller, 2013; Konstantaras, 2013)). However, there is also a view claiming that leadership ability is developed over time. Hence a leader can also be a product of education, training and experience. In some cases, it can simply be a matter of timing: the situation in which a leader finds himself/herself (war, economic crisis, etc.) will influence their performance and of course the level of recognition (or rejection) they receive. A capable leader studies the current situation comprehensively and then puts together a plan of action that aims to achieve positive results.

Another important element of the leadership phenomenon is the values (social, cultural, ethical, etc.) that connect a leader with their followers. Nelson Mandela and Martin Luther King are characteristic examples. Both were great leaders that had powerful visions that someday their children may not be distinguished by their colour of skin but from content of their character and that both white and black people will walk side by side, without fear, and enjoy the upmost right of human dignity. . . (Keller, 2013).

4.1.4 The Terms “Leader” and “Manager” Are Not the Same

From the above, it is clear that great leaders are able to influence people. In a formal organization, however, in order for someone to lead and influence its members, they need to have the authority to exercise such power. In the public sector, for example, in order for a civil servant to assert their authority, they need to be given powers that are appropriate and proportionate for their specific role in the organization's hierarchical structure. Thus, in democracies, power is spread among the various job positions of an organization (Kourtis, 1977; Miller & Lee, 2001).

The head of an organization who brings success as a result of effectively applying the resources allocated to them makes a good manager. A big part of this success comes with applying rules and procedures that delineate the boundaries within which their subordinates can operate—rules and procedures accompanied by instructions that are sufficiently detailed so as to facilitate their implementation. Beyond this, at a personal level, a manager has his/her own set of talents and abilities which they call upon in order to inspire their subordinates. Indeed, a manager can achieve better results not by trying to be a remarkable manager but more by aspiring to be a good leader—someone who wins the willing participation of colleagues towards the achievement of a goal.

A person can be a manager without being a leader (i.e. when they try to “lead” without exercising power). However, a good leader necessarily has to be a capable and successful manager. This makes leadership and management an ideal combination in the field of educational leadership. Indeed, in the context of this book, a leader is understood to be both a leader and a manager.

4.2 Basic Elements of Leadership

According to several researchers such as Bouradas (2005), Bush (2008), Giles and Hargreaves (2006), Hargreaves (2009), Leithwood et al. (2004), Mullins (2010), and Willis (2010), there are two basic elements that define a leader: their mood and their ability. In particular, the mood and the character of a leader are, to a great extent, determined by personality traits such as:

- His/her drive and sense of achievement, i.e. the vision they have that stems from their desire to attain significant results.
- His/her loyalty and commitment towards certain values, such as justice and transparency, which are close to the mind, heart and soul of the group members. A leader wins their loyalty and commitment when he/she leads by example. A well-known case of commitment is found in the story of Spartacus—a slave that led the revolution against the government of Rome. After the revolution, several slaves were arrested by Roman soldiers. The Roman general then told the revolutionaries that, if they deliver Spartacus to him, he will spare their lives. At that moment, Spartacus stood up and said “I am Spartacus”. Unexpectedly, the slave next to him also stood up and said “I am Spartacus”. Then another stood up. . . and another. . . until eventually everybody had stood up and declared that they are Spartacus! This historical example demonstrates the value of commitment and support in difficult times. But how can a manager/leader gain the commitment of his/her colleagues? How can he/she win their hearts and minds? By ensuring that:
 - The school aims are attainable by all school members and that they have the freedom to determine how they will achieve them.
 - All members (including the school head and the educators) are adequately trained to do their work.
 - School members are given, or have access to, all the information necessary to do their work.
 - He/she displays trust towards colleagues.
 - He/she is next to them when they need the school head’s support.
 - He/she appreciates educators’ contributions. The work of an educator is not easy and genuine words of appraisal by the school head provide a lot of motivation.
 - He/she invests in educators’ development (as well as their own). This includes creating an expectation of lifelong learning and cultivation, creating education opportunities and offering career guidance.
 - He/she is courageous and bold. At some point a leader will be required to take decisions that may be unpopular with some members.
 - He/she is disciplined and persistent. Significant achievements can be difficult and time-consuming so a leader should have the discipline and persistence to keep trying.

Effective leadership actually requires a range of abilities such as:

- Creative decision-making and problem solving.
- Systematic thought: a leader must be able to recognize the various elements of a situation in isolation and not only as an aggregate whole.
- Communication and cooperation.
- Emotional maturity, that is, to have the self-awareness to effectively distinguish between a logical response and his/her own emotional response to a given situation (e.g. joy, anger, etc.).
- As we shall see later, leadership abilities can often act as a drawback for a leader. Self-esteem, integrity and sensitivity sometimes push a leader in this direction.

A leader is not simply an aggregate total of their abilities but is an integrated personality. Certainly abilities and skills are very critical for effective leadership but the same must be said of a leader's character. Some may think that becoming an effective leader is only a matter of gaining certain skills. Others believe that they can become a great leader simply by developing their character. Both perceptions are wrong. In fact, an appropriate character and skill set are both required (Blanchard & Miller, 2014)—a remark that is sometimes ignored in the procedure for recruiting school leaders in some countries.

4.3 Models of Leadership Behaviour

In the last 50 years, many models of educational leadership have been developed (Bush, 2008; Fullan, 2006; Hargreaves, 2009; Harris, 2005, 2010; Kantas, 1993; Kirkpatrick, 2000; Powell, 1995; Raptis & Vitsilaki, 2007; Robbins & Judge, 2012; Schermerhorn, 2011). However, there has been no convergence in researchers' views on how heads of educational organizations can exercise their managerial duties effectively. This difference of opinion may be attributed to the fact that "the study of educational management is a selective search. . ." (Cuthbert, 1984, p. 39).

For the purposes of this book, we will take a brief look at significant models of educational leadership that are closely associated with leadership behaviour. The models are:

Formal Models These models (e.g. structural, bureaucratic, hierarchical, etc.) "...considered that organizations are hierarchical systems through which managers use rational tools so as to achieve agreed targets. Heads have power that stems from their job position in the organization and are subject to financial organs and organizational actions. . ." (Bush, 2003, p. 37). These models see organizations as systems. They examine educational units as formal organizations that strive to achieve objectives and targets and consider that heads have mandatory power—a result of their formal position in the organization. These models are more or less aligned with the bureaucratic model and so have some drawbacks.

Participation Models In these models, school heads have a more collegial approach with greater emphasis put on the participation of educators in the decision-making process. Here, the power and decision-making (and hence the responsibility for the school unit's effectiveness) is more evenly distributed among school members. This may explain why, in educational organizations, collegial approaches usually appear through collective organs. Without doubt, this way of exercising power influences the art form of leadership as school heads try to promote total agreement and solve problems through a complicated interactive procedure. School leaders use power not as a means of exercising force but as a means of facilitating a given situation (Glover, 1996). While participation models tend to be associated with school effectiveness, they do have a number of drawbacks. For example, they tend to involve a long list of rules and procedures, and the decision-making is rather slow.

Transformational Leadership According to Miller and Miller (2001), "transformational leadership is the type in which the relations of educators rely on an exchange for something they appreciate. For the educator, this interaction with the school head is usually occasional, is small in duration and is limited to the completion of a process" (p. 182). Hence it is about "a mutual transaction between leader and subordinates" (Kantas, 1993, p. 75) whereby the first influences the second through a transaction. In particular, a transformational leader "asks the subordinate to do something and then the leader gives the subordinate a desirable reward" (Kantas, 1993, p. 175). Here, we consider that a reward is provided only when a proper attempt is made by the subordinate to carry out the leader's request. Although transformational leadership may be closely linked with participation models, it still appears as a distinct model of leadership in the educational field whereby human resources are encouraged to work together, to become involved in the decision-making, to develop a common vision and to have a share in the leadership role, having as an ultimate target the greatest enthusiasm for, and commitment to, their work (Hopkins, Ainscow, & West, 1994). In participation leadership, therefore, the distribution of responsibility is not hierarchical. There is a tactical exchange of duties among members as a match is sought between opportunities and personal talents or interests, no matter the status of educators (Bush, 2008; Hargreaves, 1995, 2009; Harris, 2005, 2010). Within this framework, it is evident that transformational leaders use their power to work together with their subordinates (educators) even though the school head is still exercising control over them. They are leaders that primarily care for the organizational culture, vision and mission of their educational unit. This type of leadership is desirable since is not based on selfish interests or favouritism. On the contrary, it involves a change in the relationship between leader and subordinate through which the school climate is built, and a positive school culture is created.

Regarding the implementation of transformational leadership, it is supported (Schermerhorn, 2010) that "it is not enough to have leadership qualifications, to display leadership behaviour and to understand different leadership situations. A leader should be prepared to lead in a way that inspires others. This would give

them an irresistible personality, such as that of Martin Luther King”. Transformational leaders like King introduce a strong sense of vision and a transforming enthusiasm to a situation. Those who lead have great power to boost the self-confidence, ambition and commitment of those who follow. They achieve this through special characteristics such as:

- “Vision—to have ideas and a clear sense of direction in which you want to steer, to transform the ideas to others, to stimulate enthusiasm for the achievement of common “dreams”
- Charisma—to use the power of personality and empathy in order to inspire in others’ enthusiasm, faith, devotion, pride and trust
- Recognizing “heroes”—pay homage to, and celebrate, the important achievements of significant individuals through spontaneous or planned ceremonies
- Empowerment—to help others to develop, to overcome obstacles, to play their role in tasks
- Spiritual strength—to reassure others through their familiarity with the problems at hand and to stimulate the imagination of others
- Integrity—to be trustworthy and reliable, to act with zeal beyond your own personal beliefs and to be consistent with your commitment” (pp. 446–447)

Comparing the two models of leadership, the main difference between them is that in transformational leadership, a leader exercises their power over people (subjects/subordinates) with the ultimate aim of having some control over the outcome, whereas in participation leadership, a leader tries to win the cooperation of the people through the incentive of a reward.

From the above, we may say that there is no single model of leadership that deals with all school eventualities. In reality, a school leader tends to adopt elements from more than one leadership model according to their talents and personality.

4.4 Leadership Abilities and the School Head

A school leader is responsible for ensuring that they execute their work properly within the legislative framework. Indeed, this is a substantial part of the mission of a school leader. In order to bring the desired results, a school leader should have certain abilities. This prompts the question: what abilities should a school leader/manager possess in order to respond successfully to the obligations of the post? While many different views have been expressed regarding the qualifications or the skills that leaders/managers should possess or acquire (mainly those in the upper hierarchical level of an organization), here, we are going to mention the abilities of a school leader that are more frequently discussed:

The Ability to Cooperate The behaviour and action of the group members are a key factor to which a leader/manager should pay attention. For the latter to win the cooperation of their subordinates, it is imperative that they have a good

understanding of human psychology and group psychology in order to be ready to face unpleasant situations and yet still create a working environment that can facilitate the aims of the group/organization. For example, when a school head leads a discussion of the teachers' council, he/she should be patient, be in a good mood and show tolerance. Furthermore, he/she should respect and understand the ideas of colleagues and create an appropriate climate in which all educators can feel free to express their ideas. Finally, the school head should be objective and neutral.

Professionalism Regardless of their seniority in the hierarchy, a manager should, by their example, set a certain standard of professionalism. Firstly, they should be able to appreciate the duties, responsibilities and problems of subordinates. Secondly, they should be able to monitor colleagues in a manner that is not intimidating. Thirdly, they should be able to make rational decisions.

In order for a school head's professionalism to be a positive factor, it should be the outcome of two important variables: experience and cognitive intelligence. Here, "experience" refers to the opportunities that school life has given him/her to learn from their mistakes as well as their successes. It is something that cannot be taught or bought. On the contrary, experience is acquired by participating in different administrative duties. The delegation of duties by the school head to the deputy head is a characteristic example of a future school leader acquiring invaluable experience.

Perception This skill is needed more for the upper echelons of leadership and suggests that a manager/leader does not have to deal with routine matters, i.e. he/she does not act as an executive organ but as an officer.

A necessary function of leadership is its monitoring role, through which possible functional weaknesses can be identified in the working environment and, with this knowledge, more effective/modern/profitable methods and working practices can be planned and implemented. A school leader taking precautionary measures to minimize the risk of an accident or mishap in the schoolyard is an example of perception.

Emotional Intelligence By emotional intelligence, we mean "the ability of a person to perceive, understand and effectively use emotions as a source of energy, knowledge and influence, not only himself/herself but also other people with whom they have an interactive relationship" (Bouradas, 2001, p. 506). Our emotional intelligence determines our possibilities to learn essential practical skills (Bouradas, 2001; Gardner & Stough, 2002; Goleman, 2001; Kite & Kay, 2012; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2008; Panteli, 2010; Prati, Douglas, Ferris, Ammeter, & Buckley, 2003).

Self-Awareness This refers to the knowledge of oneself, one's own strengths and weaknesses and, more importantly, one's own limitations. It is a key professional skill but it is also difficult to acquire.

Despite the obvious difficulties, a great degree of self-awareness is required if a leader is to make the adjustments necessary in order to be able to learn, improve and develop in a changing working environment. In a way, a school leader/manager

Table 4.1 Johari Window

Known to self → Unknown to self		
Known to others	Public	Blind
↓	Hidden	Unknown
Unknown to others		

Source: Luft (1982), p. 1 and Mullins (2010), p. 359

needs to “act out” several roles, and this requires the person to know himself/herself and to understand how others perceive him/her.

Within the framework of interpersonal communication, Luft and Ingham (1955) (cited by Luft, 1982) developed a model of communication and interpersonal relations known as the Johari Window (see Table 4.1) which is based on what a person knows about himself/herself and what others know about him/her (Hytiris, 2006; Luft, 1982; Mullins, 2010).

According to this table, there are four information areas that are connected with the effectiveness of interpersonal communication. These are:

- An open area, which includes information that a person knows about himself/herself but which others also know.
- A blind area, consisting of information that others know (e.g. disturbing behaviour) but the person does not know about himself/herself. It refers to that part of ourselves to which we are “blind” in as much as we cannot see it, but others can.
- A hidden area that includes all information a person knows about himself/herself, but others do not know. It includes all personal feelings, needs and experiences that someone wants to keep to himself/herself.
- An unknown area, namely, those things that are unknown both to the individual and to others. They concern our unknown self (e.g. a talent that we have not yet discovered) but also our subconscious self (e.g. some dormant memory of our childhood that nevertheless still influences our behaviour).

Based on the above, communication between two people can be made more substantial and effective if the first person informs the second of something about himself/herself that is unknown to the second, and vice versa. In this way, both people open up their “hidden” and “blind” areas of the Johari Window, and, in so doing, they achieve a mutual understanding and consequently become open to constructive communication (Bouradas, 2001; Mullins, 2010; Schermerhorn, 2011).

In educational management, the Johari Window has a practical significance: at the beginning of school year, as new educators are appointed to the school, it is rational to assume that the open area is small since the relations that new educators have with the school head and the other educators are limited. Over time, however, the new educators will get to know more about their fellow colleagues and the school head as they interact and collaborate with them more. Subsequently, the information that others hold about them will increase. As the open area expands, educators who have greater self-awareness become inclined to share information

and feelings more openly with other colleagues. As such, the school head ought to create an environment of sound morals and open communication for the new educators and thus establish a healthy team spirit and an atmosphere of cooperation within the teaching council. For this to materialize, the school head needs to bring to the fore those skills that will help him/her to manage himself/herself as well as his/her relations with the other school educators.

Self-regulation refers to our ability to manage our internal emotions and impulses in an effective manner. The emotional abilities that stem from this aspect are self-control, credibility, consciousness, adjustment and innovation. People who have this ability are able to avoid emotional explosions (e.g. anger, disappointment, depression) that have negative consequences not only for themselves but also for others. Aggressive behaviour, for example, is a result of intense feelings and particularly a result of anger. When we are angry with someone, we tend to behave aggressively. Though we may find a way of keeping that anger bottled up inside us to avoid externalizing it, this can have negative consequences for us. There needs to be a clear distinction between externalizing anger and releasing it through aggressive behaviour (Kokkinaki, 2005).

Given that anger left uncontrolled can have damaging consequences for our health and our relationships, a question arises: how can a person manage their anger correctly? The relevant literature mentions different strategies for confronting anger, among which are:

The art of apology—an important factor that limits the intensity and the consequences of anger. Feelings of anger are defused when the person who provoked such feelings assumes the responsibility for apologizing (Kokkinaki, 2005). Here are some useful tips:

- (a) Have a break. Before you react to an intense situation, devote a few minutes to breathing deeply and then count up to ten. Calming yourself down may help you to reduce the intensity of the situation. If necessary, you may temporarily remove yourself from the presence of the person or situation that has infuriated you in order to “clear the air”.
- (b) Only express your anger once you have calmed down. When you feel you can think clearly, express your disappointment in a dynamic way but not in an aggressive way. You may express your concerns and needs with clarity and directly without hurting others or trying to control them.
- (c) Exercise: physical activities can help you to dissipate negative feelings, especially if you feel like you are “ready to explode”. If you feel that anger is welling up inside you, go out for a walk or run or do a favourite exercise. Bodily exercise stimulates certain chemicals in our brain that tend to make us happy and more relaxed.
- (d) Think before you talk: in the heat of the moment, it is easy to say things that you will regret later. Set aside a few minutes in order to concentrate on what you are going to say before saying anything.

Empathy, meaning the ability to put yourself in the shoes of others so as to have a better understanding of their approach, thoughts, feelings and intentions without empathizing or necessarily agreeing with them, or intending to control them. Some abilities stem from specific traits in emotional intelligence such as understanding others, reinforcing others' development and managing differences appropriately. A school head should have the empathy required to understand the emotional mix that is created by the school members and so help educators to avoid creating a destructive climate that prevents targets from being achieved.

Social Skills. A leader can communicate with others, establish relations and cause others to react in a manner that they want. The abilities that stem from this dimension are influence, communication, leadership, catalytic action for change, managing disagreement and cultivating bonds, cooperation and team action. Those who possess these abilities are not simply "socializing" with the others but are being "sociable" with an aim: they believe in achieving a goal through team effort.

Motivation. The ability of a person to motivate himself/herself to achieve targets persistently over time. The emotional abilities that stem from this dimension are commitment, initiative, ambition and a drive for success. People who are strong in this aspect have more internal motives than external. Hence, they can work very hard to attain their goal even though there may be no external reward. They have a passion for what they do and put their energies into being successful in their work.

Goleman (1995) converged on six types of leadership that are closely related with the dimensions of emotional intelligence:

- An oppressive leader, who demands that colleagues obey his/her orders according to the authority granted to their job position
- A visionary leader, who motivates colleagues towards a common vision and is characterized by their emotional abilities such as empathy and self-confidence
- A humane leader, who creates emotional bonds between the group members and is characterized by their emotional abilities such as empathy and two-way communication
- A democratic leader, who considers the opinion of all group members and is characterized by their emotional abilities such as two-way communication and constructive cooperation
- A directional leader, who puts the emphasis on efficiency and is characterized by their emotional abilities such as empathy, initiative and their motivation for success
- A consultative leader, who shows concern for the continuous development of all group members and is characterized by emotional abilities such as empathy and self-awareness

According to Goleman (1995), effective managers use four of the above types of leadership (visionary, democratic, humane and consultative) to meet the organization's needs. It is evident that leadership is an emotional activity according to which

leaders seek an understanding of the emotional state of their subordinates, identify any emotional support they may need to fulfil their professional role and then aim to address those needs (Humphrey, 2002; Pashiardis, Savvides, Lytra, & Angelidou, 2011). Hence, a leader can influence the emotions, perceptions and behaviours of their subordinates.

4.5 Examples of Applying Emotional Intelligence

Example 1: Establishing a Positive School Climate

Suppose that you are appointed as a school head in a school with a tense working environment. As a new school head, what would you have done to create a more positive climate in your school?

In order for this to happen, the school head should have the emotional intelligence required to vary leadership styles according to the school environment. Hence, in a school where there is a lack of trust and conflict among school members, the head ought to have a close working relationship with colleagues in order to restore that trust.

They should then gather information through a two-way communication process regarding the situation at the school so that they can diagnose the problem. By using a humane leadership style (i.e. being approachable and friendly to all educators), the head can get to know educators as persons and so learn their strengths and weaknesses. At the same time, by using a consultative style of leadership, the head can introduce ideas for the educators to follow in order to help them achieve their goals. Moreover, by having meetings with school members outside the school environment, the head can create a comradery among the school members and thus prepare the setting for them to work as a team. At this point, the head should act as a democratic leader, that is, motivate colleagues by talking and listening to them carefully (both their views and complaints) and then invite them to suggest specific proposals of what should be done in the school. At this stage, the head should ask questions to initiate the conversation.

The school head needs to be aware that commitment through participation is achieved by asking others to express their views and feelings so that potential problems can be identified and acted upon. A school functions smoothly only when all the educators are working in harmony, sharing a common vision. This vision is achieved through effective interpersonal communication to help educators not only understand and except the vision but also to be reassured of the head's honesty, commitment and passion.

Moreover, specific responsibilities can be distributed among the educators, as envisioned by the school head. Finally, the head ought to remind the school members of the common vision and targets and also conduct regular reviews to check that the programme is being implemented by all educators.

This strategy not only helps to improve the school climate but also helps educators to be more creative as group members.

Example 2: Dealing with a Misbehaving Student

Ms E. is a secondary teacher in a high school. She is an excellent teacher with two years of teaching experience and a warm personality. The other day, a fight between two first-year students really upset Ms E. A student named P. appeared to be at the centre of it all so she took him to the school head.

“Sir, . . .” said Ms E., “. . . once again P. was involved in a fight with a fellow student. Please do something about P.’s behaviour”.

The school head gestured for P. to enter his office: “Take a seat, P.” said the school head. In an adjoining office, he then asked Ms E. to explain what happened. After listening to her carefully, he reassured her, saying: “Please go to your class and return to my office during the break. I will tell you a story about a misbehaviour I experienced many years ago. . .”

He then returned to the student and asked him: “Tell me, P., what exactly happened in the class?”

“Sir”, P. replied in an angry voice, “. . .the other student started it! The other children are always making fun of me because I am the shortest!”

The school head listened to him carefully and then said: “I understand your anger towards your fellow students but do not forget who the fastest is at running. . .”

“I win all the time!” P. said proudly, “No-one can catch me at running!”

From that day on, the student considered the school head to be his friend whom he would go and consult whenever he had a problem.

Considering the above, try to answer the following questions:

- (a) How do the approaches of the school head and educator in confronting the student’s behaviour differ?
- (b) How does the school head succeed in developing his emotional intelligence?

Regarding the first question, it is evident that the educator was angry with the student’s aggressive behaviour, and she felt that she needed to show the same aggressive behaviour not only towards the student but also towards the school head. On the other hand, the school head was calm; he listened carefully to both of them and managed to control their feelings by reassuring the teacher and by transforming the negative feelings of the student into positive ones. Here, we may say that this particular school head is effective at managing not only his feelings but also the feelings of others and uses them in order to improve his personal and professional development.

Regarding the second question in the context of the above case study, the school head may have been in the same position as the student when he was at school and perhaps his school head had given him some similar guidance, which helped to improve his emotional intelligence. Indeed, a good head/leader should: (a) always be “present” and not hide behind the office, and (b) have regular discussions with all the school members (educators and students) so that they may be reliably informed about everything that is happening in the school.

Taking into consideration that many such cases are occurring in real school situations, we support the view that the development of educational leaders in the field of emotional intelligence is absolutely necessary.

4.6 Development of Educational Leaders

A person's skill set is directly linked to their performance at work. But what makes a person better (i.e. more efficient in terms of quantity and quality) than another person? The answer to this question is not so straightforward since the manner in which skills are applied by each individual is extremely varied. It is difficult to judge the extent to which the higher performance of one individual in a given section is due to their natural talent or just down to practice. Nevertheless, what seems certain is that there cannot be any skill without some natural talent. On the other hand, natural talent can remain in obscurity if the proper opportunities are not provided for such talent to be developed and to materialize. According to the relevant literature, there are three basic ways that a manager can develop:

Through Education In this way, we may identify a great number of educational programmes, among which are those related to:

- Personal development, where the emphasis is put on the development of the educators' personal characteristics such as self-knowledge, self-control, etc.
- The conceptual approach, where the emphasis is on developing the conceptual background of the educators regarding leadership issues
- Development through feedback, which is based on various methods for identifying leadership behaviour and educators' abilities
- Developing abilities, where the development of specific leadership abilities in teachers is pursued such as how to motivate subordinates, how to administer change, how to establish open communication, etc.

Through Experience This method of development presupposes the active participation of the new manager in various situations of the organization. Such experience takes time to accumulate; it cannot be gained from one day to the next. It helps executives to grow in maturity, which will be useful for dealing with difficult circumstances in the future.

Through Systematic Guidance from the New Manager's Supervisor in Their Daily Job Duties This form of training is the obligation of each established leader and shows their capability as an educator/trainer while reinforcing a spirit of cooperation and trust.

In this regard, the models for the professional development of managers referred to in the relevant literature have the following characteristics:

- They tend to be more concerned with the support process leading up to the designated learning/training (as is the case in the USA and Canada) or with the follow-up (as in England and Sweden).
- They emphasize either official (as is the case in England and Sweden) or unofficial (as in Greece) learning/training.

At this point, a question arises: if a person (teacher) is trained globally in issues of management and has enough experience, is it certain that they will become an effective manager?

There is no clear answer since management belongs to the sphere of the social sciences, for which there are no specific rules that a manager can follow faithfully to guarantee a good result. Indeed, school managers act as members of a complicated social entity, and their success depends partially on the validity (maturity) of other persons who are also tasked with leading.

Carefully planned programmes, which facilitate official learning, help leading executives to be more effective. Furthermore, in order for an educational programme of development to be effective, it must be methodical, that is, follow a prescribed methodology as far as the content of the curriculum is concerned, customized to the managerial needs of the trainees, with practical exercises that broaden the trainee's experience.

To summarize, it is hard for any individual to decide upon the best way to obtain leadership skills. In practice, a combination of the above methods tends to be used to yield the best possible result, given the resources available. For instance, a teacher can easily accumulate valuable experience in managing school units if they have already been trained on the respective topics. For someone who has not, but has experience in other aspects of management, they can be trained relatively quickly.

4.7 Forms of School Leadership

The relevant literature outlines four basic categories or forms of leadership:

Autocratic leadership, according to which leaders play a prominent part in the decision-making and in determining the activities of all team members.

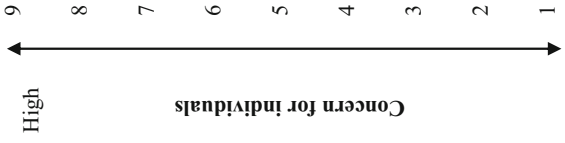
Democratic/participatory leadership, according to which, leaders leave a substantial amount of initiative with their colleagues who know what they must do and why, without hypocrisy or fear. In this form of leadership, the participation of subordinates in the decision-making is broadened.

Loose leadership, according to which leaders have merely a symbolic or **decorative** role whereby they basically transfer all the activities concerning leadership and control to the team while functioning as an information provider for their subordinates. This differs from democratic leadership in that the team members confer with their leader, in order to make their own decisions. This style of leadership is particularly well-suited to research centres, where teams of scientists work individually and/or collectively under the guidance of a high-level academic (a principal investigator).

Bureaucratic leadership, whereby leaders implement their management skills according to specific rules, policies and procedures that govern the execution of work. In this regard, an important contribution to the issue of an effective

Table 4.2 The administrative rack (or Managerial Grid) of Blake and Mouton

<p>High concern for individuals and low concern for result (1, 9). The purpose of the leader is the secure of harmonizing relations among employees and the creation of a friendly and positive working environment</p>	<p>High concern for individuals and result (9, 9). The purpose of the leader is to achieve high performance through the creation of positive conditions for staff members' participation, development of their ideas and skills</p>
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Medium concern for individuals and result (5, 5). The purpose of the leader is to follow the path of balance. This path will secure a rational level of efficiency by maintaining the level of staff members' morale

(continued)

leader's evaluation is the "administrative rack" or "Managerial Grid" of Blake and Mouton (1964). With the administrative rack (or Managerial Grid) as a guide (see Table 4.2), we may say that the school head (a) "acts" on one of the five points, each representing a form of leadership, and (b) in order to be an effective leader must show the same interest in the result of the educational process as their colleagues/teachers.

Given the above, a question arises: which type of leadership is most suitable and effective? Many educators consider the democratic style of leadership to be the most suitable for a school environment, while others believe it should be assessed on a case-by-case basis.

The aim is to combine elements of one or more leadership styles that are suitable for the various aspects of school life and help to shape an effective leadership behaviour. This is not a trivial task since, either theoretically or practically, there is no prescription for an appropriate leadership style. Despite these difficulties, there are criteria which may help us to choose the most appropriate style of leadership. Some of the basic criteria in this regard (Bouradas, 2001; Kinley & Ben-Hur, 2015; Mullins, 2010; Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 2008) are the following:

- **Working environment**, in which the manager conducts their duties. For example, in an organization where the leadership structure is strongly hierarchical, it would be futile to try and implement a democratic style of leadership.
- **The nature of the work**. For instance, when the work is urgent (e.g. when a crisis needs to be managed) or is confidential in nature, then the scope for participation in democratic decision-making is narrower. On the contrary, when subordinates need to be consulted for a key decision or when the final outcome is unclear (e.g. when research is carried out), then it becomes necessary to retain the democratic style of leadership.
- **The maturity of staff members as individuals and as a team**. The term "maturity" here is looked upon as the performance grade of a subordinate and his relationship with the manager/leader of the organization or team. Thus, when the subordinate does not accept their work/role, does not apply their knowledge/expertise as agreed, or mistrusts their manager for no good reason, then we have an immature person. In this case, the most suitable and effective form of leadership is the authoritative. On the contrary, when individuals are distinguished by their high level of maturity (want to cooperate, feel responsible for their work, show respect and accept their manager), the most appropriate form of leadership is the democratic/participatory model.

But Which Form of Leadership Must a Manager Adopt When a School Has Both "Mature" and "Immature" Educators?

In this case, the school manager needs to assess the maturity level of each individual educator and then implement the leadership style that is most appropriate for each specific educator's level of maturity.

What Are the Benefits of Applying the Democratic/Participatory Leadership Style?

The relevant literature (Bouradas, 2005; Bush, 2008; Giles & Hargreaves, 2006; Hargreaves, 2009; Hargreaves & Fink, 2008; Harris, 2005, 2010; Leithwood et al., 2004; Mullins, 2010) suggests that typical organization members (executives and staff members) perform better when they are appropriately qualified, they display a high level of maturity and executives adopt the participatory leadership style. Thus, through their participation, employees consider the decisions to be theirs and consequently are more engaged in implementing them. Furthermore, through their participation, the manager/leader gathers the experiences and ideas of his colleagues, who on many occasions contribute to the decision-making process. This saves valuable time since the manager/leader does not need to waste time closely supervising their (more mature) colleagues. In the end, the participatory leadership style is a learning procedure that leads to the professional formation of supervisors and staff members.

Who Has the Responsibility for Improving Staff Members' Maturity?

Who needs to turn those lacking maturity in the workplace into better professionals for their organization? Undoubtedly, the supervisor/team manager/unit manager is responsible of his staff members' professional development. This can be achieved through motivation, proper guidance and education.

4.8 Leadership Behaviour as a Factor in a School's Effective Functioning

In order for a school unit to achieve its goals, a manager should display effective leadership behaviour since it is by their example and work ethic that they can be a positive influence on teachers, earn their trust and motivate them to achieve higher levels of performance.

In the relevant literature (Bouradas, 2005; Bush, 2008; Giles & Hargreaves, 2006; Hargreaves, 2009; Hargreaves & Fink, 2008; Harris, 2005, 2010; Leithwood et al., 2004; Mullins, 2010), there are two aspects of leadership behaviour that are of key significance:

What a School Manager/Leader Should Do

Being responsible for the school's function, they should address:

- The everyday issues of the school unit, such as the monitoring of teachers' school hours, the supervision of teachers on duty, staff absences, meetings with parents and students, etc.
- Issues pertaining to improvements in the school's functionality. For instance, a school principal, in collaboration with parents, may solve long-term problems, enrich the school library, improve the schoolyard, organize athletic activities, etc. Indeed, in order to achieve satisfactory results, a school manager should, on

the one hand, establish a positive atmosphere, inspire and motivate their staff to take up creative activities and help them to be actively engaged in professional development. On the other hand, the manager should also aim to improve procedures, collaborate with parents, develop the building's facilities, etc.

The above roles demand interactive communication and inclusive democratic decisions from a school manager.

How They Should Do It

In various organizations of the public and private sectors, we may come across supervisors/experienced managers endowed with managerial skills and good intentions. At the same time, though, these individuals may be adopting an improper leadership style (talking impolitely, yelling with indignation to their staff members, not hesitating to scold their employees in front of others). Such behaviour will have dire consequences, creating fear, indignation, insecurity and a lack of trust among all the members of the organization or team. Therefore, managers also need to pay attention to their communication skills.

Considering the above, clearly it is not enough for an executive to have managerial skills and to be experienced. They also need to have a good character to deliver their leadership style. Why? Simply because the character of a manager (such as that of a school unit) is the determinant factor in winning the mind, heart and soul of their colleagues. Indeed, people are prepared to willingly follow someone who inspires them with their abilities and integrity (transparency, rectitude, sincerity and credibility)— someone who distinguishes themselves by their humility, modesty and example. However, this does not occur only through the actions of the manager/leader of a school unit but also by their character, that is, the way in which they act in the working environment of the school.

4.9 Many Leaders Fail. Why?

In our lives, we have heard or read about cases of acclaimed leaders who have fallen out of favour (sometimes dramatically). What happens to the great leaders of history also happens to organizations and their executives. This prompts the question: why is a leader with a successful career not able to meet the expectations of their supporters? The answer is of great significance because it may help each one of us avoid a similar fate. Specifically, a person who has (or aspires to) leadership duties would do well to note the following reasons as to why leaders fail (Bouradas, 2005):

- **Promoting a person to their level of incompetence.** This point is essentially the “Peter principal” (Peter & Hall, 1969). In the case of a school environment new members begin their career with executive (pedagogical) work. After a certain number of years these teachers become eligible to apply for a managerial position, which demands administrative and leadership abilities. Thus, it is quite

possible for an exceptional teacher to become a failed manager. How? Educators who gain management positions inevitably inherit managerial duties, without having received any training on issues concerning the organization and administration of school units or having a qualification specifically in the field of education administration. Teaching work differs from administrative work, and this fact is being neglected. Managerial duties in a school unit demand administrative knowledge, experience in administrative issues and skills in staff management. For that reason, when a manager in education is being selected, not only must the candidate's performance or years of service in their previous job be taken into consideration by the competent recruitment board but also their potential for being successful in the new position.

- **Failing to adjust to new working environments.** Many leading executives insist on practical methods and behaviours that have been tested and proven successful in the past. Unfortunately, technological, financial and social norms change, so this strategy leads them to failure.
- **Inherent flaws in a leader's skills.** It is asserted by researchers (Bouradas, 2005) that each ability has not only a positive significance for a leader's work but also carries an inherent weakness or flaw. For instance:
 - With a high level of self-confidence, a leader can fall into the trap of failing to listen to their subordinates, thus essentially becoming more autocratic.
 - Excessive analytical skills (with many if's and but's) can cause delays in the decision-making process.
 - Being highly sensitive to people makes it difficult to impose austerity measures when they are needed.
 - Integrity may lead to dogmatism.
 - A strong sense of team spirit may act as a disincentive for independent/creative thinking among subordinates
 - Coming up with innovative breakthroughs can cause a leader to exceed the limits of what is realistic.

So what must a leader do to avoid the negative consequences mentioned above? They must counterbalance the situations by developing "antidotes". A leader must expand their skills as much as possible, but the more successful they become, the more they need to develop their humility. Why? Simply to avoid becoming arrogant, which is the biggest enemy of any person. Therefore, the leader must act with personality and not just mechanically, as a sum of their capabilities and characteristics.

- **Arrogance.** Great success makes many people— leaders included— believe that they are flawless and can do no wrong. This behaviour makes them arrogant, causing them to lose touch with reality. Arrogance constitutes a long-term psychopathological condition, according to which the individual has self-confidence, self-esteem, self-complacency and narcissism. Many people claim that jealousy is the biggest ailment to afflict humankind. In fact, we would assert that it is arrogance, whose meaning is closely related to that of narcissism, which expresses self-complacency, self-respect and the feeling of uniqueness.

Research (Bouradas, 2005) suggests that narcissism could be:

Creative, when the leader has high levels of confidence and self-esteem and this leads them to high goals.

Destructive when the confidence and self-esteem leads to egoism, resulting in negative consequences for their behaviour and performance. These include:

- (1) Problematic visions (too utopian, because they are based on over-ambitious ideas, ignoring difficulties and restrictions)
- (2) Manipulation of team members (draws their collaborators into trying to materialize problematic visions by using the gift of interpersonal communication)
- (3) Problematic decision-making (failing to seek consultations because they think they know everything and so do not listen to their subordinates)
- (4) Rejection of every criticism (they perceive that all their subordinates are wrong, nor do they learn from their mistakes) (Bouradas, 2005)

Lack of courage. It is difficult for leaders who are not convinced of what they believe to earn respect and trust. Many people try to balance between their assimilation and their authenticity. They lose much of their valuable time trying to behave as other leaders do in an organization, instead of trying to create their own identity. They tend to think that their subordinates do not pay attention to their behaviour, but actually many people make careful observations of what happens around them. The employees/staff members are constantly aware of what their supervisors are doing and how they handle various situations. And when they fail to display enough strength and courage to deal with a situation, others will not be willing to trust their judgement, confidence, self-awareness or overall abilities in the future.

Egoism of the leader. Great leaders make time to help their subordinates evolve, thrive and prosper. When they do not show the slightest intention of wanting to guide their staff members and help them improve their section, then it is very difficult for those staff members to maintain their loyalty and faith in their leader. Thus, when a leader behaves in an egocentric manner and is clearly more interested in their own appearance rather than the talents surrounding them, then inevitably they will lose their subordinates' trust.

Inconsistency in behaviour. It is widely accepted that people tend to trust those who show a consistency in their behaviour and actions (www.newsbeast.gr).

4.10 Case Studies

Case 1: A Headmaster Lacking Managerial Skills

Mr M, the deputy head of a well-run school unit and with all the requisite qualifications, was chosen to fill a headmaster vacancy in another school— based on a procedure defined by the relevant legislation— and was transferred to that

school unit last September. In his new position, he encountered problems from the very beginning: He had problems trying to win the cooperation of the teachers. He also had difficulty in familiarizing himself with, and preparing, the information demanded by the chief educational manager and in understanding the many problems that the latter had to deal with. By the end of the teaching year, he had filed his resignation from the school manager position for “family reasons”. The chief educational manager, who discussed this issue with him, realized that when Mr M was deputy head at his previous school, he had no administrative expertise to bring to a full managerial role. More specifically, his former school head, Mr S, used him only for the public relations duties of the school and kept him out of any management roles. As the deputy head, Mr M “seemed nice to everyone”, but actually he just reflected the good reputation of the school’s successfully run management.

Based on the above, try to answer to the following questions:

- (a) What caused Mr M’s resignation?
- (b) What qualification must a school head have?
- (c) If you were the head of a school and had Mr M as your deputy head, how would you prepare him for his managerial duties?

Case 2: Getting Out of the Rain

Imagine this scenario: There are three teams in an open space of a park for lunch but everyone can see that a storm is brewing. The leader of the first team gets up suddenly and says: “Come with me”. When he starts moving and sees that only a few people from his team have followed him, he shouts at them: “I said ‘Come with me!’ Now!” Then, the second leader says to his team: “We must leave. This is what we are going to do: Each one of us will stand up and head towards that apple tree. Please stay half a metre apart and do not run. Be sure not to leave any personal belongings behind. When you get there....” Finally, the leader of the third team says to his team members: “Any minute now it will start raining. So what about sitting under that big apple tree? We won’t get wet and we can eat fresh fruit” (Text adapted from the book of J. Kotter, 2012, p. 69).

In the above scenario, assuming that the three leaders aimed to protect their team members from the rain, try answering the following questions:

- (a) Which forms of management can you identify in the above case study?
- (b) Which of these three methods of goal achieving (getting out of the rain) is based on vision?

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Chapter 5

Communication in the Field of Education

Abstract Communication exists within each school process and is one of the most important and difficult issues that the school head has to manage. This is because communication is the tool through which (a) information can be transferred and hence decision-making is facilitated, (b) it is fundamental for the implementation of decisions and (c) it can foster good relations and team spirit among the school members.

A solid understanding of communication is essential for the functioning of the school unit since it is a social phenomenon and a fundamental element of interrelationships among members of a formal organization.

This chapter:

- Develops the meaning and significance of communication within a working environment
- Briefly presents the communication process and the preconditions (e.g. ability of a person to communicate at an appropriate cognitive level) that are necessary for effective and constructive communication channels in order for communication within a school to be maintained at a functional level
- Analyses the types of communication and the parameters for various message types by referring to examples about the way of which a school head should manage difficult situations
- Examines the appropriate conditions for good human relations among school members
- Presents case studies relating to real school situations

Key Chapter Concepts

- Communication exists in every social organization and has a crucial significance in the attainment of the organization's targets. The transfer of information from one person to another is necessary since it is through communication that all organized efforts are coordinated.

(continued)

- It is not enough for a message to be clear and comprehensive, but it should also be true. This is because sincere messages create a trustful climate between managers and staff members.
- A person may learn by our example when we acknowledge our mistakes, omissions or negative behaviour. Hence, when we want to help others improve, we should also accept the constructive criticism of others.
- In order to develop good interpersonal relations with their staff members, a school manager should ensure there is mutual understanding.
- Trust is built gradually through open communication when someone initiates by showing partial trust to the other. Essentially, if we want people to give us their hand, we must be prepared to give them our heart.

5.1 What Is Communication?

Teaching and learning are essentially a matter of communication.

Comprehending communication is essential in the study of school performance since, as a social phenomenon, communication is the stepping stone of all interpersonal relations among the members of a typical organization. Within this framework, we can claim that children's learning depends on the teacher's ability to communicate.

A tutor should have appraisal meetings with each child periodically in order to assess the child's progress and to adjust their homework according to their developmental level and learning needs.

But what actually is communication? While many definitions exist, in this chapter communication will be viewed as an interactive process of information flow between two individuals—the sender (transmitter) and the recipient—and whether this creates a climate of mutual understanding and efficient personal relationships.

Communication presupposes the existence of two individuals, the sender and the recipient, the transmission of a message from the first person to the second and the comprehension of this message. The mere expression of ideas or thoughts does not constitute absolute communication but only a part of it. As we shall see below, a given message can often be decoded into a more than just one meaning. For instance, the headmaster of a school unit can distribute a brochure (e.g. about AIDS) to be read by the students and consider that he has fulfilled his duty, that is, communicate the information to the student community. Nevertheless, this action is only the beginning of communication. In order for the communication to be effective, students must not only read the brochure but also become aware of its content and then interpret it in the way that the originator intended (e.g. Ministry of Health or Education).

Clearly, the process of communication is not simply the transmission of information, but a procedure that affects—positively or negatively—the thoughts, beliefs and attitudes of a team’s members (and, by extension, their performance).

This is inextricably linked to human relations, since a person’s relations with their fellow citizens are formed through reciprocal exchange and the transmission of thoughts, ideas, beliefs and other information.

From the above, we can acknowledge that communication exists in each social organization and has particular significance as regards the achievement of its goals. Whether in a family setting or in a school unit, the conveyance of information between people is necessary. In this way, an organized effort is consolidated through communication. Members’ behaviour is modified and their performance is influenced. So the evolution of skills in the art of communication must be one of the basic elements of formation for education’s executives.

5.2 The Importance of Communication

For school units, communication has particular significance due to the nature of their work, since tutoring is accomplished through verbal and non-verbal communication. Furthermore, due to the nature of work in a school, those involved in the educational process demand thorough information from the school’s management. In particular, through interaction (between the internal and external school environment) the management of education becomes more effective. Furthermore, in this way:

- Education leaders can gather the relevant information needed to make appropriate decisions.
- Misconceptions and conflicts among executives of education are minimized.
- Good relations and a good team spirit among members of the school community are facilitated.

Even though communication is so significant for the efficient operation of schools, little attention is attributed to it in terms of its level of attainment among education executives and in administrative practices. This results in the less-than-satisfactory development of communication skills among managers of education. Thus, the actual reasons for malfunction and conflicts in school units often have their roots in ineffective communication. For the above reasons, the evolution of communication skills of leading education executives is critical. Briefly, the function of communication in schools is to facilitate the process of education and, by extension, the school’s goals. However, the efficacy of this function depends mainly on the knowledge and skills of education’s leading executives in communicating appropriately with all the members of the school community involved in the education process.

5.3 Process of Communication

As previously mentioned, communication is a two-way exchange of messages from one person (the sender) to another (the recipient). While authors may differ on the number of phases involved in the communication process (Dubrin, 1997; Hatzipanteli, 1999; Naylor, 1999; Stamatis, 2012), in this chapter we will focus on the following five basic elements or phases of communication:

- *Source of information.* Refers to the mind of sender where the information regarding the message that they intend to transmit to the recipient is concentrated.
- *Encoding:* In this step the sender encodes their idea in the form of tangible signs (e.g. language, movements of the mouth, voice intonation) in order to transfer it to the recipient.
- *Sending or transmission of message.* This refers to the physical act of transmitting the message from the sender to the recipient.
- *Decode.* During this phase the recipient “captures” the message by using their senses to spontaneously decode the message sent by the sender.
- *Responding to the message.* The process of proper communication is completed with a response or feedback.

The response of the recipient to the sender of the message completes the communication process, known as “open communication” or “interactive communication”. In order for there to be a substantial communication between two persons or teams, certain conditions must be fulfilled so that communication can be preserved at a functional level.

These conditions include:

- A minimum level of communication skills so that the sender and the recipient are able to encode (and decode) the messages sent and received.
- Adequate background knowledge, namely, the sender and the recipient must understand the context of the message.
- Promptitude of both sides in order for communication to be established. Indeed, the phenomenon of “I speak but you don’t hear” is a significant factor in preventing effective communication between two persons or teams (Hatzichristou, 2004).

5.4 Forms of Communication

Depending on the means used, communication broadly falls into one of two types (Bedeian, 1998; Click, 1981; Kazazi, 2002; Kontakos & Stamatis, 2002; Stamatis, 2012):

- Verbal, accomplished through speech and writing
- Non-verbal, i.e. “the way of interacting through non-verbal signals, such is the expression of the face, the look, the posture of head and body” (Malikiosi-Loizou & Spoda, 2002, p. 166)

Communication in an organization can be grouped into the following forms (Androulakis & Stamatis, 2009; Balay, 2006; Corwin, 1966; Dubrin, 1997; Kontakos & Stamatis, 2002; Koontz, O'Donnell, & Weihrich, 1982; Sisk & Williams, 1981; Stamatis, 2012; Tobin, 2001):

Downside Communication This is communication of a traditional form which is encountered even nowadays, mainly in public organizations. Downside communication starts with the upper echelons of the hierarchy and feeds through to the lower levels without a response. The downside flow of orders and instructions, through all the hierarchical levels of the organization, is not only a time-consuming process but is also less accurate. The perceived meaning of such orders or instructions can significantly change as they are successively transmitted from one hierarchical level to the next. In order to avoid this, the management of an organization that wants its orders to reach its subordinates swiftly and accurately should do so through executive meetings. This provides the opportunity for questions to be raised and answers given; the purpose and the reasoning behind instructions can be explained to the recipients.

Horizontal Communication This describes communication between staff of the same hierarchical level, e.g. managers or department heads. Firstly, this form of communication ensures the coordination of an organization's different activities. The cooperation of a unit's teachers for the use of audiovisual equipment is an instance of this. Secondly, it leads to mutual information exchange between persons who need to communicate for departmental issues—information which contributes positively to the creation of good human relationships.

Upward Communication In upward communication, information moves from lower administrative levels to higher ones. This form of communication gives subordinates the opportunity to inform administrative executives about the actual status of the organization. This includes the ideas, views and level of contentment of employees. The supervisor who wants to be aware of what is happening in their organization and check on the effectiveness of their own orders or instructions needs to acknowledge the importance of upward information flow. Regular meetings between supervisors and subordinates to identify problems/complaints and gather suggestions would help this process. We should note that this information transfer from lower levels usually takes the form of rumour or gossip. Based on developments in the theory of rumours, there are tactics that can be used to counteract every negative reputation. In dealing with rumours, Difonzo, Bordia, and Rosnow (1994, pp. 57–60) mentioned that on the one hand, a rumour may seem so totally ridiculous that it must be ignored by the organization's regime. On the other hand, if the rumour contains any truth, it is mandatory for the actual truth to be corroborated. Thirdly, the administration needs to respond and not simply say “no comment” because failing to comment is looked upon as affirmation. Fourthly, the

administration of the organization needs verification that those commenting on the rumour give the same story. Fifth, in the case of rumours in a school, the headmaster must convene with staff so that specific rumours can be thoroughly discussed.

5.5 Improving Oral Communication

Oral communication is important, because it influences the sentiments of people and, by extension, is connected to human relationships. Additionally, through good human relationships, the headmaster of a school unit has the opportunity to convince his colleagues to engage in creative activities. Thus, the power of persuasion is crucial if education managers want to achieve their goals. For this reason executives of schools have to develop skills in the art of oral communication. Some techniques contributing to this development are the following:

Clarifying the Message's Specifications First, the executive must define the limits (in terms of quantity and quality) of the information to be produced. Certainly, how a message is produced (whether simple or complex, oral or written) depends on the goals and the skills of the sender. However, we can agree that accuracy, complicity and honesty are basic attributes needed to compose a good message (Androulakis & Stamatis, 2009; Balay, 2006; Corwin, 1966; De Lima, 2001; Everard, Morris, & Wilson, 2004; Rahim, 2001; Tobin, 2001).

Accuracy We claim that a message is explicit when it is easily perceived and comprehended by the recipient. In order for the request to be actioned, the sender must (a) use words with specific content (in other words, the communication must be encoded in a way that will be understood by the intended recipients) and (b) express their message with as few words as possible. It should be noted that complex sentences with indefinite words (e.g. often, soon) make them difficult or even impossible to comprehend.

Plenitude A message is considered complete when it contains all necessary information, so as to be comprehensive.

Honesty It is not enough for a message to be clear and thorough, but it must also be true. Messages that are honest create an environment of trust among administrators. Indeed, honesty constitutes a basic premise of actual communication. We can remind ourselves that when someone says one thing but does another, then they lose credibility.

Determining the Parameters for the Message's Delivery After the production of the message, the executive must choose the manner, the timing and the location of the transmission, since the meaning and the intention of a message are not only transmitted through words. Even though these parameters are dependent on the significance of information and on the personality of the recipient, at least three basic questions need to be answered:

How can the message be transmitted? Through written or oral communication? The choice depends on the notability of the topic (person's or policy-maker's expression) and the subjective appreciation of the sender (Dean, 1995; Kontakos & Stamatis, 2002; Tourish & Hargie, 2004; Tourish & Robson, 2003, 2006).

When must the message be transferred? The message's time of transmission plays an important role in its perception and comprehension. For instance, it would not be advisable for the supervisor of a department to ask their subordinate's opinion about a professional issue at the same time that this person is waiting for their child's medical results. Conversely, it would not be wise for the subordinate to interrupt their supervisor for the clarification of a document while the supervisor is preparing for an important meeting. In both cases the communication's failure is inevitable, because the message is being delivered at a time when it is of little interest or significance to the recipient.

Where should the message be transmitted? Transmitting information to the appropriate location helps the message to be more effective. There are no rules defining the appropriateness of space. However, the importance of a message seems to be the variable affecting the place of communication. For instance, it would not be appropriate for the headmaster of a school unit to admonish a teacher in front of students or parents or to discuss whether or not a student should be punished in the school's hallway.

Emphasize Open Communication. As previously mentioned, the act of communication is completed through feedback. A message certainly gains meaning when the recipient has the ability to respond freely to it. In open or two-way communication, there is a role reversal whereby the recipient becomes the sender and the sender, the recipient. Thus, both sides are given the opportunity to exchange views and reach agreeable conclusions, and this helps their cooperation further. If an educator wants to become comprehensible to his students, he must offer them the possibility to express their views freely (through questions or comments). In order for the strategy of open communication to be successful, it must be accompanied by "practical" methods, which can create an atmosphere of cooperation and mutual understanding between the administrator and the administered.

How to Transmit an Order Relations between a headmaster and educators can be kept positive with the following good practices:

- Before giving an order, the headmaster must query its content carefully, be explicit and exact, adjust it to the temperament of the recipient (educator) and, if necessary, repeat the process twice for extra clarity.
- Unwritten commands must be given directly to individuals (educators) who are responsible for their implementation. If they are transmitted through third parties (deputy manager), there might be misconceptions.
- Avoid giving too many orders simultaneously to the same person. Be careful with the tone in which the order is given. The tone is of great significance, since a

laborious task may be executed correctly and willingly if it is presented in a polite way.

- Take care with the timing of the order's delivery. For a command to be carried out willingly, it needs to be given at an appropriate moment. It would be wise for a headmaster to avoid giving orders at the beginning or the end of work hours (e.g. Monday morning or Friday afternoon) because such orders tend to be accepted begrudgingly.

In practice, there are other cases (e.g. educators who refuse to carry out the order) that may cause problems for the smooth functioning of the school and so would require careful handling by the headmaster. Here, we will examine the following cases:

Case 1. What Action Should a Headmaster Take if Their Order Is Not Executed by an Educator as Expected (e.g. Delay, Mistake, etc.)?

In their effort to enhance the performance of their collaborators, many executives use the word “but”. However, this must be avoided. Our feedback is perceived much more positively when we avoid the word “but”. For instance, take a sentence like: “Your work is very good but you were late in delivering it”. Even if it intends to offer encouragement, it is perceived as criticism and creates a feeling of resentment in the recipient, leaving them feeling stuck in mediocrity instead of feeling motivated to do better. Here, the same comment can be expressed in two different sentences: “Your work was very good. The next step for you is to improve your turnaround time”. In this way we clearly give a positive message while simultaneously showing respect. An individual leading a team who is interested in improving and developing its members expresses messages with an encouraging tone and is careful with each judgemental comment in order to ensure it is perceived positively (Panteli, 2010; Saiti, 2015; Tourish & Hargie, 2004; Tourish & Robson, 2003, 2006).

Case 2. But What Must a Headmaster Do if the Educator Refuses to Carry Out Their Order?

If the headmaster's reaction was driven by their character, then they might react in one of the following ways: calmly record the fact that the educator disobeyed an order; clearly express their discontent; express their anger and insult the educator.

However, if an educator fails to execute an order, the correct reaction of the school head should be as follows:

- If the order was not carried out because it was incomprehensible, then the headmaster should give new instructions.
- If the order was not carried out because of the recipient's unwillingness, then the headmaster ought to (a) give a warning and then (b) ignore the act of disobedience, but make note of it for future reference. It needs to be underlined that in such cases the headmaster must not lose their temper. The most effective approach is to explain to the recipient (educator) all the consequences of their actions and make them responsible. A calm conversation individually or collectively might give positive results.

- If the recipient still does not comply with the headmaster's instructions, then the headmaster must take disciplinary action.

Case 3. How Can We Listen Better to Our Interlocutor?

We all like to believe that we are a good listener. If that was true, then far fewer mistakes would be made in reality. How often are you faced with situations where the message/instruction was unclear? For example, imagine that in a conversation with someone you are asked to do something. Later, it turns out that you did something different from what was asked. Who is responsible for this misunderstanding? The one sending the message, definitely, but in this situation the recipient also plays a vital role. Often, our thoughts are so much on what we have to do in the (near) future that we do not hear what the sender says. So, in many cases, the second speaker (the listener) (a) answers without comprehending the message of the first speaker or (b) interrupts the interlocutor without having completed their thought. The "rushed" action of the second speaker might be attributed to the fact that "the attention to one prolocutor is a selective process, during which the person chooses what fits better to his needs and purposes" (Zavlanos, 1998, p. 146).

Therefore, what must we do to listen more attentively to our interlocutor?

The phrase "Listen carefully" means participate actively in the conversation, and for that to happen, we must make sure that we have understood the basic points, checking these with our interlocutor (Payne & Payne, 1999).

A school head can improve their listening skills by taking into consideration the following advice (Bagshaw, Lepp, & Zorn, 2007; Bouradas, 2001; Click, 1981; Henkin & Holliman, 2009; Henkin, Cistone, & Dee, 2000; Saiti, 2015; Tjosvold & Hui, 2001; Tjosvold, 1998):

- Establish a suitable conversation climate.
- Listen to the entire story.
- Respond to the feelings of the interlocutor (fear, agony), and avoid other people's interference.
- Set questions carefully.
- Summarize several aspects of the dialogue and formulate your final view. That means, give a solution to the problem if there is potential in it.
- Interpret the body language of your interlocutor (Goman, 2011). For example, when your interlocutor:
 - Raises their shoulders, it may indicate indifference or lack of interest.
 - Rubs their eye, or touches their nose, they are probably lying.
 - Taps their fingers, it shows impatience.
 - Stares at the floor, this indicates they are embarrassed or have lost interest
 - Nods their head, this generally shows agreement. If they nod their head slowly, they are showing they understand. If that move is quick, it indicates they agree with you.
 - Touches their clothes intensely, then they disagree with you. If they frown, this tends to indicate they are paying attention or showing disagreement.
 - Looks you in the eyes, they are showing interest.

- Has tense hands, this usually indicates anger or defensiveness or a cold personality.
- Crosses their hands and feet, this is a defensive posture.
- Turns their head and scratches under their ear, this is a sign that they have their doubts.

Even though body language is subconscious, automatic and intercultural, in the field of administration, it can give important clues in negotiations and therefore constitutes a valuable asset for executives.

Case 4. How Should a Manager Handle Flattery, Especially When the Information Given to Them May Have Been “Refined”?

Initially, they need to examine the information for its credibility and, most importantly, avoid the professional “disease afflicting heads of organizations” (such as government ministers), namely, to be out of touch with reality. In practical terms, this requires the head of an organization to rely on upward communication to a great extent. Unfortunately, lower executives tend to exhibit “organizational silence” because of a narcissistic phenomenon: they prefer not to reveal the (bitter) truth to superiors, since they are afraid of a resentful backlash and negative criticism. This phenomenon, which is more acute in top hierarchical levels, means that information about the real state of affairs in the organization is not transmitted to the organization’s head. On the contrary, the head of the organism tends to receive “refined” information from their subordinates. Also, in meetings, executives do not express to their superiors what they believe and aspire. Unfortunately, hiding the truth about the functionality of an organization has negative consequences for everyone: the organization, the upper leadership and the employees who may find themselves unemployed.

Faced with such a problem, an intelligent executive leading an organization (e.g. Minister of Health) must avoid the “trap of coherence” which severely harms the quality of their decisions.

Why? Because, as humans, we tend to dislike those who bring bad (albeit sincere) news. Also, an executive tends to undervalue that kind of information. On the contrary, they tend to accept only positive messages—something that totally misrepresents the reality. But what must a leader do in order to avoid the trap of flattery? Simply ask lower executives to transmit to them only bad news and without delay—it will cause a revolution! (Dobelli, 2013).

Case 5. How Can a Manager Give His Subordinates Constructive Criticism?

As humans, we like to hear only positive things about ourselves. However, each of us can improve only when we realize our mistakes or address any negative behaviour. Consequently, when we want to help others improve, we must acknowledge the constructive criticism of other people.

We do not want to receive negative criticism from anyone. The crucial part of negative criticism is about the way it is expressed. And that is why such an action is destructive when done the wrong way but can be constructive when done correctly. In the relevant literature (Bouradas, 2013; Henkin & Holliman, 2009; Henkin et al.,

2000; Panteli, 2010), rules for constructive criticism are mentioned which may help us (either as parents or as executives, or as individuals in general) to constructively criticize our children, our students, our co-workers, etc. Here are some of those rules:

For a start, we must make others accept negative criticism. For that to happen we should arrange an appropriate meeting where we can calmly accept others' negative criticism of us, and we can criticize them while preserving a calm and friendly climate. In this type of meeting, it is useful to highlight some of the strong points that our interlocutor has or to show our appreciation for them and then analyse the points that we believe they must develop. Such an approach would demonstrate that we are benevolent.

We never criticize the personality of our interlocutor but always their behaviours, actions or performances. For example, we would not tell a colleague that they are careless but that it was a case of "negligence". The first wording criticizes the person; the second criticizes the way the situation was handled. Also, as in Case 1 (above), it is easy to ensure that criticism is taken as positive feedback by avoiding the word "but". For instance, instead of "Your work was great but you were late in handing it in", we can avoid the trap of delivering negative criticism by splitting the sentence into two phrases:

Your work is very good. The next step is for you to improve your pace.

Please note that negative criticism must always be documented regarding facts, omissions and what needs to be done. This should be carried out (a) privately and never in public and (b) calmly and promptly, i.e. soon after the issue is identified. After the exchange of criticisms, we need to make suggestions as to how our interlocutor can improve upon the flaws pointed out to them. At the end of our discussion, we would repeat the positive aspects and confirm our appreciation of our colleague.

5.6 Development of Good Relations in School

Problems in human relationships arose from people's need to cohabit in the same place. Despite our commonalities, people are unique beings with many differences between them. Each person has their own personality and temperament. So it is reasonable for various tensions to emerge when a number of individuals reside in one place towards a common effort. Nowadays, the conflicts between people are many, and the stresses of life are ever-increasing.

Undoubtedly, workers in a negative working environment become less productive and more exhausted, whereas a working environment where there is harmony among workers fuels a natural awareness and desire for individual and collective productivity.

Consequently, the way in which the headmaster handles his relations with other members of the community, and the affects it has on them, is of great significance

for everyone. In the school environment, the headmaster ought to primarily focus on ensuring a good mutual understanding among teachers in order to develop good human relations with them.

According to the relevant literature (Bagshaw et al., 2007; Boardman & Horowitz, 1994; Bouradas, 2013; Bush, 2008; Cherniss, 2001; De Lima, 2001; Eckman, 2004; Goleman, 2001; Kalogirou, 2000; Kazazi, 2002; Ritchie & Woods, 2007; Robbins & Judge, 2012; Saiti, 2015; Shen, Leslie, Spybrook, & Ma, 2012; Wahlstrom & Louis, 2008; Williams & Garza, 2006), mutual understanding depends on the existence of seven key conditions: an open and sincere community, effective listening, empathy, respect for diversity, trust, emphasizing positive aspects and positive reinforcement. We will now look into each of these in more detail.

5.6.1 Open and Sincere Community

Initially the school manager must explain to the educators some characteristics about himself so that they can know and understand them better. Secondly, they must ask the educators to observe attitudes that the manager displays which significantly influence the relationships across the school community. At the same time, educators must respond in kind, by sharing some of their own characteristics. Through open and sincere communication, mutual understanding may be amplified, and trust between two sides be enhanced. It is important for a school manager to know how his co-workers approach him, because through that he can comprehend feelings, attitudes and behaviours towards him and handle them appropriately for the mutual benefit of all.

Such an effort conceals certain inherent difficulties: on the one hand, many teachers avoid admitting drawbacks that characterize their manager. Instead, they may choose to remain silent or resort to flattery, casting a shadow over their future relations with the manager.

On the other hand, falsely concocting negative criticism corrupts relations with the manager. Therefore, if we want to help our manager (or indeed anyone), then we need to restrict negative criticism to the sort that is more likely to cause the manager (or other person) to reflect on their weakness(es) and feel encouraged to take the necessary steps to improve.

5.6.2 Effective Listening

If we want to understand our interlocutor, we have to make a conscious effort to listen to what he wants to say if we want to comprehend what they mean correctly and not to draw our own conclusions. In our conversations it is easy to make the

critical mistake of allowing various factors to distract us from the intended meaning of the message. Therefore, when listening, we should adhere to certain guidelines:

- Be aware that words may be ambiguous (Armstrong, 2006; Armstrong & Baron, 1998; Robbins & Judge, 2012).
- Pay attention to the intensity of the voice, gestures, etc.
- Have the patience to listen to the entire message without interrupting our interlocutor, and then draw your conclusion (i.e. do not jump to conclusions).
- Hear the message without prejudice, disbelief or blind trust.
- Show respect to others' feelings and dignity.
- Avoid interpreting the message through your own experience because, as humans, we have different experiences, and consequently two individuals can see the same thing from different perspectives. That is why we need to be conscious of our filters when we hear someone delivering a message, and check whatever we hear and understand by asking for confirmation. Effective listening is something more than simply hearing or reading a message. To illustrate the danger of subjective interpretation, here is an example: A group of people sees a picture. Another group sees a second picture. Then both teams see a third picture. If you ask members of both teams what they see, what do you think they will answer? Most likely, their answers will differ according to their experiences. Why does that happen? Because no one responds to a real situation in an absolutely objective way. We all interpret the message we receive in our own way, based on our life experiences. In general, the sense of a message is imparted by humans and not by the content itself. Moreover, this fact constitutes the usual cause of misunderstandings (<http://inep.wikispaces.com>).

5.6.3 Empathy

As mentioned previously, empathy is a parameter of sentiment which requires us to put ourselves “in the other person’s shoes” in order to fully understand what and how they think, what they feel and why and what they want to express to you. For instance, the education manager who wants to understand the students and fellow educators has to see matters not only from their own perspective but also from that of the others too. Certainly, the same needs to be reciprocated by the students and teachers about their manager.

To conclude, mutual empathy leads to mutual understanding and trust and so establishes a sound basis for productive collaboration.

5.6.4 *Respect for Diversity*

The head of a team needs to respect and show tolerance for all members of the team, regardless of their perceptions, needs and values. Respect requires that we show understanding for, and sensitivity to, the other's traditions, customs, methods, habits, etc. that derive from established rules of social survival. Tolerance, on the other hand, is the willingness of a supervisor to allow their colleagues to conduct themselves in a manner that they may not necessarily agree with, so long as their actions are conducted within legal boundaries. It should be noted that a school unit may have a surplus of respect but a lack of tolerance, or vice versa. However, no school unit can operate effectively, nor its members be content, if there is a deficiency of both values.

5.6.5 *Trust*

Trust is a main characteristic associated with leadership, constituting a basic premise for the head of a team (e.g. the manager of a school unit) so that they may have a positive influence on their subordinates (educators). In the case of school management, this trust creates a sense of confidence that the correct decisions are being made, with the right attitude to yield positive outcomes in the frame of a “give-and-take” relationship (teacher-student, headmaster-teacher). Actually, trust between the manager and the educators is reflected in the school unit's healthy functionality and positive results, since trust facilitates the exchange of information between the administrator and the administered and reinforces a collective effort among the school unit's members—an aspect that fortifies more collaborative relationships in the working environment of the school.

In contrast, a lack of trust brings uncertainty, insecurity and concern about the behaviour and contribution that one person anticipates from another. Lower levels of trust are observed in a school unit when the educators are closely observed; the mobility of teaching personnel is unusually high; educators are afraid of speaking out in the open (because there is no two-way communication); the headmaster of the unit is out of touch with reality and ends up spending a lot of time trying to cover up the negative consequences of their actions.

So good relations among a team's members demand mutual trust. Trust is not freely given or bought, but is earned, built up over time through our cooperation and constitutes a function of various factors (Bouradas, 2013) such as:

Integrity When the attitudes and actions of a person are characterized by integrity, then we talk about incorruptible behaviour, meaning “they are as good as their word”. The term “integrity” implies other basic traits such as honesty (exception: we can avoid telling the truth to a sick person to avoid damaging consequences) and loyalty (keeping promises given to another person).

The Appropriate Skills If I want someone to trust me, then I must have the skills to work through the anticipated tasks. For instance, we do not hire a car mechanic if we are not sure about their abilities to fix a car. The same also applies to our choice of a doctor or lawyer. In these three examples (the mechanic, doctor and lawyer), we must have some evidence of their skills before we can trust them. So we realize that trust is built slowly, through open communication and after someone shows trust to the other person. Put succinctly, people will not reach out their hand unless we offer them our heart.

Caution We have to avoid the trap of the inductive fallacy, according to which we all have the tendency to start with a specific observation and expand it into a general conclusion. We can illustrate the fallacy with these two stories:

A villager was feeding a turkey. In the beginning the turkey thought: “Why is this man feeding me? He might want something. . .”. Weeks went by, but every day, the villager came to see her and feed her. After several months, the turkey was convinced: “this man has good intentions”. A feeling of security was reinforced and amplified day by day. Absolutely sure about the farmer’s kindness, she was taken by surprise 1 day when, just before Christmas, he took her out of her pen and slaughtered her. The Christmas turkey was a victim of the inductive fallacy (Dobelli, 2013).

In 1998, a friend of ours bought some stocks on the Athens stock market. The value rose considerably. In the beginning there were doubts and suspicions that it was a profit-driven bubble. But, watching the stock rising continually in subsequent months, he was assured that the stock would never drop, and with each passing day, his confidence grew. In a period of 6 months, he had invested all his savings in this particular stock. When the stock market crashed suddenly and dramatically, he was left completely in debt. As with the turkey, our friend was another victim of the inductive fallacy.

In summary, we must consider each situation on its own merit and not draw long-term conclusions about people/situations and then show absolute trust indefinitely.

5.6.6 *Emphasizing Positive Aspects*

A typical way of inducing a positive reaction from someone is to boost their self-esteem up to the degree they deserve. Self-esteem is how an individual assesses themselves. It can be deflated through negative criticism or inflated through flattery or positive appraisal. For example, a school head can react to different actions of colleagues with comments such as “your idea was excellent. . .” or “you tackled this problem intelligently. . .”. Such actions increase the self-esteem of educators and consequently lead to greater levels of satisfaction.

5.6.7 *Positive Reinforcement*

Positive reinforcement, which does not necessarily have to include material reward, deserves special attention from each educational leader since reward and recognition may bring several benefits to the working environment (Henkin & Holliman, 2009; Novak, 2007; Somech, 2008). Furthermore, according to law of effect, a behaviour that leads to a pleasant result can be repeated, while a behaviour that leads to an unpleasant result cannot be repeated (Thorndike, 1911, p. 244).

The reward of an educator (e.g. simply saying “well done” or “thank you”) and the associated recognition through rewards (material or not) are ways that can lead to a greater level of educator satisfaction. On the contrary, a lack of recognition and gratitude creates negative feelings in educators, such as frustration, anger or even depression.

5.7 Case Studies

Case Study 1: Unclear Message

Last Thursday Ms. P. visited the school head of a primary school to get information about the progress of her daughter:

- “It is too early, Ms P., to give such information about the progress of your daughter. Besides, the lessons at school only started three weeks ago so it would be very difficult to shape any opinion of our students at this time”.
- “When may I come back, Sir?” Asked Ms. P.
- “Perhaps in a short time Mr S., the teacher of your daughter, will be able to tell us his opinion about your daughter. . .”
- Ten days later Ms. P. (the parent) thought that it will be a good idea to re-visit the school head of her daughter’s school.
- “You know, Ms. P.” the school head said when he saw the mother of the child, “during your last visit I told you that Mr. S. may be able to give an opinion about the progress of your daughter ‘in a short time’ . . .
- “That is correct Sir” replied Ms. P.
- “Yes but it is still too early to give you any substantial information about your child” continued the school head
- “O.k. Sir, fine. . .” said Ms. P. in a very aggressive tone and stomped out of the school head’s office.

Based on the above, please answer the following:

- (a) Which factors are responsible for Ms. P.’s misunderstanding?
- (b) If you were a colleague of the school head, what kind of advice would you give him so that he may improve his communication skills?

Case Study 2: Spreading of False Rumours

Mr. V. has 25 years of experience in education and serves as a school head in a large primary school. He is a rather serious and reticent person of few words but is always formal, direct and fair towards his colleagues. From time to time, he would receive some messages from the school environment (both internal and external) that characterized him as an “old-fashioned” school head. Initially, he did not give any attention to such information, but yesterday, when he overheard an educator talking to another educator about moral at the school, he started thinking: “who in the school might be responsible for circulating this rumour about me?” Besides, he knew from his long service that false rumours can be a disaster for the ethical moral of any educator and consequently for the whole educational process.

Based on the above, please answer to the following:

- (a) What was the root cause for the spreading of this negative rumour?
- (b) If you were the school head in this situation, how would you try to overcome the circulation of negative rumours in your school?

Case Study 3: Unfulfilled Promise of a Manager in a Public Organization

Mr. P. works for a public organization, and on many occasions, he has heard his manager say “good results lead to a promotion”. Over the last 5 years, his performance has been steadily progressive up to the present day, but there are no indications of any promotion in the near future. The manager recently asked Mr. P. to participate in a specialized work project and that if he brings satisfying results, he will get a promotion.

Based on the above, please answer the following:

- (a) Do you believe that there is any chance of Mr. P. benefitting from his participation in the above-mentioned programme?
- (b) Which key condition for producing “a good message” does the manager of the organization seem to ignore?

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Chapter 6

Conflict Resolution and Complaint Management at School

Abstract The conflicts and oppositions that arise in a school unit are diverse and numerous. Since the school head is responsible for the smooth and effective functioning of the school unit, they should recognize these conflicts, be able to perceive their possible resolution and accurately forecast whether these conflicts will make a positive or negative contribution to the school's performance.

Conflicts in the work place may have different roots. For example, a conflict could be a result of the competition between members that surfaces as they try to exercise influence over one another. It could be due to a lack of financial resources and a lack of organizational support or personal differences, or it could be the consequence of trying to satisfy different needs, ambitions, targets and motives. Hence, the level of response given by the school members (in terms of appropriate professional behaviour) towards the efficient completion of a project and the achievement of the school aims depends heavily on the school climate.

This chapter:

- Examines the meaning, sources and the types of conflicts within a school environment
- Analyses conflict management strategies in a school
- Identifies the key factors of effective conflict management strategy in a school unit and provides guidelines for appropriate complaint management
- Finally presents case studies from real school scenarios

Key Chapter Concepts

- The procedure for resolving conflicts that takes place in a typical organization such as a school is complicated. However, the resolution of any conflict is a fundamental duty of a school manager.
- Diagnosing and understanding the roots that provoke conflicts in a school's working environment is of great importance for a manager because it helps them to confront such occurrences effectively and in a timely manner.

(continued)

- There is no single strategy for managing interpersonal and group conflicts within the school unit simply because each case creates a unique set of circumstances that calls for a different approach.
- The resolution of conflicts at school—and consequently the shaping of a more positive school climate—is a two-way process and depends not only on the ability and flexibility of the school manager (for example, using the right approach in negotiations, assessing options in resolving the problem, etc.) but also on the maturity and the attitude of the other school members.
- The proper handling of a complaint lays the foundation for building a positive and lasting working relationship with students, educators, etc. as it transforms the problem into an opportunity for constructive cooperation.

6.1 Definition and Outline of Conflict

Schools, like any other social organization, comprise a group of people who aim to delineate and achieve certain goals through their joint efforts. Therefore, each member of the group constitutes a hub of relationships and activities that develop within the school environment. However, taking into consideration the fact that each individual (a) has their own unique and distinct personality as regards aptitudes, incentives, principles, knowledge, desires and experience and (b) is expected to coexist and collaborate with the other members of the group; it is inevitable that conflicts (disagreements or disputes) will arise at some point within the school's working environment.

Morton Deutsch (1973) defines the term “conflict” as “the pursuit of incompatible or at least seemingly incompatible goals such that gains to one side come about at the expense of the other.” (p. 10). It is therefore regarded as a “competitive relationship” where each conflicting party is struggling to prevail by making sure that the opponent is subdued (defeated). This relationship could refer to a conflict of interest, personal or professional goals, a difference of opinion or even take the form of envy and hostility which can be triggered by various personal circumstances or prevailing conditions in a given school organization.

According to another standpoint (Mullins, 2010) the word “conflict” is defined as “behavior intended to obstruct the achievement of some other person's goals. Conflict is based on the incompatibility of goals and arises from opposing behaviors” (pp. 96–97). Both definitions attach negative connotations to the phenomenon of conflict, overlooking some positive outcomes that could result in the working environment. Indicative of this perspective is Everard, Morris, and Wilson's (2004) quotation according to which “the absence of conflict may indicate abdication of responsibility, lack of interest or lazy thinking” (p. 99).

Given people's differing aspirations, as already stated, groups constitute a reflection of their members' personal differences. As regards the importance of

personal differences, Handy (1981) points out that “A world without different opinions, stances or personalities, would be a world without colour, life and creation, a world with no sun” (p. 214). As maintained by Handy, people’s differences of opinion take the following forms:

- *Different arguments*, related to facts, goals, methods and principles
- *Competition* between individuals or groups, which could either be productive and beneficial or else negative or even harmful
- *Conflict*, which is the worst form that differences can take as it disrupts the smooth operation of an organization mainly due to a lack of communication, the arbitrary treatment of others and, not surprisingly, a decline in the group’s performance

In view of the above, we can thus define “conflict” as an act on behalf of an individual or group that conscientiously aims to obstruct or restrict the desired endeavour of another (individual or group) to accomplish their goals. It is, therefore, a confrontation between two parties “in relation to the principles and claims for social status, power (or authority) and scarce financial resources” (Cosser, 1956, p. 8).

In a typical school, where the organizational environment is characterized by complex procedures, roles and rules of operation, there is an assortment of numerous conflicts with various origins (Achinstein, 2002; Bagshaw, Lepp, & Zorn, 2007; Balay, 2006; Beck & Betz, 1975; Fassoulis, 2006; Greenfield, 1995; Henkin, Cistone, & Dee, 2000; Saiti, 2015; Shih & Susanto, 2010; Toziou, 2012), while the conflicting members of the school community have diverse relationships.

Until recently, organizational conflict was perceived as a negative phenomenon which ought to be avoided because of its adverse impact on the organization’s operation. This standpoint was supported by classical scientific management theory (Fr. Taylor, H. Fayol, etc.) which maintained that frictions can be prevented via streamlining, establishing proper procedures or acting in retribution against those who hinder the joint effort. It should be, however, emphasized that the classical theory is still of practical value, since in some cases it can avert unwelcome conflicts in an organization such as a school with rules and procedures.

On the other hand, modern administrative culture maintains that these conflicts are neither positive nor negative, except for their adverse implications which are more or less evident, and could actually constitute a positive factor in stimulating people to make greater efforts as well as contribute to the organization’s more efficient operation (Hatzichristou, 2004; Robbins & Judge, 2012). In particular, competition between groups could be the source of positive outcomes for each individual group as they are further motivated to perform their duties.

Referring to current literature (Balgopal & Vassil, 1983; Boardman & Horowitz, 1994; De Lima, 2001; Fassoulis, 2006; Krauss & Morsella, 2006; Nir & Eyal, 2003; Rahim, 2000, 2001, 2002; Robbins & Judge, 2012; Saiti, 2015; Schmidt, 1974; Somech, 2008; Tjosvold, 1998, 2008; Tjosvold & Hui, 2001; Tjosvold, Hui, & Sun, 2000; Tjosvold & Su Fang, 2004; Trudel & Reio Jr., 2011), we shall now briefly present the positive and negative effects of conflict, as they apply to schools:

Positive effects of conflict:

- Better ideas are brought forward owing to the justification of choices made or actions taken by individuals or groups.
- Problems are brought to light and can thus be tackled.
- Interest is stimulated and creativity promoted (through competition).
- Internal unity is often strengthened as a result of external conflict.

Negative effects of conflict:

- Communication in the organization is hindered by the typical mistrust and suspicion of conflicting groups or individuals, creating an unnecessarily tense atmosphere.
- Conflicting parties formulate a lawful response to any given initiative or activity.
- Dysfunctions or failures resulting from the lack of collaboration among staff.
- Low morale resulting from the feeling of defeat experienced by some individuals or groups in the organization.

Finally, conflict in the workplace does not always arise in the same way. That is to say that it may be direct, when there is tension in the relationships between individuals or groups, or indirect, when the conduct of an individual in an organization causes problems, such as unusual absences, the constant filing of complaints, requests for relocation, etc.

In summary, conflict that takes place in a typical organization such as a school is a complex phenomenon, and it is the school director's fundamental duty to handle its resolution. The effective management of conflict at school, though, is subject to numerous factors, such as the director/leader's skills, the stance of the school community members, the type of conflicts, etc.

6.2 Types of Conflict

Conflict, as previously mentioned, is an inevitable occurrence when a group of people interact. Therefore, regardless of how the school is organized, the director should be prepared to see conflict arise in one of the following forms (Corwin, 1966; De Lima, 2001; Hendel, Fish, & Galon, 2005; Henkin et al., 2000; Rahim, 2001; Tjosvold & Su Fang, 2004; Tjosvold et al., 2000):

- *Latent conflict.* This type of conflict takes the form of a general feeling/impression that "something is not quite right at school" and so refers to a potential conflict that has not yet manifested.
- *Perceived conflict.* Conflict can be perceived, even if it is not yet present (real) nor latent. "Perceived" conflict is caused by misinterpreting the viewpoints or standpoints of others. Not all conflicts are perceived by the individuals or the groups that work in a school, nor are all conflicts perceived in the same way.

- *Manifest conflict.* When conflict is clearly manifested in the daily conduct of both parties, it is defined as manifest (or real) conflict. It is substantial and visible, as it represents the externalization of conflict and can be manifested in different forms. These conflicts can fall into the following categories, depending on the parties involved:
 - *Interpersonall/intragroup conflict.* This is a conflict that arises between members of the same group, that is, between teachers of the same school. This type of conflict can be destructive for the cohesion of the organization if it develops between powerful members of the organization, e.g. between the school head and the deputy head.
 - *Intergroup conflict.* This refers to conflict between various school groups, such as the teachers and students of a school, or between informal groups (cliques).
 - *Conflict between the individual and the group.* This conflict could develop, for example, between a teacher and the students of a class or *between the school director and the teachers' council.*
 - *Inter-organizational conflict.* Such a conflict can arise between the school and the local community authorities. Parents or local authorities, for example, could get into conflict with the school director or the teachers' council.

6.3 Sources of Conflict at School

As previously stated, conflicts are an inevitability between individuals and groups. Frictions can be generated in an organization for a variety of reasons. Conflict could arise through the influence of competition, a lack of resources, inappropriate management practices or individual motivations (Hatzipanteli, 1999; Kantek & Gezer, 2009; Katsoridou-Papadopoulou, 1993; Rahim, 2000, 2001; Rahim, Garrett, & Buntzman, 1992; Shih & Susanto, 2010; Tjosvold, 1998; Tjosvold & Hui, 2001; Wall & Callister, 1995; Zavlanos, 1998).

Identifying and comprehending the underlying reasons that lead to frictions in the workplace are crucial for managers who are thus facilitated in resolving them effectively. It is hence deemed essential to state the main sources of conflict in a school's working environment:

Poor Communication Poor communication between individuals and groups in a school unit can easily lead to arguments and conflicts.

Organizational Weaknesses Organizational shortcomings such as a failure to clearly define the responsibilities and roles of the teaching staff often lead to major conflicts. The allocation of classes to school teachers is a typical example.

Conflicting Interests This problem arises when school members or groups have conflicting interests whereby someone's goal can only be achieved at the expense of someone else's. When two teachers of the same school, for example, wish to attend

a training programme organized by a state agency that accepts one teacher per school, the school head will need to select just one of them. The interested teachers may then be tempted to act in a way that either increases their chances of selection or decreases their colleague's chances of selection and thus potentially develop into a state of conflict.

Limited Resources The limited resources provided by local authorities to schools for their operational expenses are more often than not a source of conflict between school directors and the LEA (Local Education Agency/Authority). In addition, a lack of the essential audio-visual teaching material can lead to hostility between teaching staff (Saitis, Darra, & Psari, 1996).

Differences in Personalities and Principles Each school comprises individuals of different knowledge, beliefs or opinions, principles, age, interests, etc. In many cases, such a diverse composition does not facilitate positive interaction as individuals try to collaborate to achieve the school's goals, thus frequently resulting in frictions.

External Factors Another source of conflict is the school's external environment, as the collaboration of school members (teachers, director) with various local authorities (family associations, LEA) often constitutes a breeding ground for disagreement.

6.4 Conflict Management Strategies at School

One of the school's objectives, among others, is to develop an atmosphere where different groups can harmoniously collaborate so as to achieve their goals. This, of course, is not always straightforward because several situations that often arise within the school's working environment can hinder its smooth operation.

Resolving conflict is essential for the unobstructed and effective operation of schools because, regardless of its potentially positive effect, conflict generally leads to failure. After looking at the relevant literature, it becomes evident that there is no single way of managing intragroup and intergroup conflict within an organization. However, there are several ways that people commonly use to resolve conflict (Blake & Mouton, 1964 (cited by Rahim, 2001, p. 27); Bouradas, 2001; Dean, 1995, p. 142; Frisby & Westerman, 2010; Gross & Guerrero, 2000; Hunt, 1981, pp. 94–95; Rahim, 1983 (cited by Rahim, 2001, p. 27); Rahim, 2001, 2002; Rahim & Bonoma, 1979 (cited by Rahim, 2001, pp. 27–28); Rahim et al., 1992; Robbins & Judge, 2012; Saiti, 2015; Tjosvold & Hui, 2001; Walton, 1969). We will now look at the most notable of these:

- *The technique of avoidance/withdrawal.* This method includes several conflict management techniques, such as physically separating conflicting sides, postponing, convincing one party to give priority to the needs of the other, alienation,

etc. The relocation of teachers from one school to another on account of conflict with their director is a typical example of this technique.

- *The technique of compromise.* This technique allows the conflicting parties to maintain their differences but requires them to make some concessions in order to reach a middle solution; this is a give-and-take situation in which both parties (individuals or groups), by negotiation, agree to give something up in order to reach an agreement. With this method, there are no winners but no losers either. It provides a simple and effective method of resolving conflicts in a school unit. However, it should be noted that the success of this method depends on the maturity of the conflicting parties (Montana & Charnov, 1994).
- *The technique of collaboration/integration.* According to this technique, a third party of authority with a persuasive nature brings the conflicting parties to the table in order to foster communication, eliminate misunderstandings and identify the potential for satisfying the needs of both sides. Although mediation often leads to understanding and reasonable settlements, the success of this strategy depends on the type of problem, the mediator's leadership skills and the personalities of the conflicting parties. Through this approach, the conflicting parties face the conflict in hand directly and attempt to reach common ground jointly while also satisfying their needs. This problem-solving technique usually leads to a mutually beneficial result, that is to say, a win-win situation. For example, **when two teachers are in dispute**, the school director **first** needs to be aware not only of conflict management techniques but also of their potential consequences so that the ideal technique for each situation can be selected. **Secondly**, they should have background knowledge of the circumstances that initiated the conflict between the two parties in the first place so that they can be subsequently examined and, finally, a resolution of the problem be pursued through the technique of "convergence". More specifically, whenever a conflict arises between teachers the school director should:
 - Clarify with both conflicting parties, in private, what has been identified and why it is of concern.
 - Ask each teacher, without one being interrupted by the other, to affirm the issues of concern.
 - Listen to each teacher's position carefully.
 - Ask each teacher to summarize the other's position in order to verify that they properly understand their colleague's position.
 - Emphasize areas of common ground (e.g. in terms of interests and goals) and highlight how each teacher is interdependently linked with the other.
 - Ask the teachers (both individually and collectively) to suggest ways of resolving the issue.
 - Arrange a new meeting for the reappraisal of the issue if there is no direct agreement between the teachers on the action that should be taken (Dimitriou, 1991; Everard et al., 2004).

- *The technique of enforcement (forcing approach)*. In this case, school managers force their subordinates to cease their discords, particularly when they are unable to reach an agreement.
- *The technique of smoothing/accommodating*. In this method, the circumstances of the conflict are first analysed regarding the nature and conditions that gave rise to it. Then, an appropriate approach is determined after taking into consideration its causes. These may be a consequence of poor organization in managing situations such as: (a) the common use of mechanical equipment (e.g. photocopier), (b) a sequence of tasks or flow of information required by their duties or imposed by a higher authority and (c) regulations about a unanimous agreement required for joint action. Essentially, the main scope of this method is to facilitate coordination between the conflicting parties.

Let us suppose that there is conflict between the school director and a teacher. In practice, some directors look upon any type of conflict as some kind of personal affront; they tend to interpret it to be a lack of respect or a defiance of their authority. The individual who “disagrees” is subsequently often verbally attacked by the director. For example, “It is not your job to defy my decisions, John. I make the decisions. Your job is simply to do as I say”. Of course, it is hardly surprising that such scolding every so often has destructive consequences for the motivation of the individual. There are indeed very few who appreciate opposition to their ideas. The problem is that directors are sometimes unable to see the nature of the “disagreement”. Let us consider, for example, these negative reactions:

- A. “I am afraid I won’t have the time to finish this today, sir.”
- B. “It won’t work – we’ve tried this before.”
- C. “Mr. Director, sometimes you seem to believe that all it takes is for you to ask and everyone else must obey. You cannot insist on my coming to school this evening”.

Some directors would manifest an equally strong reaction to all three statements, simply because they consider them all negative!

From our standpoint:

The **first** statement provides the reason of discord and reflects an existing problem. It should be handled efficiently and a common solution or compromise should be reached.

The **second** statement doesn’t provide any justification. Therefore, the focus should be on identifying the underlying reasons and, if possible, extracting a solution from the colleague in question.

The **third** statement is a personal attack. You should try to abstain from returning the blow because you would have nothing to gain from such a reaction. Try to calm the situation down by asking the aggressor to explain their emotions. Attempt to discuss the reasons for their stance only after things have cooled off. Remember that they might be right, despite expressing themselves in the wrong way, and you might be wrong.

Bear in mind that win-win situations are always preferable to win-lose situations—directors often have the wrong impression that, in order to win, everyone else needs to lose. This is simply not true! The main disadvantage of this mentality is that, although you might win the battle, you will end up losing the war due to the negative climate instigated by your actions. With the win-win approach, on the other hand, both parties leave the conversation with a sense of having won something out of it. One might have won more than the other, but nevertheless ground was gained by both sides.

At this point, the following question arises: Which of the above-mentioned techniques is the most suitable for conflict management at school? In fact, there can be no definite answer either for or against any of those techniques since each circumstance calls for a different consideration and approach.

More specifically, there are cases where using the enforcement technique, although an authoritative option, is imperative. For example, during a school celebration, if two teachers disagree on the approach that has been selected for its preparation, the school director needs to exercise their authority because (a) the responsibility for the success or failure of the celebration falls upon the director and (b) due to lack of time, the cause of the disagreement can be examined at a later date. On the contrary, the problem of class allocation can be tackled either by way of putting operation regulations in place or by employing the technique of compromise. Finally, disputes for personal issues among teachers can be dealt with through mediation, avoidance or collaboration techniques.

6.5 Basic Parameters of Effective Conflict Resolution

In social organizations such as schools, the following conditions of effective conflict resolution must be satisfied:

Positive Atmosphere It is cultivated throughout the structure and all subdivisions of the school organization. It is affected by the way that school authority is exercised as well as by the needs, goals and aspirations of the teaching staff. That is why mutual agreement is required when both sides disagree without putting forward solutions and proposals (Heckscher, 1993; Krauss & Morsella, 2006; Rowe, 1993; Strauss, 1993). Any compromise must be acceptable to both sides. The method of pursuing compromise necessitates satisfactory communication between the conflicting parties who must be open to suggestions (Deutsch, 2006).

Skilful School Leadership The director plays the most significant role in successful conflict resolution at schools. Effective team management is one of the director's responsibilities. The manner in which dissonance is tackled depends on the director's personality, culture, knowledge, managerial experience and degree of flexibility. Constructive conflict resolution requires that the individual is not made to feel guilty for the problem that has arisen. It is preferable for managers to outline

the problem in relation to the unwelcomed conduct and not the individuals themselves.

Maturity of Teaching Staff A positive school atmosphere and effective school leadership constitute necessary but not sufficient conditions for constructive conflict resolution. Whether or not the techniques implemented by the school director bear fruit is determined by the principles and maturity of the teaching staff, as well as their area of expertise and, of course, their personal attributes.

Given the above, the efforts made towards effective conflict resolution (thereby aiming to secure a more positive atmosphere at school) are considered to have a dual nature, depending both on the skills and flexibility of the director-leader (e.g. being in a position to conduct negotiations appropriately, assess all aspects of the problem, clearly formulate common objectives, etc.) as well as the maturity and stance of the other members of the school community.

6.6 Complaint Management

During a school director's tenure in office, there are several problems that have to be dealt with since emerging problems are inevitable in the school work environment where the opinions, wishes and interests of each teacher come into conflict with those of the other colleagues or the administration. Some of those are personal and can be tackled with compassion and understanding, others relate to the competition between teachers, yet others to work conditions, etc.

To begin with, it should be pointed out that there is no such thing as a predetermined solution to any administration problem, since the solution given to a particular problem might be inadequate for the effective resolution of another similar problem in different circumstances. Therefore, the school director should handle each issue as a separate case.

With personal issues, for example, a teacher who is facing problems at home will inevitably carry them over into the work environment. The director, of course, cannot overlook them as irrelevant to the school's operation since personal problems might affect the professional performance of the teacher who could be distracted by them. In some cases, the problem will eventually sort itself out. Marital problems, for example, will eventually lead to reconciliation or divorce, illness will wane and grief will pass. In other cases, though, no such solution will be forthcoming, and the problem will persist, such as in cases of a handicapped child in the family. The only thing one can do when a problem constitutes an integral part of someone's life is to listen compassionately to one's problems and offer as much support as possible. The question is, though, how can a school director deal with such situations? On one hand, they ought to treat colleagues with sympathy and understanding, but on the other hand, they should bear in mind that their first priority is to preserve the school's smooth operation and, in order to achieve that, tough decisions might have to be made (Dean, 1995).

In other cases, the director might be in a difficult position when a complaint is made by a teacher against another or even against the director himself/herself. In such cases, directors ought to be very careful with what they say to their subordinates because if it is misinterpreted, it might lead to conflict. Directors should also ensure that all colleagues are treated equally as it would be detrimental for a director to show preference in the same way that it would be detrimental for a student to receive preferential treatment from a teacher, no matter how gifted they may be. As regards the director's relationships with the teaching staff, the following is stated by Kent (1989):

We have to take care not to operate behind the backs of any of our colleagues. One of the worst tangles I ever got myself into was when one teacher complained to me about the behaviour of a colleague, but begged me not to reveal that she had made the allegation. Foolishly I investigated the complaint without involving the original teacher. It later transpired that the two colleagues had been at loggerheads for years. By the time I had worked this out I had offended just about everyone on the staff and brought all sorts of trouble down upon my head when both teachers, combining for the first time in their lives, protested about my actions to the LEA and their union. What I should have done, of course, was to have insisted straight away on the first teacher making the complaint in the presence of the second while the three of us tried to sort the matter out. If the original complainant had refused to do so, then I should have told her that the matter was closed (p. 72).

The above suggests that (a) interpersonal issues should be discussed with the school teachers with honesty and clarity so as to yield positive results and (b) the school director ought to make an effort to maintain an ongoing rapport with all the teaching staff, endowed with absolute discretion and confidence. In the same way, while directors expect (as managers) to be treated with honesty by their colleagues, the latter must also be reassured that communication in the school environment is a two-way process.

In summary, effective complaint management constitutes a prerequisite for any school leader who wishes to establish a long-term and trusting relationship with both students and teachers. Indeed, any problem can be perceived as, and developed into, an opportunity for improving professional working relationships.

6.7 Claiming One's Rights Appropriately

During the daily operation of a school unit, teachers are able to exercise their rights in a variety of ways. Consequently, tensions are often generated that are not consistent with the organizational environment of an educational institution. In order to minimize such tensions, a teacher should exercise their rights in an appropriate manner. Bouradas (2013) and Mullins (2010) have studied teacher behaviours and classified them as follows:

- **Passive behaviour**, when a teacher recognizes the rights of others but ignores their own. For example, when a colleague takes my turn at the photocopier and I don't react, it means that I recognize the other's right to be in a rush but I ignore

my own right to priority. This attitude is negative because the other wins while I lose, and at the same time it allows for negative emotions to develop (e.g. anger, exasperation).

- **Aggressive behaviour**, when a teacher dynamically claims their rights, thus violating the other colleagues' rights. In the previous example, if I take the other teacher's turn at the photocopier, thus violating their rights, then I will foster negative emotions (e.g. exasperation) which will compel others to adopt a negative attitude towards me.
- **Positive behaviour**, when we claim our rights without violating those of others. In the above example, I could have said to my colleague: "Excuse me, but if you don't have a really good reason, you ought to wait your turn like the rest of us do...". This approach is more effective because it does not promote tension and anger among the members of a school unit.

6.8 Case Studies

Case 1: Conflict Between a Director and a Teacher Concerning Administrative Work Conducted Outside of Normal Working Hours

Mr. V. is a teacher who was appointed director of a Senior High School last August. In the beginning of October, an administrative issue came up for which Mr. V. asked Ms. A., another teacher, to stay with him for about an hour and help him handle it.

"As you are well aware", Ms. A. told her director, "this evening my daughter M. will be appearing at a theatre show at the National Theatre for the first time". She went on to say "For that reason, I would like to attend this performance".

"Yes, I remember", replied Mr. V. "but work has priority over personal issues!"

"I do not disagree, sir" replied Ms. A. "but for the past 20 years in the field of education I've always performed my duties within my work hours. Why should that change now? Besides, I'm not going to get reimbursed...".

"Ms. A." the director exclaimed in a serious tone "I am asking you to remain at school so as to carry out this task. . ." Then, he headed to his office looking troubled.

Ms. A., who was standing at the school corridor, was equally troubled. She was contemplating whether she should remain at school or leave work as normal, ignoring her director's instruction. A few minutes later she went back to his office, undoubtedly intending to discuss the matter again.

Based on the above, please answer the following questions:

- Which technique should both sides (i.e. the director and the teacher) opt for in order to find a win-win solution to the problem?
- What could the director have done in order to avert this conflict?

Case 2: Conflict Between Teachers Concerning the Use of the Photocopier

At a six-class primary school, there are eight teachers in service. The technological equipment of the school comprises, among other things, a photocopier which was

purchased 7 years ago. It is often out of order owing to misuse by some teachers and as soon as it has been repaired by the technician, there is often a line of teachers waiting to use it.

Last Wednesday morning, two teachers wanted to use the copier at the same time to make copies for their classes. For some reason, they disagreed about who had priority to use it first, thus giving rise to tension and inappropriate language in the presence of colleagues and students.

Based on the above:

- a) Examine the causes that led to the friction between the two teachers.
- b) If you were the director of this school, in what ways would you resolve this issue with the photocopier?

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Chapter 7

Practical Strategies for the Teachers' Council Operation

Abstract Group work and teamwork have become essential in organizations which these days are getting ever more complex due to the continuous technological, economical and social changes occurring in their external environment. As the complexity increases, more people become involved in the decision-making processes as teams try to resolve problems that emerge within the organization.

Such teams are effectively “collective organs” and constitute part of the collective management system. Collective organs, used in every type of formal organization (both public and private), embody a modern managerial approach and are a key characteristic of a democratic society. Indeed, today, you will rarely find a school unit that does not use collective organs in its decision-making process.

This chapter:

- Examines the general function of collective management in the context of a school and analyses the determinants for the effective functioning of its collective organs
- Uses an illustrative example to provide useful information on how the members of a collective organ (team members) can make rational decisions
- Examines the role of informal teams and presents techniques with which the school head can confront any difficulties that arise among members of a collective organ
- Presents ways in which the school head can create a mature and effective team
- Finally presents case studies based on real school situations

Key Chapter Concepts

- The most appropriate size for a team depends on a number of factors such as the mood and abilities of the team members, the type of project, the leader's ability, etc.
- A team can be considered as collegial and cohesive when, in the internal environment, there are forces being developed that attract and reinforce the members' desire to stay together. Thus, in a team with a high level of

(continued)

cohesion, any conflict or disagreement among team members is minimized, communication is improved and rules are more willingly respected.

- It is not enough for a decision to be the result of a democratic and fair process. It also needs to be effective, that is, contribute to the realization of the school's targets.
- A mature and effective team is one in which its members are coordinated using appropriate planning, organization and working methods – crucial elements that facilitate cooperation. Aside from a positive outcome, team members also tend to feel a higher sense of job satisfaction as they have contributed to a project/activity, which improves their social- and self-esteem.
- For a positive atmosphere of cooperation to be established at school, the school leader's efforts alone are not enough. It is also necessary for the educators to show maturity since it would be difficult to attain a high level of cooperation with educators who lack basic social skills (e.g. communication).

7.1 Collective Management in Education

The collective management system is representative of a typical organization that is managed by bodies. A body is defined as a team consisting of at least two individuals committed to the attainment of a certain goal or goals (Mullins, 2010). These management bodies operate in accordance with predetermined rules of lawfulness, such as lawful composition, quorum, etc., and their members have equal power.

Bodies are encountered in all organizational types (public or private), and they represent a modern management trend as in a sense they constitute “an attribute of a democratic society” (Pavlopoulos, 1983, p. 138). Therefore, rarely is a council or committee not involved in decision-making in organizations nowadays.

From a functional perspective, a collective organ is a group of people (usually 3–9) that communicate, collaborate and function with a collective consciousness in order to achieve a certain goal. In particular, the exercise of managerial authority by a collective organ ensures that the relevant organization has a democratic dimension since it implies independence, impartiality and objectivity in the decision-making process. In this respect, a collective action is more beneficial since it helps people/group members to expand their knowledge and results in better decisions (Schein, 1989).

Over the years, while many theories have been developed in the field of organizational science (Naylor, 1999), three approaches seem to influence educational management directly. These are the classical, the neoclassical and the systemic approach.

Focusing on the field of education, it is evident that management in primary and secondary education is essentially exercised by both single-entity (e.g. school head) and collective organs (e.g. teachers' council). Certainly, the way that authority is exercised in a school unit differs from country to country, as it is a result of many variables such as historical and political development or geographical synthesis.

To conclude, a school as a social organization does not operate in isolation. It is a part of a wider educational system that is influenced by its social environment. This influence does not only concern the development of its learning theories or teaching methods but also concerns the transfer of modern perceptions regarding the management of educational organizations.

The teachers' council convenes following an invitation by the president-school director, always in compliance with the school's operating rules.

7.2 The Director's Administrative Responsibilities

School directors, as presidents of the teachers' council, ought to:

- **Convene a meeting and invite their colleagues**, as long as there are items to be discussed.
- **Plan** and organize the next meeting promptly. The meeting must be well organized before it is convened, and the daily agenda should comprise all the items for discussion, the rapporteurs for each individual item as well as the exact time and location it will take place.
- **Provide for the timely notification of all members** on the agenda as well as the member of the council who shall assume the role of the secretary.
- **Attest the meeting's quorum**, if more than half of the full members of the body are present.
- **Conduct** the meeting within the appropriate length of time. The council's members should be punctual in terms of their attendance and the agenda items to be discussed in the designated order. Directors should also make sure that members do not talk at length and that in general the meeting is kept within the allotted time.
- **Ensure** that the points discussed are thoroughly considered so as to generate substantial proposals so the body can make the best possible decisions.

7.3 Key Factors for the Effective Operation of the Teachers' Council

In order for the effective operation of a body to be ensured, hence the teachers' council, all prerequisites that make the operation of a team (e.g. five to ten people) effective shall be satisfied. Among some of the factors found in the relevant literature are the following:

Team Size

The size of a team is a key factor that should be taken into consideration by managers. The importance of the size lies in the fact that small and large teams alike have both certain strengths and weaknesses. In particular, small teams (seven to nine members) tend to be flexible in decision-making and have stronger cohesion as they enable face-to-face communication among their members (Belbin, 2000; Brooks, 2008; Cane, 1996; Champoux, 2011; Curral, Forrester, & Dawson, 2001; Gouran & Hirokawa, 1996; Liden, Wayne, & Jaworski, 2004; Mullins, 2010; Robbins & Judge, 2012; Schermerhorn, Hunt, & Osborn, 2002). Smaller teams, however, are disadvantaged in terms of knowledge, aptitudes and information. On the other hand, larger teams (10–30 members) have more knowledge, opinions and information at their disposal and can therefore make sounder decisions which can be implemented more effectively (Bouradas, 2001; Brooks, 2008; Gouran & Hirokawa, 1996; Schermerhorn et al., 2002). However, a large team's operation is inflexible, the climate is less agreeable and the team's members experience less satisfaction.

Further to the above consideration, we can maintain that the “ideal” size of a team shall depend on a series of factors related to the applicable conditions, such as the disposition and aptitudes of team members, the nature of undertaken tasks, the abilities of the leaders, etc. (Bouradas, 2001; Brooks, 2008; Cane, 1996; Mullins, 2010; Schermerhorn et al., 2002).

Personality Traits of Team Members

The personality traits of the members also play a significant role in the overall efficiency of the team. For instance, when team members have compatible personalities, there seems to be a spirit of teamwork and a positive atmosphere which further results in the team's more effective operation. Indeed, “conscientious people are valuable to teams because they are good at offering support to other team members and also feel when this support is actually needed. Furthermore, team members who are receptive are better at communicating with each other and putting forward more ideas, an element which makes their teams more inventive and innovative” (Robbins & Judge, 2012, p. 303).

On the contrary, if team members have incompatible personality types, then there is an air of competition within the team which in turn leads to conflict and low performance.

Team Composition

The composition of a cooperative team is determined by variants that include the way teams are put together, the aptitudes and personalities of their members, role distribution, diversity, team size and the preference manifested by team members towards cooperative teamwork.

Team Cohesion

Team cohesion is a significant factor for the efficiency and morale of a team's members. The term “cohesion” (or cohesiveness) could be defined as “the ability of a team to maintain several close relationships among its members so that they are

inclined to remain in the team and make joint efforts. . .” (Bouradas, 2001, p. 399) and as “the unison and rapport as well as mutual attraction between team members” (Xyrotidi-Koufidou, 1992, p. 164).

After considering the above indicatively stated definitions, a team can be considered cohesive when forces which attract and urge members to stick together are both present and further developing. Therefore, frictions and conflict are minimized within a team with a high level of cohesion, while better communication is guaranteed and rules more easily enforced.

However, team cohesion can be threatened by several unfavourable factors (Cane, 1996; Kanellopoulos, 1990, pp. 444–445; Mullins, 2010, p. 314; Xyrotidi-Koufidou, 1992, pp. 164–165) such as:

- Large size, which has a negative impact on the team’s cohesion
- Differences in terms of the team’s goals
- Competition among team members

Rules and Procedures

The management of an organization sets out the rules and operational framework of a team, while also developing the climate, within which the team is called to function. Those rules constitute the standards according to which the team members must regulate their behaviour for it to be acceptable by the team. It should be noted that the team’s efficiency is greatly determined by the type of rules and the level of compliance that team members manifest since rules and regulations facilitate coordination and team functioning, determine the team’s expectations of its members and generally promote the resolution of interpersonal differences (Bouradas, 2001; Brooks, 2008; Cane, 1996; Champoux, 2011; Mullins, 2010; Poole & Baldwin, 1996; Schermerhorn et al., 2002). For all the above reasons, it is asserted that a mature team needs to implement those rules and procedures which produce the best possible results in each case, given the circumstances.

Team Leadership

It was previously stated that every team, formal or not, has a leader who is either designated by the organization’s management or has emerged from the team itself. Although leaders have a multifaceted role (Barge, 1996; Champoux, 2011; Denis, Lamothe, & Langley, 2001; Fullan, 2001, 2005; Hargreaves & Fink, 2008; Harris, 2005; Kinlow, 1991; Mullins, 2010; Xyrotidi-Koufidou, 1992), their main objective, for which they are solely responsible for, is associated with directing the behaviour of the team members towards achieving certain goals. Whether a leader is efficient or not depends more on one’s aptitudes and skills to lead, motivate, coordinate and encourage the team members and less on the power one’s position is endowed with. It should be further noted that successful leadership does not merely stem from a charismatic leader but other parameters as well, such as the team’s composition, the nature of undertaken tasks and the objectives pursued by the team.

Team Goals

It is widely acknowledged that when team members have common goals, they manifest a high level of performance. That is because when all members recognize

that they have common goals, and consequently “common interests”, they realize their interdependence, see themselves as a whole and develop team spirit.

It should be pointed out that the team's functions and duties must be clarified and fully comprehensible to its members, and their allocation should be made in a way that its members' knowledge, aptitudes, experience, disposition and available time are used to the full.

Team Members' Roles

Team members are entrusted with certain tasks. Therefore, a team's efficiency depends to an extent on the way that its members assume and develop their roles.

Research in the field of social psychology recognizes two types of roles or activities which are fundamental for the good cooperation among members of a small team (Belbin, 2000; Benne & Sheets, 1948; Champoux, 2011; Jarboe, 1996; Mullins, 2010; Schein, 1989; Schermerhorn et al., 2002). Task activities contribute directly to the objectives of the team's performance, while maintenance activities support the emotional balance of the team as a social continuum (Belbin, 2000; Champoux, 2011; Jarboe, 1996; Mullins, 2010; Schermerhorn, 2011; Schermerhorn et al., 2002).

Moreover, the role of individual members within the team is a very important aspect of the team's constitution since the role in fact has a bearing on the team member's behaviour, and this collectively determines how the team performs. Belbin (2000) converged on the conclusion that individuals who participate in a team may have up to nine different types of key role. Given that “no one is perfect” (Mullins, 2010, p. 343), in as much as an individual cannot excel in all of Belbin's nine roles, then a team that consists of more than one person has the potential to be more powerful and influential than a single person. The role distribution within the team is based upon certain criteria such as experience and personal characteristics (Mullins, 2010). In particular, the role played by an individual may change during the course of the team's function, while, according to Belbin, all key roles may not necessarily be useful for the performance of the team. Therefore, it should be noted that distributing the roles among the team members enhances the team's synergy and feeling of collegiality, cohesion and support—crucial factors for a successful team performance.

Although the team leader or supervisor needs to pay special attention to each type of task, the responsibility for both types of activities must be joint and equally allocated among all team members. All can contribute to the leadership of a team by acting in ways that satisfy the needs of task and maintenance activities. The concept of **distributed leadership** in teams renders each member to be responsible so as to identify the need to undertake task or maintenance activities as well as take relevant action to engage in them.

In the light of the former analysis, it is hard to conclude whether and to what extent the above-stated factors facilitate and further enhance the cohesion of the teachers' council and consequently the harmonious cooperation of its members.

7.4 Collective Decision-Making at School

At this point, the following question arises: **In what ways, can the teachers' council make the right decisions?**

In order to answer wisely, a case in point would be an example from the school reality such as the process of class allocation to teachers.

Let us suppose that we are members of the teachers' council of a school unit which is convening to discuss class allocation. At first, the school director should start the meeting at the planned time making a brief introduction by:

- Mentioning the criteria or the procedure that was followed for class allocation in the previous school year
- Presenting a detailed list of all teachers and the class (or classes) allocated to them over the previous 2 years
- Stating any particularities pertaining to the teaching staff (e.g. if there are senior or physically challenged teachers)

Next, all teachers should be given the floor so they can all express their views with clarity and adequate arguments. Teachers, for their part, should listen carefully to the arguments-viewpoints of their colleagues and handle the situation with an open mind. The director, as a leader, can at this point encourage, if necessary, taciturn members and restrain those monopolizing the conversation and ensure a pleasant atmosphere by diffusing tension through quick breaks and amusing stunts that will positively contribute to teamwork.

If by the end of this stage, the views (suggestions) set forth do actually provide a resolution to the item under discussion, so that each teacher is allocated the class of their choice, then the matter is considered closed by virtue of a unanimous decision. In practice, of course, unanimity might not be achieved. But when it is achieved, it is highly likely to be effective because it is jointly accepted by all members. In other words, teachers are more effective when they do what they have opted for themselves.

What should be done, however, when there is no convergence of opinion among teachers? In this case, the pursuit of a consensual or compromising solution is deemed necessary. Consent or compromise is achieved when each member is willing to accept and implement a solution that might not be their first choice but is still considered as a viable approach that satisfies the interests of both teachers and students to a sufficient extent.

To ascertain whether all members of the council have reached a mutually acceptable decision, the school director as the president of the assembly must formulate a question of the sort: "Are you all in agreement of this proposition? Or "Are there any objections to this decision?". If they answer positively or no one speaks, it could be understood that all teachers are in agreement.

Although this process is similar to voting, the aim here is not to achieve a majority decision. The aim is to discover if they are all willing to accept and support the decision. If someone, including the director, is not ready, then more

discussion is required until an opinion that can be adopted and supported by all is expressed. Consent implies that the positions of all members are equally understood by all, and therefore in order for consent to be reached, more information is required before a carefully reasoned decision is made.

In short, a consensual decision leads to a satisfactory result, while in the case of our example, the extent of success also depends on the personality of the school director as well as the disposition of the team members for honest cooperation. In turn, disposition for honest cooperation requires a working environment that leaves no room for “individual” planning and personal initiatives of a self-directed nature. All members of the school community try to abandon “selfishness” and move towards a more collective framework since this is what bonds and drives them to constructive teamwork, cohesion and mutual understanding. Therefore, in our case, but also in other more challenging school issues that often lead to conflict, the sense of collegiality among teachers should be the fundamental pillar of decision-making.

What happens, though, when the viewpoints-suggestions of teachers differ so much that there is no room for compromise? In this case, all suggestions should be noted down and then submitted for voting. After certain voting sessions, classes will be allocated based on certain criteria (e.g. seniority, expertise, etc.). Decisions made using the voting process may be democratic but not necessarily efficient as teachers in the minority might not be allocated their preferred classes which might in turn affect their performance unfavourably as compared to their actual potential.

Therefore, it does not suffice for a decision to be reached by means of a democratic procedure and be fair for the teachers; it should also be effective, meaning that it should contribute to the attainment of school goals.

7.5 Informal Groups at School

An informal group acts within the working environment of an organization, in parallel and in conjunction with the formal organization. It consists of small clusters of people who are brought together in order to satisfy their needs. Friendships, cliques and demonstration of mutual assistance taking place among workers in a typical organization (e.g. a school) are some of the arrangements classified as informal groups. Their formation depends on an impulsive emotional element, community ties, etc., and their activities are governed by unofficial rules, duties and obligations. They don't have a fixed duration, and their existence depends on the time span required for the realization of the goals for which they were formed in the first place.

In a school unit, the informal “teachers' union” has the ability and the power to take advantage of the school administration weaknesses and impose their own preferences. So, they can positively or negatively contribute to the school unit's operation and in particular to:

- **Efficiency**, as the impulsive and emotional element that connects team members can positively or negatively influence the teaching performance.
- **Changes**, that the school management wishes to introduce. For example, introducing or doing away with a certain practice usually depend on the stance manifested by teachers.
- **Administration**, as the leaders of informal groups have both the knowledge and experience to motivate the members of their groups thus facilitating or hindering the objectives of school management.

As both group types, formal and informal, represent the activities undertaken within the team effort framework, the school management owes to give special emphasis on the requests and needs of the teaching staff as working behaviours are greatly influenced by the dynamics of working groups.

7.6 Dealing with Difficult Teachers

Given that the teachers' council comprises members who each react to messages conveyed by other members in their own way, that they all have their own individual personality and perceive messages in line with their personality and that the council is called to accomplish certain goals related to various school problems, the question that arises is: how can the school director handle difficult members of the teachers' council?

The main categories of difficult people are:

- **The latecomers**, (teachers) who always arrive more than 5 min late for the council's meeting. In order to deal with this situation, it is suggested that the president bring the meeting to a halt for the other members to stare at their tardy colleague for as long as it takes for them to get settled, or completely ignore them for about 5 min.
- **The garrulous**, who consume too much time at a meeting in order to express their views. In this case, the president shall allow this person enough time to say what they want as long as they remain relevant, then recapitulate, thank them and immediately after give the floor to someone else. If they continue to interject, the president is bound to go over the basic rules that govern collective decision-making bodies.
- **The uninvolved or silent**, who are not at all vocal although they should actively participate in the conversation about several school issues. According to A. Jay (1976, p. 15), there are two types of silence which require the president's attention: the **silence of reluctance** and the **silence of hostility**. The reluctant member of the teachers' council abstains from the conversation for fear of their colleagues' reaction. For that reason, Jay asserts that the president should encourage the silent teacher to speak out freely. As regards the silence of hostility, Jay claims that silence is usually a symptom of feeling offended. Whatever the fundamental reason for this lack of interest, the president should

at some point summarize what was stated during the meeting and then give the floor to all members so as to express themselves freely. If the uninvolved teacher remains pensive and silent, the president should allow for some more time and provide encouragement:

- Chair: George, from your experience and expertise, what is your opinion on this...?
- George: What difference does it make? Nothing is going to happen. . .
- Chair: Why are you saying that?
- George: We've had similar discussions in the past years. In the end, nothing happened. . .
- Chair: As you can see, this year your colleagues have showed a lot of interest to make it happen. Isn't this what you also want? Etc.

- **The joker or humourist**, who make fun of everything and their jokes always go over the top, either owing to their cheerful personality or because it is a way of relieving tension in a difficult situation. Therefore, if jokes come in small dosages and help alleviate the tension at critical times, then they are indeed beneficial! If, though, they are excessive or inappropriate, the president should explain that there is a certain level of tolerance and then pose a question relative to the item discussed. That way, the discussion can resume normality.
- **The argumentative**, who react to any suggestion without providing well-documented answers. In this case, instead of ignoring the argumentative teachers, the president should better bring them in the centre of attention. In particular, the meeting should be interrupted, and teachers should be asked directly to answer why they disagree with the suggestion under discussion while trying to elicit a positive recommendation.
 - Chair: George, why do you disagree. . .?
 - George: Because the event is not going to work. . .
 - Chair: Why?
 - George: Because we don't have enough funds. . .
 - Chair: Can you then recommend a way to reduce the cost or raise funds. . .? Etc.

It should be emphasized that an argumentative person differs from an activist (without being an anarchist) as the latter tends to visualize, create, be imaginative, innovative and defiant. Activists are moderate radicals who behave as responsible team members. For that reason, the teachers in their majority should take their suggestions into careful consideration and try to endorse them in the best possible way.

- **The aggressive**, who launch personal attacks on their colleagues during the meeting. As people usually act equally aggressively when confronted, the president should act promptly to prevent the meeting from getting too heated. If the confrontation persists, the meeting should be adjourned until members cool off.

7.7 School Management and Team Spirit

The effective operation of a school unit depends, among others, on the people (teachers) who work there and the degree of their joint effort. If something is going wrong, school directors should be able to identify what is happening with the behaviour of their colleagues and consequently take steps to improve the school climate. That is because team spirit and people's (teachers) ability to function as an effective team are what ensure optimal results. Indeed, it is well established that games are not won by adding up the potential of each individual person (or talents) but by teams in unison. The equation which is applicable to team effort is $1 + 1 = 4$, as the *phenomenon of synergy* comes in (Goleman, 2001). Consequently, it's the team and not the individuals that constitute the keystone of an organization. However, it is also claimed that Two persons that pull a rope together only use by average 93% of the strength that one person utilizes when pulling the rope alone. When three are pulling the rope, personal performance drops to 85%, and when there are eight pulling it, it falls to 49%. Scientists call this phenomenon the *social loafing effect*. It occurs when the efforts of an individual are not directly visible but interjected in the team's efforts. Social loafing can be observed in rowing but not in a relay race where the impact of each runner is visible. It is an absolutely understandable behaviour. Why should we put forth 100% of our effort when we make half the effort without anyone being able to tell? In brief, social loafing is a form of deception that we all use, usually not on purpose, but rather unknowingly.

Social loafing is not only observed in terms of physical performance. We tend to manifest the same mental indolence, for example, in meetings. "The bigger the team, the more limited our personal participation is – but with some people the performance reaches a point that can no longer drop. In this case, it makes no difference if the team comprises 20 or 100 individuals since the maximum level of loafing has been reached. . ." (Dobelli, 2013, pp. 219–220).

The question that arises is: why is this a contradiction? The answer can be found in "culture". In contrast to Western societies, social loafing as well as the "free rider" effect and "fool" are not observed in eastern culture teams (e.g. Japan, China, etc.) (Champoux, 2011; Dobelli, 2013; Kokkinaki, 2005; Panteli, 2010; Schermerhorn et al., 2002; Williams, Karau, & Bourgeois, 1993). The remedies to the above phenomena are establishing team culture, strengthening team cohesion, enhancing team spirit and promoting trust and reciprocity among its members (Panteli, 2010). On the contrary, lack of good cooperation among members in a school unit cannot but cause frictions due to lack of coordination among their individual actions.

Subsequently, the following question seems apposite: **In what ways can a school director develop a mature and effective team?**

A team is mature and effective when its members coordinate themselves through proper planning, organization and working methods, factors which facilitate and support their cooperation. Planning and running a school celebration is a relevant example. Apart from the positive result, the members of such team experience more

satisfaction, as planners of the school celebration themselves, since through the team they satisfy many of their personal needs, such as social recognition and esteem.

To avoid any misapprehensions, the following shall be noted:

- **Forced cooperation**, which is imposed on people (e.g. by law), does not necessarily result in effective cooperation. For example, the forced cooperation of a teacher with other colleagues within the context of their participation in a seminar does not mean that those individuals represent a mature and effective team.
- **Mature and effective people** do not necessarily make mature and effective teams because what really matters is the attitude they manifest when making joint efforts. A renowned soccer coach has hit the nail on the head with his statement “it is easy to find good players but difficult to have them all play together” (Bouradas, 2013).
- **Putting together a mature and effective team at school** requires competent school leadership. This means that the school director must have some teaching experience, knowledge on education management and emotional intelligence skills.

Having in mind the above considerations, in order for school directors to make their teachers-colleagues feel and function as a mature and effective team, they owe to:

Firstly, convey the significance of interdependence and common interest to the teachers.

In line with the regulations governing school operation, the *raison d'être* of the teachers' council is to achieve results. The school director, as the president of this collective body, must get the goals of the school unit across to all members through open communication. Those goals cannot be reached without commitment, joint effort and good cooperation which characterize mature and effective teams. Therefore, the better a school unit functions, the greater the satisfaction all school community members experience. In practice, this means that for the school director of a particular school to be satisfied, those who contributed to the success must also be satisfied. This interdependence means that there is common interest between the managers and those managed which cannot be achieved if there are no common goals, commitment and joint effort proportionate to the abilities and potential of all school community members.

The teachers' council can operate as a mature and effective team when:

Firstly, the members of the school community possess certain aptitudes, such as problem-solving skills, interpersonal skills, respect and reciprocity.

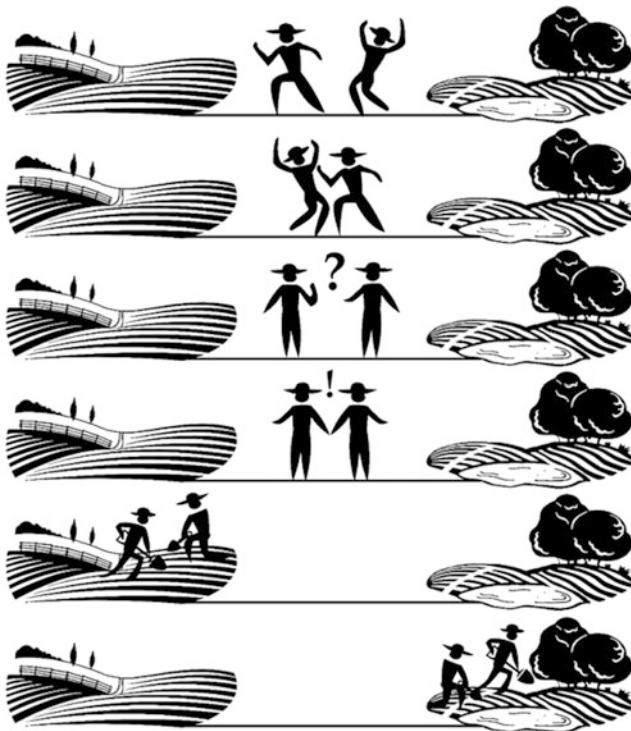
Secondly, there is mutual trust among the members of the teachers' council. In contrast, the council cannot easily achieve set goals when there is animosity and mistrust among its members.

Thirdly, there is cooperation among the council's members since, as already mentioned, synergy emerges during team effort. It should be further noted that

(a) the more solid and pure the interdependence of the team, the higher the level of their cooperation and (b) cooperation, rather than competition, among team members contributes more to the achievement of set goals (Zavlanos, 1998).

Finally, there is cohesion among the members of the above collective body. The element of cohesion defines the level of interpersonal relationships and mutual attraction among members of the teachers’ council; that is how dedicated to the council and how close to each other they are. Therefore, a high level of cohesiveness, in contrast to a low level, indicates an almost absolute “commitment” among the members (Hytiris, 2006). Among the factors that have a positive effect on the cohesion of a body are amicable/team atmosphere; goal attainment; resemblance of teachers as regards their stance, interests, principles; etc. On the other hand, factors that may challenge cohesion are competition among the members of the teachers’ council; substantial differences in their stances, interests and principles; leadership style; and efforts made by one or more members for domination (Pearce & Robinson, 1989, p. 529).

The two fundamental concepts of “interdependence” and “trust” can be better illustrated through the following sketch:



For a better understanding of the two terms, namely, “trust” and “interrelation”, let us refer to a story that was told by a school teacher when one of the two authors was a student.

Once, my dear children, said the teacher to their students, there was a farmer with two sons. When the farmer got old he made a will with a special clause: “After my death my two children will share the family land fairly”.

When the farmer died the two brothers endeavoured to share the land of the farm which was the only property they had. However, due to the morphology of the ground, it was extremely difficult to share out the land accurately. (**Interrelation**)

The bigger brother said to the youngest “I will take the land that is near the river and you can take the part of the farm which is close to the lake”. The youngest brother reacted abruptly to the bigger brother’s proposal, saying “but the land close to the lake cannot be cultivated since it is marshland”. (**Purpose**)

Two months later the bigger brother tried once again to talk to his younger brother in order to convince him to share the property, but he refused. Subsequently the land remained uncultivated.

A few weeks later the bigger brother made a new proposal to the youngest by saying “I can take the land close to the river for three years and you the other part (close to the lake) and then we can change over. . .” “Yes, but what if you don’t keep your word?” replied the younger brother (**Lack of Trust**).

Therefore, the land remained uncultivated, and the two brothers were left without any harvest that year. Faced with this dire situation, the two brothers understood it was in their common interest that the land be cultivated. For this reason, they decided to jointly cultivate the land and then to share the harvest. Ending the story, the teacher emphasized upon the students that: “whenever you start working in an organization, whether public or private, you should be cooperative and sincere with your colleagues – firstly, as a mutual effort to interrelate, and secondly, because through good cooperation you all win”.

Secondly, directors should comprehend and be familiar with the logic of competition and cooperation.

From one point of view (Bouradas, 2005), people’s stance in various interdependence relationships could be governed by the following typology:

The competition scenario, a win-lose situation where one wins and the other loses

The cooperation scenario, a win-win situation where both win

The lose-lose scenario, a no-win situation where both lose

The lose-win scenario where one loses and the other wins

In order to better understand the above scenarios of cooperation and competition, the following examples shall be employed: “The dilemma of the prisoner” (Kokkinaki, 2005, pp. 202–204) and “The frog and the scorpion” (myth of unknown origin, also found as “the frog and the snake” in Aesop’s Fables).

Example 1. Two prisoners, A and B, jointly commit a crime and have the following alternatives and corresponding penalties: (a) if they both confess, they will be both sentenced to 12 years of imprisonment; (b) if only A confesses, he will

be released and B will be convicted to 20 years of imprisonment; (c) on the contrary, if only B confesses, then he will be the one who will be set free and A will be convicted to 20 years; and finally (d) if no one confesses, they will both serve 3 years. In the end, as the prisoners could not communicate nor trust each other, they both confessed and were consequently both sentenced to 12 years of imprisonment. On the contrary, if they had cooperated and neither had confessed, they would only have served 3 years.

Prisoner A

Confesses	Doesn't confess
Sentence A = 12 years Sentence B = 12 years	Sentence A = 20 years Sentence B = 0 years
Sentence A = 0 years Sentence B = 20 years	Sentence A = 3 years Sentence B = 3 years

Example 2. The following anecdote helps us comprehend how disastrous individualism can be in cases where there is interdependence or mutual interest among people.

A scorpion and a frog meet on the bank of a stream, and the scorpion asks the frog to carry him across on its back because he has many loved relatives that he wishes to visit and he can't swim. The frog says, "You must think I'm crazy! You are a scorpion, you'll sting me and I'll die!". The scorpion keeps begging and promising in an effort to persuade the frog, and in the end, he manages to convince him using a solid argument: "Look, since I can't swim, if I sting you and you die, then I'll drown. So, I'm not crazy to do that, don't worry". The frog is satisfied, and they set out, but in midstream, the scorpion stings the frog. The frog feels the onset of paralysis and starts to sink, knowing they both will drown, but has just enough time to gasp, "Why did you do that, scorpion? Now I'll die and you'll drown". The scorpion then replies, "I know that frog, but I couldn't help it, it's in my nature" (Bouradas, 2013).

Thirdly, directors should handle the problems effectively that affect the operation of the team, such as:

- **Indecisiveness-procrastination**
- **Compromise** the members to a low level of importance
- **Imposition of a member** upon the team

Since in the school working environment there aren't only two parties involved (like in our examples) but many more who can either be cooperating or competing against each other, school directors should remember the following rules:

- **They should be cooperative**, meaning that they should offer cooperation if they want to receive it back.
- **They should act reciprocally**, offering cooperation for cooperation, but competition for competition.

- **They should forgive** those who seem to regret their competitive behaviour and offer their cooperation to those who ask for it, for their personal benefit (Bouradas, 2013).

In sum, fostering a good team spirit should constitute any school director's primary objective as through the efforts of fostering and developing good social relationships, a good climate of cooperation and positive interdependence among the members of the school community is established. Of course, it doesn't only take the director's efforts to establish good cooperation relationships in the school environment. Mature teachers are also essential since those lacking basic social skills (e.g. communication) have a difficulty in achieving a high-quality cooperation.

7.8 Case Studies

Case 1: Class Allocation in a Multigrade School

In a primary school, 12 teachers are employed with the following characteristics: 4 of them have over 20 years of service and have been working in the same school for 15 years, 6 of them have 6–10 years of experience and have been working in the same school for over 5 years, one of them is employed on secondment and has a Master in Natural Sciences and another one is a substitute teacher with a PhD in Maths Teaching. In the beginning of last September, the teachers' council convened in order to reach a decision for class allocation among the teaching staff. Upon the session's closure, two teachers were discontented because due to their limited experience, they were allocated two classes of the first grade contrary to their expressed preference. What is more important is that the school did not put their high qualifications into good use. It should be noted that (a) there are no legislative regulations provisioning class allocation criteria, and (b) both teachers who took over the first grade were dissatisfied throughout the school year because of the biased predisposition against them.

Based on the above, please answer the following questions:

- (a) Is the decision of the above teachers' council, which was reached through democratic procedures, efficient?
- (b) If the decision is not efficient, based on which management principle could this council have taken a more advantageous decision for the students?
- (c) Which conditions can optimize the operation of a teachers' council?

Case 2: Lack of Teamwork at a School Unit

At a primary school in a mountainous region, Mr M has been the school director since the school year of 2011–2012. Ms D, a newly hired teacher, also serves in this school. On her first day at school, Mr M introduced her to the other members of the school community. Then, Mr M informed the new teacher of her duties and rights stemming from her employment in the public education system. He also provided

her with a copy of the school's rules of operation so that she could get acquainted with the organization and operation of primary schools.

After a week, the first problems made their appearance. Some teachers made complaints about Ms D's provocative attire to the director, whereas others started expressing their discontent regarding lack of teamwork. For example, she wanted to have priority when using the copier and the other technological equipment, she would constantly interrupt her colleagues to ask for assistance, she was being obstinate while holding conversations, etc.

A month later, Mr M explained to the young teacher what she had been doing wrong.

By mid-October, Ms D went to the director's office to announce her resignation. She also told him that she was disappointed by all her colleagues because they wouldn't talk to her or wouldn't help her with her work and that the social environment of the school was "traditional".

Based on the above, please answer the following questions:

- (a) Do you consider the procedure followed by the school management appropriate in regard to the induction of Ms D in the school's working environment?
- (b) What reasons can Ms D's leaving her school be attributed to?
- (c) Do you believe that this particular school has "teamwork dynamics"?

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Chapter 8

Dimensions of School Management Leadership

Abstract It is generally accepted that in order to manage a school unit appropriately, the school should have the capacity to organize itself in such way that it aims to use its available material and human resources to achieve its targets as efficiently as possible. To this end, the role of the school head in the functioning of the school unit is crucially important and catalytic since, bureaucratic activities aside, their key role is to provide leadership. A leader's behaviour and work ethic sets the example that inspires and motivates educators/colleagues, thus creating the appropriate climate for a positive and productive collaboration with all staff within the school. Indeed we consider that, in the field of education, motivation is an important factor for the successful achievement of the school's targets. In particular, in order for educators to perform efficiently, a constructive and positive climate is absolutely necessary if all the methods and techniques are to be harnessed for efficient and effective performance.

This chapter:

- Examines the meaning of the term “effective school” and investigates the effective functioning of the school unit through school leadership actions
- Briefly presents motivation theories and also refers to the way that a school head should monitor and control their subordinates
- Examines the meaning and the significance of “educators’ professional development” and presents the elements that constitute it
- Refers to the rules for the leadership behaviour that a school head should consider so as to be pleasant and cool headed with their colleagues
- Finally presents case studies from real school scenarios

Key Chapter Concepts

- In the functioning of a school, the school leader plays a dynamic role: apart from the bureaucratic aspects, they exercise leadership, while, through their behaviour and actions, they inspire and stimulate colleagues, thus creating an appropriate climate in which both students and personnel feel motivated.

(continued)

- Fair treatment is a basic requisite for educators' motivation. If a staff member perceives that there is any unfairness, they will react in a negative way, and the first likely impact will be a reduction in their level of performance.
- Motivation is a significant contributor to work performance. Hence, in order to ensure a high level of work performance among educators (and consequently the school unit), education's central administration should have a good understanding of what really motivates educators and satisfies their needs.
- An effective programme of training for school staff contributes to their professional development and hence to the effective functioning of the school units.
- The professional development of the school personnel depends to a large extent on the ability of school leaders to educate/guide their colleagues.

8.1 Definition of the Term “Effective School”

As already mentioned in the first chapter, schools are social organizations, or else social systems, that comprise a number of operational elements (students, teachers, etc.) each performing their own individual duties while jointly operating, cooperating and influencing each other for the achievement of specific goals. In order for those goals to be attained, a school must operate effectively.

What do we mean, though, by the term “effective school”? From an organizational standpoint, one could maintain that a school is effective when goals are met (Hoy & Ferguson, 1989). However, school units operate in a complex environment affected by multiple internal and external factors, making it difficult to set common goals. Moreover, schools are not just organizations, whereas social dynamics are being developed, but also is an “institution with a clear direction as regards to its values which infiltrates every aspect of the educational process and is interactive with broader social phenomena. The school institution provides knowledge and skills, general education and expertise along with infusing views and beliefs, shaping conscience, imprinting values. . .” (Papanau, 1995, p. 40).

In brief, “effectiveness” in the school field is considered a multidimensional concept since there is not a single criterion, such as the students' achievements, the overall image of the school, etc., that could fully depict its complex nature (Edmonds, 1979; Hoy & Ferguson, 1989) nor could some of the school's goals, such as “infusing views and beliefs” or “shaping the students' conscience” be measured or assessed (Papanau, 1995).

Nevertheless, key factors that play an important role in the effective operation of school units have been brought to light by relevant studies (Bossert, 1985; Edmonds, 1979; Ifanti, 2000; Kapsalis, 2005; Mortimore, 1995; Purkey & Smith,

1983; Theophilidis, 1994) School leadership is among those factors. Indeed, the director's role in the operation of school units is of vital importance, since apart from the bureaucratic work, directors also play a leading role through their demeanour and actions by inspiring, motivating their colleagues and fostering a supportive atmosphere that stimulates the entire human capital at schools.

The purpose of this chapter is to emphasize an effective school operation in relation to school management practices.

8.2 School Management and Teacher Motivation

8.2.1 Introductory Comments

Every school director, depending on experience and skills, have their own ideas and beliefs as of what motivates teachers to work more effectively and generally move towards a direction that is in array with the school's goals. Many senior managers maintain that higher compensation will urge the teaching staff to work towards a higher level of performance. Other directors claim that if working conditions improve at schools, the teaching staff will perform their duties with greater enthusiasm.

There are those, however, who argue that teachers need to experience a feeling of security just like any other worker. All those viewpoints have solid grounds, but work motivation has been one of the most interesting fields of organizational psychology which has been widely explored.

As for the importance of motivation in the field of education, we consider this management task as one of the most fundamental factors for the attainment of school goals. In particular, in order for the teaching staff to perform, there needs to be the right climate in the school units, while all the methods and techniques that shall further stimulate them shall be developed. In a way, the management principle according to which "if the leader of an organization, thus a school, keeps their colleagues (teachers) satisfied, then they will be productive" seems to apply. On the other hand, a school unit cannot make the most of a teacher's potential if their disposition is negative and the work assigned will be done within a negative climate and as a result will be less cooperative with the hierarchy.

8.2.2 What Holds Teachers Back from Doing Their Best?

It has been elsewhere asserted that schools are established in order to achieve certain goals and that individuals (teachers) participate in such organizations so that they can personally benefit. That is, schools represent a mutually beneficial relationship between the organization and its members. Given this standpoint, we

can suggest that the individuals who participate in the organization (school) wish to satisfy certain needs or desires that may comprise material, like money, or non-material gains.

However, although there are predefined organizational goals and all members of the school unit are equal in terms of anatomy and physiology, in practice not all individuals manifest the same performance at the workplace. In reality, if we monitor a group of people (e.g. a school unit) that perform the same duties, we shall realize that some workers perform more (in terms of quality and quantity) and others less. This observation is applicable to any human activity, and the question which thus arises is: what are the causes for those differences?

Answers to this question are in abundance. However, we shall try to formulate our answer with the aid of the personal performance equation:

$$\text{Personal Performance} = A \times O.S. \times M.$$

where A = ability, O.S. = organizational support and M = motivation.

Given the above equation, in order for an individual to be in a position of producing significant work, the following prerequisites must be met:

- *Knowledge and skills* necessary for the performance of the work. In management, this means that staff selection must be made based on qualitative standards so that the right person is appointed to the right position. The right person is considered an individual (a teacher, in our case) who combines harmoniously a cluster of personality attributes, aptitudes, intellectual and emotional intelligence as well as mental health. Those traits should be taken into serious consideration during the hiring process of teachers. After all, similar practices have been adopted by many European countries such as Finland with an effective education system.
- *Organizational support*, that is the logistical support provided to workers by the organization.
- *Motivation*, which includes all the elements that can influence the individual's disposition towards a satisfactory performance. Let us suppose that we are the managers at an organization, public or private, and we are filling the positions of its departments with candidates possessing the necessary qualifications for each particular job. Can we, as supervisors, predict whether our associates (a) will produce significant work or (b) will manifest the same performance? The answer to both questions is negative.

To begin with, that is because practice has shown that in many cases workers with the same personal attributes produce different work, which means that some are more productive than others. Secondly, because an individual's great performance is dependent—apart from skills—upon the degree of motivation, that is their desire to work. Of course, the ratio of motivation degree to productivity is not always proportional since practice has shown that great motivation does not necessarily result in higher productivity, when the job is complicated and difficult.

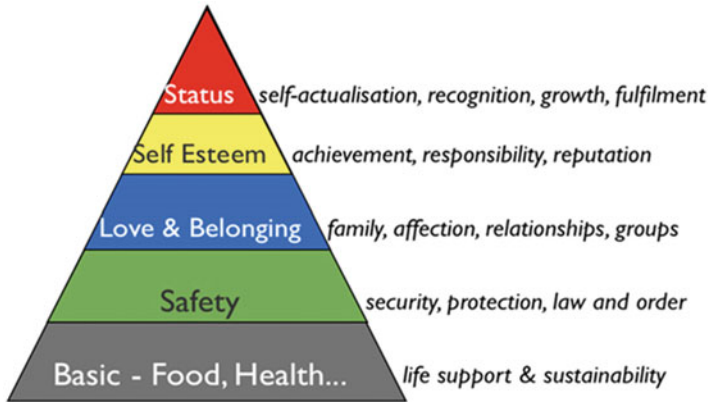


Fig. 8.1 Maslow's pyramid

If we concur with the reasonable position that people work in order to satisfy their needs, then the management of an organization should be in a position of knowing **which needs** their staff is striving towards through work satisfaction and how this is related to the achievement of optimum motivation.

The term **motivation** is used in management theory to refer to forces within the individual that determine the level, direction and persistence of the effort made at work. To put it simply, an individual with a high degree of motivation works hard, whereas one with lower motivation has a more laidback approach. A manager in favour of utilizing motivation succeeds in doing so by creating conditions for the workers to feel constantly stimulated to work to their fullest (Butt et al., 2005; Caprara, Barbaranelli, Steca, & Malone, 2006; Crossman & Harris, 2006; Evans, 1998; Ingersoll, 2001, Pintrich & Schunk, 1996 (cited by Liu, 2010); Schermerhorn, 2011).

Most theories on motivation usually commence with the idea of personal needs—unfulfilled physical or psychological desires of an individual. Although each model relates to a different set of needs, they all concur that needs give rise to tensions that influence attitudes and behaviour. Their recommendation to managers is to help individuals attain their most significant needs through work while also trying to eliminate existing factors that hinder their satisfaction. In particular:

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Model (1954) asserts that humans try to satisfy their needs in order of priority: physiological-safety-social-esteem-self-actualization (see Fig. 8.1).

Maslow defined a need as a physiological or psychological deficiency that a person wants to satisfy. Maslow employs two principles to illustrate how those needs affect human behaviour. The **deficit principle** states that a satisfied need does not constitute a motivator for behaviour. People are expected to act in ways that satisfy unfulfilled needs—that is needs in which a “deficit” exists. The **progressive principle** states that a need at one level does not become activated until the next

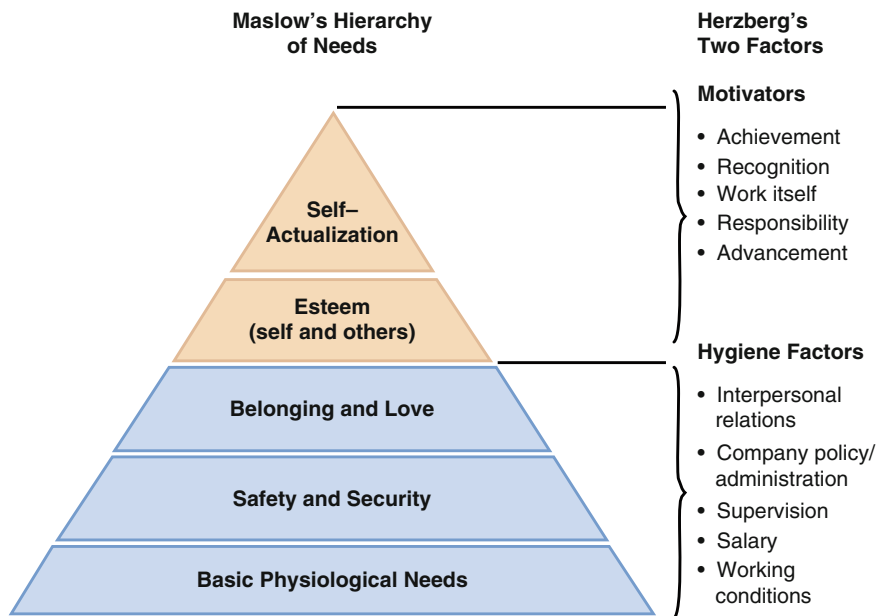


Fig. 8.2 The two-factor theory

lower-level need has been already satisfied. People are expected to advance step by step in the hierarchy in their search for need satisfaction. This principle ends at the level of self-actualization; the more these needs are satisfied, the stronger they are supposed to grow (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Guay, Vallerand, & Blanchard, 2000; Kasser & Ryan, 2001; Ryan, Sheldon, Kasser, & Deci, 1996 (cited by Deci & Ryan, 2000); Schermerhorn, 2011; Vansteenkiste, Lens, & Deci, 2006).

Despite the fact that this particular theory does not offer particular motivation formulas, we can still maintain that if people meet more than just their financial needs at work, they will consequently feel more satisfied and thus manifest a stronger desire to perform their duties.

The two-factor theory by Herzberg, Mansner, and Suyderman (1959) also asserts that not being dissatisfied does not necessarily equate with being satisfied and vice versa (see Fig. 8.2). Between satisfaction and dissatisfaction lies indifference (Bouradas, 2005; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Dinham & Scott, 2000; Ingersoll, 2001; Nias, 1996; Rose, 2003, 2007; Shan, 1998; Smith, Farmer, & Yellowley, 2013; Vansteenkiste et al., 2006; Weiss, 2002).

Herzberg claims that the inclination of people, hence teachers, to work depends on factors found in two categories.

The **first category** comprises **hygiene factors** (compensation, job security, prestige and interpersonal relations) which constitute a source of dissatisfaction for workers, thus lack of eagerness for productivity, when at unsatisfactory levels. They do not, however, lead to satisfaction and motivation even when they are at satisfactory levels; they just ensure **lack of dissatisfaction**. In this case, workers

who are not dissatisfied are just trying to maintain their performance at the minimum acceptable level. If, for example, compensation is too low, dissatisfaction and consequently lack of work zeal emerge. The same can be asserted for teachers who work under adverse conditions (e.g. multigrade schools) and for those who face insecurity (e.g. substitute teachers, part-time teachers). If the working conditions are favourable, they may ensure lack of dissatisfaction, but this does not necessarily mean that they act as motivators. It should be noted that those factors are of vital importance because only after they have been met can workers be motivated.

In effect, if teachers do not experience dissatisfaction as a consequence of hygiene factors (i.e. fair pay, security and social recognition), then their motivation will be dependent on **motivation factors**, which are:

- **Sense of accomplishment**—recognition, related to self-esteem that all people have. If teachers believe that through their effort to reach a result that would be considered a success acknowledged by themselves and others (colleagues, supervisors, etc.), then they will experience a challenge and consequently make a greater effort to achieve their goal. This challenge constitutes a strong motivator for many people, including teachers, who experience a great sense of accomplishment once successful. This challenge, which translates into positive feedback and recognition by the education hierarchy, represents a practical sense of accomplishment for teachers.
- **Participation and responsibility** of teachers in planning and performing their tasks (e.g. curriculum) constitutes a significant motivator since the individual can utilize their knowledge and skills and thus feel creative when solutions can be found and results can be attained owing to their own thinking process and effort, always within a “general” legislative framework, of course.
- **Advancement and growth** is another motivation factor for teachers since their advancement (a) makes them feel more competent with higher self-confidence, certainty and self-esteem and (b) is related to their professional development.
- **Fair treatment** is a fundamental motivation factor for teachers since all people will be generally prone to feelings of demotivation if unfairly treated, and the first thing it does is lower their performance. According to the *theory of equity* (Adams, 1965) every person understands fairness by subjectively comparing inputs (i.e. efforts) and outputs (i.e. rewards) at an organization as related to those experienced or enjoyed by other colleagues with similar jobs or tasks. This comparison represents a ratio which if negative can generate a feeling of unfairness (inequity) whereas if positive can foster a feeling of satisfaction. So, if workers feel that their input (e.g. compensation, promotion, prestige, etc.) is unfair compared to others for the work provided (depending on the quantity and quality of one’s work, education, experience, position, etc.), then they could feel dissatisfied and maintain a negative approach towards work. On the other hand, if the comparison reveals fair treatment, then individuals will experience satisfaction with the present situation without any predictable changes in performance. Since the feeling of unfairness is subjective for every

worker, the feeling of justice and fair treatment in practice should be safeguarded by the central education management through transparent rules and procedures and of course clear criteria. The selection process of leadership executives in education illustrates the above position.

All in all, motivation is one crucial factor of efficiency. Therefore, in order for a teacher's performance to be efficient, then the central administration of education should comprehend what motivates the behaviour of teachers in school units and satisfy their individual needs.

At school unit level, directors can play a vital role in motivating teachers as through their conduct they can have some positive or negative bearing on a number of motivators, such as the recognition of their fellow colleagues' contribution, reinforcement of the teachers' morale, fair treatment, positive school climate, etc. For all the above, though, competence is crucial in school leadership.

8.3 Human Resources Supervision

The school director has the overall supervisory responsibility for the school staff on a daily basis. Supervisory responsibility refers, in the strict sense of the word, to overseeing the performance of the teaching and administration staff under the supervision of the school director. Supervision can denote a sense of control and monitoring, or it can develop into a relationship of mutual respect between the manager and those being managed. The nature of this relationship is dependent on both the school director's level of confidence towards the performance of the teaching staff as well as on the degree of their years of experience in teaching.

The aim of supervision is to protect the school operation from unfavourable circumstances. Namely, it focuses on identifying areas of concern before an unfavourable event occurs. What is applicable, therefore, is that prevention is preferable over taking action. Indeed, it is not sufficient for school management to determine plans, assign duties to teachers and give orders. It also ought to monitor the course and the results arising from the implementation of the programmes as well as the degree to which pertinent orders have been executed. This way, the school director, **first**, has an overall understanding of how different tasks are carried out at a given time and place, and, **secondly**, if a weakness is identified, prompt measures can be taken in order to safeguard the smoothest operation of the school unit.

Since supervision can all too often lead to misunderstandings and tension between managers and those managed, the school director should perform those supervisory duties while manifesting utmost prudence and subtlety so as to minimize tensions and discomfort. Why is that? To put it simply, people do not appreciate negative feedback. Therefore, the school director should come out as a mentor rather than an authoritarian judge, regardless of occasional reprimand that might be related to behaviours or oversights of teachers. The role of the supervisor

seems to benefit both the manager and those managed. Undoubtedly, in some cases the manager will have to make recommendations to certain teachers (e.g. for late arrival or inadequate performance) and **constructive feedback** (e.g. as regards the stance of teachers towards a student or colleague). As already mentioned, “constructive feedback” is considered as a means of employing negative feedback in a way that a staff member can listen to the school manager, contemplate and eventually improve.

For this to happen, negative feedback should bear the following features:

- **It should be provided calmly** and promptly, at a personal level and in a positive atmosphere. It should be governed by compassion (understanding) and pure concern.
- **In the beginning, any strengths** possessed by the teacher should be highlighted.
- **It should be focusing** on behaviours, acts and performance and never on the personality of the teacher. For example, instead of saying “You are indifferent . . .”, it would be indeed more suitable to say “your actions demonstrate lack of interest . . .”.
- **It should be well founded** (e.g. with references to certain facts).
- **Recommendations should be made** as of how the teacher can improve (e.g. weaknesses, manners).
- **It should conclude by repeating** some of the teacher’s strong points, and the director should affirm that the teacher-colleague in question is held in high regard.

In contrast to negative feedback, **positive feedback** (e.g. merit for the completion of a significant task) should be provided in public. That is because social recognition of a teacher’s performance might act as a motivator for other colleagues who could thus reproduce and implement the same principles of diligence and conscientiousness.

As exercising supervision is one of the hardest aspects of management, a school director should have a positive approach showing patience and excellent communication skills. By employing two-way communication, the school director should avoid close supervision, i.e. micro-management with extremely exhaustive orders and constant monitoring. Simply put, supervision should range between **compassion** (i.e. empathy, treating others in a humane way) and **strictness** (i.e. as regards unethical conduct, lack of cooperation and reliability, etc.), thus it should range between the theories X and Y. Take this example: could accidents be prevented in the schoolyard if the director was lenient in regards to insufficient monitoring of students by the teachers in charge?

8.4 Professional Development of the Teaching Staff

The Meaning of “Professional Development”

The professional development of teachers holds a central position in the context of school quality improvement. It is widely accepted that the effective operation of a

school unit is interrelated with the personality and scientific expertise of the teaching staff (Bush, 2008; Cheng & Tam, 1997; Crawford & Shutler, 1999; Edmonds, 1979; Garvin, 1993; Harris, 2005; Hargreaves, 2009; Levin & Fullan, 2008; Middlewood, 2010; Saiti, 2012).

Over the last three decades, there has been a significant increase in research related to teachers' professional development (e.g. Hallinger & Heck, 2004; Harris, 2005, 2010; Leithwood et al., 2004; Southworth, 2002).

The term "professional development" of a teacher refers to the acquisition and constant improvement of knowledge and aptitudes in new fields (e.g. of cognitive and pedagogical nature) in order for teachers to perform their multifaceted duties successfully. A teachers' professional development aims to upgrade and recognize their professional identity which in turn relates to the quality of education provided in class.

The Goal of Professional Development

Since people are often very keen to perform tasks that are of interest to them, school directors owe to instigate the interest of their colleagues in regards to their duties. This constitutes an imperative requirement because most people are satisfied and motivated when they can acquire knowledge and develop their skills as well as their personality through their job. On the whole, personal growth, apart from satisfying self-actualization and self-esteem needs, further enhances self-confidence and mainly contributes to the substantial professional development and progress.

In the case of school units, it can be maintained that the professional development of teachers can be to the advantage of all, namely:

- **Students**, who can take advantage of their teachers' professional expertise as a result of their professional development. Furthermore, an effective teacher can be defined as having the skills required to help all students reach their full potential at school.
- **Teachers**, who obtain knowledge and become skilled with aspects of the school operation that had not been part of their undergraduate studies.
- **School director**, who can take advantage of the deputy director's and teaching staff's active participation if needed.

In other words, successful training in schools can positively contribute to the professional development of the teaching staff and consequently the effective operation of school units.

Fundamental Elements of Teachers' Training

Although professional development is a personal matter which depends on the learning ability, motivation and personality of an individual, the development of teachers at a school unit is greatly influenced by the school director who, among others, must plan and implement a plan that should be covering all the aspects of the school's operation. Such a human resources development plan should at the very least consist of the following key factors:

- **Proper induction of newly appointed teachers at school.** Success in life in general and work in particular mainly depends on the ability of each individual to adjust. This growth factor which enables the person to adjust to the work programme and its social environment should be executed in such a way that will allow the development of each person's personality.

In order for an individual to achieve harmonious coexistence and cooperation with others, one shall be accepted and introduced to a social group, within which one should maintain and further develop one's individuality, given that people and groups coexist and mutually influence each other (Bush, 2008; Harris, 2005; Huselid, 2005; Kalogirou, 2000; Panteli, 2010; Saitis & Saiti, 2006). In order for this induction to be stemmed with success, it should fulfil both the individual's needs and the social group's needs as a whole.

Given the above standpoint, it should be further clarified that selecting and appointing the right candidate is by no means sufficient for the effective administration of an organization. Well-planned consideration, aiming at the smooth induction of a newly hired employee in the working environment of the organization, should also be in place. In a school unit, for example, the director should (a) *provide* the newly hired employee with a comprehensive overview of the school's general organization and operation, (b) *engage* the teacher in the professional and social network of the school community and (c) *provide* psychological and personal support during this challenging transitional period.

- **Guidance—training of deputy directors.** Every director's first concern should be the guidance-training of the school's deputy director (who shall be acting, in the event of the director's absence or incapacity). The method of guidance-training is an ongoing process. Every time an administrative task is delegated to the deputy director and the results are subsequently discussed, the director is given the opportunity to provide clarification and guidance. Moreover, school directors can contribute to the improvement of deputies' knowledge and aptitudes by discussing problems of a higher level, encouraging them to adopt a stance and suggesting ways of addressing similar problems that lay beyond their areas of interest and responsibility. It should be further cited that a good director/coach should:
 - *Act as a mentor* and set as first priority the growth of the person whose rank is immediately below, rather than solely the school's administrative operation.
 - *Be well aware of school management aspects.*
 - *Manifest a positive attitude* and eagerly motivate the deputy.
 - *Foster conditions of fertile communication*, and not rivalry, with the deputy (Asimakopoulou, 2008).
- **Developing a sense of accountability.** Given that all people, teachers included, (a) are accountable for their actions and therefore create a sense of accountability constitutes a significant technique of asserting their proficiency to the highest level and (b) are more interested in a task as long as they believe that they can bring it to fruition. The school director should train the teachers adequately

within the daily administration practices in order for them to be in a position of executing their tasks and should too encourage and provide guidance so that they can decide for themselves which is the best way of achieving the most satisfactory outcome. In other words, the director ought to provide an initiative framework for teachers who will, as a consequence, acquire the feeling that they can too come to decisions by exercising their own judgement.

A way for the director to foster a sense of accountability is by delegating responsibilities-duties to school teachers. However, several education executives consider this delegation process quite difficult for fear that the teaching staff will be additionally burdened and for fear that the job will not be done properly or even because they might be advocates of McGregor's Theory X and assert that most teachers are indolent and will shy away from undertaking additional responsibilities. Undoubtedly, when posts of responsibilities are first delegated to unexperienced teachers, it will soon become evident that more time will be required for the tasks to be carried out than if we had done the job ourselves. However, it should be noted that delegation is an important technique that can be employed by school managers in order to build up the managerial aptitudes of deputy directors. Having the deputy director preside in the teachers' council is an important step in this direction.

- **Developing task perfection aptitudes.** School directors, as instructors themselves, should advise the teachers about their duties and teach them new working methods so that they can be in a position of executing their duties in the best possible way. In practice, this can be achieved by conveying knowledge and experience primarily to less-experienced teachers. Channelling skills and expertise aiming at the optimal use of available teaching materials and tools constitutes a perfect example.
- **Developing task execution plans.** School directors should also advise their junior staff before start working on a project, firstly coming up with an execution plan. In simple terms, school directors should instruct teachers on to set out their plans since this practice will allow them to know exactly what they want to achieve, in which way and at what time.
- **Developing solidarity and team spirit.** Solidarity among the members of a typical organization, such a school unit, is a fundamental element of its effective operation since each member's acts do not only have a reflection on themselves but on the whole organization as well. For that reason, the more cooperation increases, the level of responsibility among school community members grows too. With this notion in mind, the school director should be able to know "how" to develop team spirit among colleagues. Of course, it is not an easy task for a manager to achieve absolute harmony among fellow teachers because they are unique individuals of a diverse psychological make-up, perceptions, ambitions and attitudes in the workplace. Despite many adversities, school directors can handle unfavourable situations (e.g. rivalries, competition, cliques, etc.) as long as they get involved promptly and maintain a coordinated group effort with all school unit teachers. After all, let us not forget that every worker (in our case, every teacher) is quick to see and judge things from one's own perspective,

without taking into consideration the needs of the group. Quite simply, people usually only see what bothers or hinders them from completing their work.

Besides, teachers of the same grade often work together, while the school's regular departmental meetings solidify working relationships, facilitate continuity in the curriculum and help to promote the school's values. The sector in which educators work is very sensitive, and so, more than ever, they need to set aside any personal differences or personality clashes and focus on the job at hand.

- **Regular consultation with teachers as regards their duties and rights.** The unique legal relationship between an employee and teachers alike in the primary and secondary education comprises of a cluster of responsibilities, limitations and rights that are determined in the contract. Professional teachers should bear in mind all the features of the contract and also be aware of the following:

- *Have a well-polished attire and decent demeanour.*
- *Conduct themselves with courtesy and good manners.*
- *Address the students' parents in a formal way.*
- *Abstain from smoking in the presence of their students.*
- *Treat ill-tempered or quarrelsome parents calmly, with understanding, while avoiding tensions or conflict. Even when a parent is offensive, teachers should keep their cool or even ask for the director's involvement to settle the situation, if needed. In which way, though, could a director calm a parent down? One way that this can be achieved is if the parent finds the director "likeable" because people tend to like those who also like them. Let us note that people are likeable when they have an **attractive appearance**, share **common features** with us (e.g. in terms of their birth place, personality, interests, etc.) and **see** us as likeable too. Taking into account the above contemplations and acknowledging the reasons that led to the parent's irritation, the school director could:*

Compliment the parent.

Draw attention to some possible common features (e.g. birth of place, interests, etc.).

Attempt to imitate the gestures, expressions, etc. of the parent. If, for instance, the parent is talking slowly, then it is preferable that the director speaks slowly too (Dobelli, 2013).

- **Developing effective phone communication skills.** During a phone conversation (e.g. with a parent) and regardless of their state of mind, teachers should:
 - **Be careful** with their articulation and tone of voice.
 - **Be polite** and try to be accommodating.
 - **Introduce** themselves and ask the interlocutor's name.
 - **Listen** carefully and express their opinion clearly and politely.
 - **Not put** their interlocutor on hold.
 - **End** the conversation politely by thanking the interlocutor.

- **Developing team spirit among the teaching staff.** The teachers' council is comprised of all the school teachers. In order to experience team spirit, all its members should be working while being interdependent and strive for common goals which all have been agreed. A spirit of consent should be in place for that to happen. In this case, "consent" is the correct way where making decisions by the teachers' council.

It is a method which differs from cases when voting takes place or the decision is imposed by an authoritative or special member of the council in the absence of thorough discussion. For that reason, the school director should provide the other teachers with some decision-making principles based on consent, such as:

- All members of the teachers' council should listen to each other and be heard without interruption.
- They should not make personal attacks.
- They should share all available information.
- They should not be in opposition for trivial reasons.
- They should make decisions based on constructive discussions and concrete evidence (e.g. real facts, specific provisions).
- They should make decisions that serve the common interest, not their personal interests.

To sum up, the professional development and growth of the teaching staff in school units in the primary and secondary education is highly dependent on whether the school directors are in a position to train and guide their fellow colleagues.

8.5 Leadership Rules

Many school directors wish to have the leadership ability that will allow them to be comfortable with their colleagues and also make them feel at ease at school; alas there are only few who possess it. Despite the fact that teaching is greatly valued by school directors, it does not promote the development of interpersonal skills with adults, since teachers spend most of their time in classrooms with children who are mostly dependent on them, immature and subjected to obligatory attendance.

Therefore, school directors who wish to be successful leaders should warmly welcome the wisdom of serving school community members. Although there is no recipe for success, managers in education should seriously take into account the following recommendations in order to improve their performance:

- **They should be aware that they are not only responsible for their own work** (educational and administrative) but also for the work done at school in its entirety. Therefore, if something goes wrong in their school, they should not put the blame on any shortcomings or unfavourable situations on the school unit members or the former school director.

- **They should shape a new mind set.** It is imperative that they get used to the idea of managing people (teachers) of different age, years of service, area of expertise, knowledge, goals, etc. whose working methods might differ from theirs.

Nudging is a technique that belongs in the field of behavioural economics, and it is related to the influence of an individuals' behaviour which emerges from the working environment. Indeed, according to Kinley and Ben-Hur (2015, p. 178), there are five types of nudges, namely, informational, social influence, decision economics, priming and loss avoidance. A leader (and hence a school leader) can use these five types of nudging to make changes in the working environment so as to affect staff members choices and behaviour. And it is true, according to the relevant literature (such as Chetty, 2015; Cialdini, Reno, & Kallgren, 1990; Hansen & Jaspersen, 2013; Jin & Leslie, 2003; Kinley & Ben-Hur, 2015; Sunstein & Thaler, 2008 (cited by Kinley & Ben-Hur, 2015); Thaler, Sunstein, & Balz, 2013), the primary responsibility and influence on the degree of succession of a change happens in the working environment and lies with the leader (school leader).

- **They should develop harmonious relations with the teaching staff.** They should establish a two-way communication with all school unit members not just in regards to their educational and administrative duties but also on the basis of human relations. In practice, that means that directors should (a) listen carefully to what the teachers feel is expected of them and what the latter believes should be done or how it should be done and (b) treat the teaching staff as colleagues who work for the achievement of common goals and not just as employees subject to authoritative orders.
- **They should be familiar with what is expected of them both by their supervisors and their fellow members of staff.** It is not sufficient to be aware of the needs of those reporting to them (teachers), but they also need to be familiar with the expectations and limitations set by their supervisor, the Director of Education.
- **They should know how to appropriately delegate administrative work.** It is well known that the delegation process is an inevitable consequence of limited human ability faced with the complexity of an organization.
- **They should properly manage their time,** as no one can purchase, hire or acquire more time in any possible way.
- **They should study different management styles.** It is not sufficient to depend on improvisations or former directors' management models. They should be constantly reflecting on what they can learn in addition by studying the relevant literature and attending training sessions on during the school term.
- **They should be honest with their associates.** Relevant studies have shown that ninety percent of employees ranked the ability of a director to "inspire respect and trust" within the first five out of fifteen other features. Would anyone enjoy respect and trust without being truthful? "Bending the truth" might help you win the first battle, but in the end it will make you lose the war. Sooner or later, the truth will come out. And then, the trust and respect of others will vanish, and it

will be very difficult to confront them in the future. It should be clarified that “honesty” does not mean that you should tell everything to everyone but rather make sure that what you say is indeed truthful. Certainly, there will be cases where you won’t be able to disclose confidential information, but you can provide explanations for the underlying reasons that are preventing you from discussing particular details.

- **They should encourage teachers to be straightforward.** This means that they should be in a position to accept constructive feedback from teachers without getting annoyed for this and in fact deter school unit members in sharing ideas in the future.
- **They should not be afraid to admit that they “don’t know”.** No one knows everything. After all, according to Socrates “The only true wisdom is in knowing you know nothing”. For that reason, people should be aware that they won’t lose face if they happen to say: “I don’t know, but I will find out!” or “I am not sure which is the best way in moving forward on this. What do you think?” We assert that this approach is in fact enhancing rather than threatening credibility, provided of course that it is not a customary occurrence. Let us not forget that a man of wisdom knows what he does indeed know and what he doesn’t. While experiencing an unfamiliar situation, one should either keep silent or admit one’s lack of knowledge in the subject (Payne & Payne, 1999).
- **They should carefully manage their attitude between lenience and strictness.** It goes without saying that managers in education who wish to positively influence the opinions and attitudes of their colleagues should establish a quality relationship of mutual benefit. At the very root of this assertion lies the following question: should the school director be sensitive (lenient) or strict?

To begin with, a director-leader is a teacher who supervises other teachers in a school unit; in order to be considered sensitive, one must treat others with dignity, courtesy and respect. In this sense, directors must be sensitive to the needs of their teachers because in that way there are many opportunities that will arise where good interpersonal relationships can be established. Indeed, why should teachers, for example, be willing to have a good relationship with their director if they are not treated with respect and understanding (and vice versa)?

In parallel with sensitivity, though, in order for school directors to ensure that fellow teachers manifest appropriate attitude and behaviours, they should also adopt a strict approach whenever deemed necessary, especially in cases of unethical conduct, lack of cooperation and indolence (Bouradas, 2013; Bruce, 2003; Clarke, 2006; Harris, 2010; Hargreaves, 2009; Hargreaves & Fink, 2008; Kinley & Ben-Hur, 2015; Winter & Morgenthal, 2002; Whitaker, 2003).

8.6 Case Studies

Case 1: Disheartened Teacher

Mr. X. is a teacher in a primary school. He is a sociable person with postgraduate studies in the UK (PhD in Education Management).

From the beginning of the school year, he has undertaken to teach Class C. During his service to this school, his director hasn't been able to create a motivating environment for him. When he contemplates on the fact that his colleagues with less qualifications in education have managed to hold managerial positions, he is disheartened. He realized that studies and aptitudes don't really help much in this case.

Sometimes he feels so disheartened with his current occupation that he even wonders if it is worth working in public education. His disappointment is manifested through lack of enthusiasm which also affects his personal life. Furthermore, he is disappointed by the school director because he did not support his last suggestion at the teachers' council regarding a school activity nor had any kind of discussion with him about the school's affairs. He feels that his director is hostile and suspects that this might be attributed to his feeling of inferiority because although he is the school director, his sole qualification is a Bachelor of Education (Primary).

In general terms, the current situation is seriously affecting Mr. X.'s state of mind who does not expect any improvement in the school climate as he believes that his director is not properly handling the human factor.

Based on the above please answer the following questions:

- (a) Analyse the immediate needs of Mr. X. in his capacity as a teacher.
- (b) Examine the reasons that led Mr. X. to experience such disappointment.

Case 2: Material Motivation for Teachers of a Private School

A team of teachers at a private school has been striving to achieve their goal, that is, to increase the success rate of students so as to enter higher education. This goal has been achieved occasionally but most of the times it hasn't. In the beginning of the current school year, the school administration decided to offer a certain amount of money to every teacher in the third grade of senior high school provided they double their success rate during the year.

Based on the above, please answer the following questions:

- (a) Do you believe that the members of the teaching team (if they agree with the suggestion of their employer) will manifest the same performance in achieving their goal?
- (b) Which motivational theory do you believe is most suitable for the teaching profession?
- (c) If you were in the position of being teacher in the third grade of senior high school, would you go along with your employer's suggestion?

Case 3: Induction of a Newly Hired Employee in a Private School

Ms. P. is a smart woman who enjoys working with other people. She didn't have enough opportunities in life, so she wasn't able to attend college and therefore doesn't possess any scientific skills. She has just been employed by a large private school (kindergarten, primary school, junior and senior high school). The school comprises of three departments: the *first* relates to the education of students, the *second* to administrative services and the *third* to addressing and accommodating parents and students. This is Ms. P.'s first day at work; she is excited as she can't wait to start being productive.

Based on the above, please answer the following questions:

- (a) If you were the director of this school, what ways would you employ to inform Ms. P. on her duties while maintaining or even increasing her enthusiasm?
- (b) Which department would you assign her to?
- (c) What action would you take to maintain or even increase Ms. P.'s enthusiasm?

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Chapter 9

Control Process in Education

Abstract Control process is the last managerial function and takes place after the fulfilment of all others managerial functions. In practice, however, control is connected more to the planning because:

- First, planning determines the targets and the methods for their achievement, while control investigates the point up to which those will be implemented.
- Second, control helps, through the feedback system, the management of an organization in the decision-making process and the determining of new plans, aimed at the further improvement of organizational efficiency.

In the field of the school departments, control process is one of the basic functions of the school head since it helps to ascertain the smooth or the non-smooth development of the realization of teaching. This chapter:

- Analyses the meaning, the purpose, the significance and the types of control that are taking place within a typical organization
- Refers to the characteristics of an effective control system and examines the reasons that provoke reaction to the employees during the period of assessment
- Examines the meaning and the purpose of assessment in the field of the school departments and presents the historical development of different assessment systems of the educators
- Finally presents case studies from real school scenarios

Key Chapter Concepts

- The function of monitoring is a managerial activity whereby deviations from expected levels of performance are analysed. It provides information through which decisions can be made either to improve future levels of performance or to change the initial plans of the organization.
- Monitoring activity aims to ensure that the organization's targets are met as much as possible through a process whereby the performance levels of individuals and groups are systematically checked against expected levels

(continued)

to make sure that the organization and its members are on track to achieve their targets.

- Effective monitoring has a number of characteristics which may appear to be broadly applicable to all organizations. However, in order to function properly, it should be adapted to suit the particular circumstances of a given organization. Thus, there is no single “one-size-fits-all” monitoring system that could achieve the basic targets of all organizations (whether public or private).
- Monitoring activities are not always met with resistance by an organization’s members. This happens when the organization’s central management is able to inform and persuade its staff about the purpose of the monitoring and that it is being used as a tool to help manage work efforts and not as a tool to punish people.
- Educational assessment refers to the systematic gathering and analysis of data regarding the efficiency of educators in their working environment according to the relevant legislative framework in their country.

9.1 Dimensions of the Control Process

9.1.1 Definition of “Control”

As already mentioned, the role of a manager involves designing-planning, decision-making, organising, directing-leading and controlling. From this sequence, it is evident that control is the fifth and last stage of the management process and takes place after all other functions have been completed. In practice, though, control is closely related to the stage of designing-planning, as:

- *Firstly*, designing-planning establishes the objectives and the methods to be used, while control examines the degree to which those objectives have been met.
- *Secondly*, control helps the organization’s management make new decisions and establish new designs-plans via the feedback process so as to further improve efficiency (Schermerhorn, 2011).

Since the concept of control is often related to and mistaken for “coercion” and “disciplinary enforcement” in everyday life, it is therefore essential to provide a brief analysis of this term. From a managerial point of view, “control” does not constitute a type of disciplinary action, meaning that it has no punitive denotation nor does it constitute a process of submission (Gigliani & Bedeian, 1974). It means much more than the mere identification of mistakes. As Fayol (1949, p. 107) pointed out long ago, control means that everything in an organization was performed in accordance with established principles and rules. In education, for

example, school directors had the authority to control the conduct of both teachers and students in accordance with pertinent school regulations. The above concise analysis can help us define the control process as a management activity intended to assess deviations from the predetermined desired performance. This information too will allow corrective measures to be taken so as to either improve future performance or readjust the organization's initial designs-plans.

9.1.2 Objectives of Control

According to the above definition, it can be ascertained that control is exercised on individuals, objects and activities in all levels of the hierarchy. Thus, the control process is a duty of all managerial levels, ranging from top management all the way to supervisors of smaller groups of employees (Child, 2015; Drummond, 2001; Koontz, O'Donnell, & Wehrich, 1982; Mullins, 2010; Zimmerman, 2010). In addition, the objective of this function is to:

- *Assess* when and why the deviation from the established plan occurred, which constitutes an assessment of the organization's current state.
- *Correct* deviations and causes of final outcomes as compared to initial predictions which are rewarded or reprimanded accordingly.
- *Take preventative measures*, so as to prevent such deviations in the future, taking measures that will contribute to performance enhancement.

9.1.3 Significance of Control

What makes the control process so indispensable in a typical organization?

It is asserted (Child, 2015; Hicks & Gullett, 1976 (cited by Mullins, 2010, p. 674); Lucey, 2005; Zimmerman, 2010) that the significance of control lies in the unexpected problems that might arise and lead to unfavourable situations during the operation of an organization, causing substantial deviations from the desired or planned outcomes.

Also, control can significantly contribute to the motivation of employees since, as supported by Dubrin (1997), the accurate measurements provided by the control process can offer an opportunity for motivated and competent employees to aim for distinction in their field of work and remunerated for their effort. Finally, it is also supported (Bouradas, 2001; Child, 2015; Drummond, 2001; McKenna, 1998 (cited by Mullins, 2010, p. 669)) that the significance of control can be attributed to the following reasons:

- *The establishment* of objectives and ways of achieving them, which obviously depends on predictions and hence future uncertainty

- *The fact that individuals* might have beliefs, needs and attitudes that do not always coincide with the organization's objectives and aspirations
- *The detection of poor functioning*, since ignoring operational weaknesses and problems might place the organization in an unfavourable position
- *The complexity* of the organization, which comprises of numerous individuals, specialities and processes and which calls for a mechanism of coordinated action and a more effective system of information management
- *The measurement and evaluation of outcomes*, a fundamental prerequisite for competent individuals in an organization to experience a feeling of success

In conclusion, the significance of exercising control lays in the fact that it helps to ensure that an organization's objectives are better met, provided the performance of both the organization and its members is under constant assessment so as to evaluate whether the achievement of those objectives are attainable.

9.1.4 Control Process

The control process resembles the designing-planning process and consists of four stages (Child, 2015; Koontz et al., 1982; Zavlanos, 1998; Zimmerman, 2010):

Establishing Performance Standards Performance standards are related to the organization's objectives and constitute the foundation (or measuring unit) for the evaluation of outcomes.

Performance Evaluation After performance standards have been established, the measurement of outcomes will be attempted. Managers usually employ four methods of data collection in order to measure actual performance: *personal observation*, which provides first-hand information regarding the real status of the organization; *statistical reports* and *oral reports* which are developed over the course of meetings or discussions with colleagues; and *written reports*, which are the result of substantiated documented proposals from their staff members (Child, 2015; Kanellopoulos, 1995; Koontz et al., 1982; Mullins, 2010; Zimmerman, 2010). At first glance, measuring real outcomes seems like an easy task; however, there are cases when measuring performance (e.g. assessing teaching performance or a researcher's research activity) is not such a simple endeavour.

Comparing Outcomes to Standards In this stage, the real outcomes are compared to the standards. This comparison helps the managers to identify any deviations that may arise from the desired outcomes.

Correction of Deviations If negative deviations are documented during the previous control stage, then management is called to take corrective action to rectify them.

9.1.5 *Types of Control*

Several types of control have been developed in the general management theory. Depending on the stage that control is put into relation and in relation to the outcome, there are four distinguishable types of control (Child, 2015; Dubrin, 1997; Erskine, 1991; Mullins, 2010; Robbins, 1991; Schermerhorn, 2011; Zimmerman, 2010):

Preliminary control, which is put into effort before the establishment of the organization, and it is progressive at this stage. It is usually employed to ensure the essential human and material resources that will contribute positively to the smooth and effective operation of the organization.

Concurrent (or simultaneous) control, which takes place under the direct supervision of senior managers during the working operation of an activity. This type of control helps the management correct several problems throughout their actual performance. A school director, for example, who has found irregularities in the latest syllabus or the misconduct of a member staff, can proceed to take corrective action so as to improve the situation in the future.

Feedback (or output) control, which is conducted upon completion of an activity. This type of control can provide guidelines for the organization's future operation but cannot alter the already achieved outcomes.

Self-control, in accordance with Douglas McGregor (1960)'s Y Theory, when individuals are ready and willing to exert self-control during their performance. The inclination to employ self-control is further enhanced in participatory organization cultures, where all employees treat each other with respect and subtlety.

Depending on who is the agent implementing control, whether from the internal or external environment of the organization, we can also distinguish between two more types of control: internal and external, respectively.

Finally, Koontz et al. (1982) refer to two more types of control: **indirect control**, which provides the prerequisites for a satisfactory result to individuals who will be required to take corrective action in the right direction and **direct control**, which aims at developing more skilful managers who will be able to implement modern management techniques and principles with expertise.

9.1.6 *Qualities of Effective Control Systems*

Effective control is governed by a certain number of qualities. Those qualities might be generic, but in order for control to be exercised properly, they should be adjusted to the particular conditions of each organization's operation. There is not a specific control system that can fulfil the basic objectives of every organization, private or public. Given this realization, any manager should take into consideration two fundamental principles in order to design an effective control system; control requires both **designing-planning** and an **organizational structure** (Koontz et al.,

1982). In addition, in order for a control system to meet its main objective, it should (Bouradas, 2001; Child, 2015; Hicks & Gullett, 1976 (cited by Mullins, 2010, p. 674); Mullins, 2010; Zavlanos, 1998; Zimmerman, 2010):

- *Be well understood* by all participating members of the organization. They should all be aware of the kind of information required for the control process.
- *Focus on the critical and important elements* related to the operation and the outcomes of the organization.
- *Be flexible*. It should be adjusted to the applicable conditions of the organization.
- *Be efficient*. Its implementation should be cost effective.
- *Be objective*. Information and measurements should be based on objective, and not subjective, data.
- *Be accepted* by whoever is called to implement it. Any control system which, for any given reason, is not well received by the individuals involved is doomed to fail.

9.1.7 *Opposition to Control*

In practice, the tension that is expressed in an organization after the immediate result of control can manifest itself in many ways, for example: lack of interest in work, increased conflicts in the workplace and absence from work due to sickness. In extreme cases there could be a tendency to establish trade unions (Leavitt, 1978).

The question, though, is what makes people oppose control.

This opposition could be attributed to the relevant literature (Child, 2015; Kanellopoulos, 1995; Zavlanos, 1998; Zimmerman, 2010 etc.), for several reasons such as:

Poor implementation of the control system, in cases when control has been exercised, either consciously or unconsciously, as a means of exercising discipline and compliance to standards that have been externally established. Historically, McGregor's X Theory underlies the employment of such systems, where the organization's objectives must be met via directing, forcing or even punishing the employees (McGregor, 1960).

The assumption that since the employees under evaluation and their performance constitutes the objective of the control, their personal freedom is consequently restricted by this type of control. To put it simply, employees feel that they are being supervised for the mere reason that their supervisors have doubts about their conscientiousness and their ability to perform their duties.

The establishment of performance standards without the participation of the employees, who are so overwhelmed with fear that the standards set are too high and if the objectives are not met, they will be the ones to blame, even though they are not responsible.

The fact that a control system establishes a sense of accountability and those individuals, who do not perform their duties satisfactorily, do not appreciate being controlled.

Finally, *the methods used to measure and assess performance*, in many cases they can be subjective and superficial, focusing on deviations rather than taking into consideration the total effort of the employees into consideration.

However, employees are not always opposed to control. This is more the case when the organization's management can inform and assure employees of the significance of control and its implementation as a way of improving performance and not as a means of enforcement and punishment. The techniques usually applied to this direction are:

- The participation of employees in establishing performance standards as well as measuring and assessing the actual outcomes.
- The proper and prompt briefing of employees so that they are aware of how and by whom control will be applied, as well as the purposes it will serve.
- The joint (management and employees) assessment of the organization's status and the correction of performance inadequacies, which will in turn facilitate the development of self-control (Hicks, 1974).

In conclusion for control to be successfully exercised, designing an appropriate control system from a technical standpoint in its self is unsatisfactory. It should be stressed that when performance becomes the objective of control, the human element requires meticulous research in order for the best possible results to be achieved.

9.2 Edging Closer to Educational Evaluation

9.2.1 Introductory Observations

Control also leads to the evaluation of employees, and in the respect of teachers, their effort in the workplace is assessed. In the relevant literature (Child, 2015; Drummond, 2001; Grove, 1995; Mullins, 2010; Papakonstantinou & Anastasiou, 2013; Papalexandri & Bouradas, 2003; Zimmerman, 2010), it is asserted that educational evaluation constitutes a significant method of assisting and further developing teachers and the educational system in general, on condition that it is accompanied by objective recommendations for enhancement and growth. It is not always easy, though, to define success when it comes to teaching and learning, since the factors which shape human behaviour are numerous and complex.

Technically, educational evaluation should focus on the teachers' ability to effectively convey the acceptable social conduct to their students, as expressed in real life. However, it is difficult for this ideal to be achieved, as the motives of each student vary and are complex and of an established nature so they cannot be

assessed and attributed exclusively to a particular teacher. The outcomes of teaching, for example, cannot be immediately perceived, and it is always hard to tell whether the changes in a student's behaviour constitute the direct outcome of a teacher's influence or occur due to other contributing factors.

Therefore, educational evaluation usually translates into an *indirect assessment* of those features that are likely to produce the desired outcome for both students and the teaching practice itself.

9.2.2 *Meaning and Purpose of "Educational Evaluation"*

After reviewing the relevant literature (Child, 2015; Drummond, 2001; Guba & Lincoln, 1981; Mullins, 2010; Papalexandri & Bouradas, 2003; Papakonstantinou & Anastasiou, 2013; Theophilidis, 1989; Zimmerman, 2010; etc.), we notice that there is no agreement among scholars as to the meaning and content of the term "educational evaluation". However, it is supported (Kassotakis & Flouris, 2005) that the particular term comprises and encompasses "the examination and control of all parameters related to the educational process ranging from education policy all the way to syllabus, teaching and teaching materials.

Its main aim is to: (a) define to what extent the individual education components satisfy the conditions and prerequisites already agreed upon so as to meet the requirements of their position and (b) bring about changes aiming to improve where necessary" (p. 459).

In particular, educational evaluation assists in:

- Presenting all the data that the school departments have evaluated including the entire educational system with the aim to improve where necessary
- Ascertaining the quality of structures and functions as well as the outcomes of their teaching work
- Disseminating good practices in schools all over the country, supporting the teaching staff during the process of acquiring additional training and receiving feedback after completion
- Providing incentives for continuous scientific and professional development and growth of managerial and teaching staff, in the context of lifelong learning.

In brief, educational evaluation and assessment refers to the systematic gathering and analysis of data regarding the efficiency of the teaching staff in their working environment, based on predetermined criteria as stipulated by the school's rules of procedure.

9.3 The Evolution of Educational Evaluation Systems over Time

Throughout the evolution of education management, there have been three different approaches, or schools of thought, that have significantly influenced the educational evaluation framework in the school system:

- *Classical management*, which attempted through the supervisory evaluation system to examine whether and to what extent teachers have executed their assignments
- *Behavioural management*, which viewed the evaluator as an instrument that would help the school (organization) ensure proper working conditions for the teacher (employee) so as to experience satisfaction in the working environment
- *Modern management*, which attempted through the participatory system of evaluation, to safeguard the achievement of the school's objectives as well as to satisfy the needs of the teaching staff. This evaluation model—which constitutes a combination of both aforementioned approaches—is democratic and can prove to be quite effective provided, of course, there is mutual trust among the teaching staff and the evaluator in conjunction with a sense of accountability and smooth collaboration between both parties.

In practice, none of the approaches mentioned could be considered as ideal. From the outset of the implementation of relative systems for the evaluation of teaching staff, concern had been expressed in regards to the value, purpose, validity, credibility and impartiality of the process (Papakonstantinou & Anastasiou, 2013, p. 201). In addition, the design and implementation of the educational evaluation model depends on the unique social, financial and political context of each school departments. Furthermore, this environmental co-dependency can illuminate why each country manifests a different mentality as regards to the evaluation of their teaching staff (Eurydice, 2004). In Japan, for example, more attention is given to overall group performance rather than individual staff evaluation (Kumara & Furukawa, 1989; (cited by Papakonstantinou & Anastasiou, 2013, p. 219); Hampden-Turner & Trompenaars, 2001 (cited by Papakonstantinou & Anastasiou, 2013, p. 219)), while in Spain the teaching staff is evaluated on their own initiative when they apply for educational leave or a managerial position (Eurydice, 2004).

9.4 Case Studies

Case 1: Failure of an Education Manager to Exercise Control

Mr. M is a regional education director who possesses excellent public relation skills but whose management skills and experience are rather limited. When he was given some negative publicity which was related to the school departments in his

borough, he slowly brought together all education directors in order for them to report details regarding the issues related to the aforementioned negative publicity.

When Mr. P and Mr. R, both education directors, entered the office of Mr. M, they came upon the following outburst:

“How come no one has informed me about their schools’ operation? How come you have all exaggerated the situation in your schools?”

- Sir, you know, Mr. P said.
- I know nothing of the sort, Mr. M replied abruptly. “Listen, gentlemen, I want you to find a way that will allow me to be informed promptly about the issues or concerns in your schools. I am tired of being alienated from all school issues that I should have been aware of. You can go now”.

As soon as they left his office, Mr. P turned to his colleague and said: “He is so ignorant about education management. Everything he needs to know or find out is filed in the “Reports” folder on the bookshelf right next to his desk”.

Given the above, answer the following questions:

- 1) What reasons could Mr. M’s failure to exercise effective control in the school departments of his jurisdiction be attributed to?
- 2) What actions should senior education managers take in order to have a real picture of how education organizations under their jurisdiction operate?

Case 2: In Pursuit of an Effective Control System

David Robbins, the LEA governor in Liverpool, had just returned to his office after meeting with the Minister of Education in London, along with all the other LEA governors. The Minister had pointed out to those senior education managers that the Government aspired to more effective management and closer control of school units so as to achieve the best possible and most cost-effective outcomes. The Minister also stressed that in the future all management methods employed when exercising authority in education services will be more closely monitored. Furthermore, the Minister stated that no supplementary credit will be authorized to any LEA that fails to establish an effective control system.

As soon as Mr. Robbins returned to Liverpool, he immediately summoned the General Director of Finance, briefed him on the Minister’s viewpoints and directed him to establish a more effective system that would monitor the expenses of school departments in his borough. The General Director then summoned the pertinent Director and delegated this task to him. He also urged him to go through all available literature on control so as to come up with a system that could be submitted for review by the end of the week.

At the end of the week, the Director had to report to the General Director that he had been unable to come up with a suitable control system for their LEA although he had reviewed a plethora of books and articles.

Given the above facts:

- 1) Could the pertinent Director of this LEA have come up with a suitable control system if he himself had more thoroughly reviewed the existing literature on the subject?
- 2) If you were the Director, what proposal would you have submitted for the development of an effective control system?

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Chapter 10

Crisis Management at School

Abstract In this day and age, crises are a fact of everyday life, particularly in the working environment. School units are no exception to the rule, where crises are a common phenomenon. For example, a school's building infrastructure may cause accidents for teaching staff and/or students on the premises in the wake of gale-force winds, fire, earthquake or storm. Furthermore, in the school yard, accidents or injuries can happen due to the poor condition of the school yard, the morphology of the ground or a fight between students. Any of these situations can bring about a crisis. In the case of a school unit, a given crisis may provoke feelings of frustration or even psychological distress among children (of any age) that in turn may negatively influence their learning ability. This chapter:

- Analyses the terms “crisis”, “danger” and “accident” and examines what constitutes a healthy and secure working environment for a school
- Investigates the roots of violence at school and suggests ways of confronting it
- Presents a general framework for a healthy and secure environment for both students and teaching staff and refers to the reasons why it is absolutely necessary for schools to be ready to manage a crisis
- Develops an action plan for the coordination of resources when a crisis occurs in a school environment
- Finally, it presents case studies from real school scenarios

Key Chapter Concepts

- Crises are a fact of life that we all need to confront at some time in our lives. As such, schools need to be prepared to confront all types of crisis.
- There are dangers present in all school activities. When they manifest themselves, they usually result in unpleasant situations (e.g. accidents). These situations constitute obstacles to the smooth and effective functioning of the school unit.
- Although an accident is usually a matter of luck, many accidents (with the exception of natural disasters) may be avoided through the appropriate

(continued)

implementation of information programmes and the correct planning of the school environment.

- Having teaching staff who have been appropriately trained in matters of crisis is one of the basic contributors to the effective implementation of the crisis management plan. The content of the training should focus on the following:
 - Analysing the possible dangers that threaten the security of the school environment.
 - Taking precautions against, and also knowing how to confront, natural disasters such as floods.
 - Communicating practical knowledge on how to provide first aid and psychological support.
 - Organizing, in a rational manner, the human and material resources that will be used in handling a crisis.
 - Being in a state of readiness, namely, ensuring that a crisis management team is in place in order to be able to respond effectively to a crisis at any moment. A good measure of the degree of readiness of a team (and indeed of the whole school) for coping with a crisis lies in the way it exercises emergency drills and how often.

In the daily media, we often encounter school-related news items like “. . . teachers have enough problems to deal with. . . they shouldn’t also have to interfere in students’ family matters. . .” or “The local high school was vandalized during the holiday period” or “Unfortunately, there are cases of children with problems that are unknown to teachers, who could otherwise help. . .”. Certainly, it is not easy for educators to play the role of a psychologist. I remember a female student who came to my office in a poor psychological state. At first, she was hesitant, but then she burst into tears. Her father was taking advantage of her and the child was asking for help. How many cases like this are there? Traumatizing incidents such as those mentioned above raise a number of questions for school managers. These include:

- What role must the school play in a crisis situation?
- How must a school manager and teaching staff confront traumatizing incidents in their school?
- What do we do if a situation arises on our school premises that results in a fatal accident and we are sued for negligence or professional misconduct?
- What are we going to do if we end up in court?

The answers to questions such as these lie in the school’s crisis management strategy.

10.1 The Meaning of “Crisis” and Its Various Forms

Nowadays crises are a feature of everyday life, not least in the working environment.

But What Exactly Is a “Crisis”? It can be considered as a sudden and unexpected incident that has the potential to influence a large number of students and staff; it could have a wide-ranging impact, affecting health and/or security as well as the social and emotional development of students. A crisis can be brought about by the problematic behaviour of students, grief, disease, accidents, drug use, etc. A crisis can also refer to those circumstances (or experiences) that threaten family or friends. In the relevant bibliography, we find a distinction between developing and occasional crises: a developing crisis (e.g. a child’s transition from kindergarten to elementary school or from elementary to secondary school) refers to the difficulties encountered during the transition from one evolving phase of life to another, while an occasional or random crisis (earthquake, fire) refers to the difficulties arising from an unexpected act of nature (Darling, 1980; Fink, 2013; Lerbinger, 2012; Roux-Dufort, 2007). We have to notice that these two forms of crisis are equally important, because they each pose a problem. However, occasional crises are more difficult to deal with since they are unpredictable and the managers of such crises do not always use appropriate strategies for confronting them. Summarizing, we can claim that crises (of both kinds) are a part of life which we all have to cope with sooner or later. For that reason, schools must be prepared to deal with all forms of crises.

10.2 The Meaning of “Danger” and Techniques to Confront It

In the relevant literature, the word “danger” has various definitions, such as “function: the potential for an unexpected incident to occur and the significance of the consequences that may derive from this incident” (Zavlanos, 1999, p. 407), “the potential for a person or an organization to get hurt” (Singh, 1996, p. 563) and “the potential for an issue to have a negative effect on specific goals” (O.E.C.D, 2005, p. 12). Based on this conception, the cause of danger can be understood to be a very unpleasant incident (fire, earthquake, vandalism) which produces unfavourable consequences for individuals and/or organizations. The consequences that may result from this danger may be financial, psychological, physical, social, etc. There are many hidden dangers in activities that take place in a school’s working environment with undesirable consequences (accidents, damage/loss of property/equipment, accidents, equipment loss, etc.). These, in turn, obstruct the orderly and effective operation of a school unit. There are different techniques for confronting danger (Drennan, McConnell, & Stark, 2015; Fink, 2013; Heath &

O’Hair, 2009; Kash & Darling, 1998; Lerbinger, 2012; Voudouri, 1998; Zavlanos, 1999):

- Avoid the danger altogether, whereby measures are taken to avoid exposing a valued asset (people, property, equipment, etc.) to a particular danger.
- Minimize the danger. If we cannot eliminate a particular danger, then we have to try and restrict it. A school unit can minimize the chance of an accident by taking appropriate action, such as making the school courtyard safe for children to play in.
- Assume the danger exists. In this technique the school principal makes an assumption that a harmful incident may occur during school time and takes precautionary measures to minimize that danger. The assumption that a danger exists is prompted by the responsibility that all school principals must assume when a student becomes injured after being exposed to a danger on the school premises. Other concepts associated with danger are a threat, which describes a situation that endangers their safety or well-being (Heath, Lee, & Ni, 2009), and a catastrophe, which describes the physical or emotional damage that follows when a danger materializes into an incident with a highly negative impact and cost in terms of the safety of people, buildings, services and/or facilities (Matthews & Eden, 1996).

10.3 The Meaning of “Accident”

An accident is defined as an unpredictable incident with unintentional material, physical or mental damage to a person that results in total or partial, permanent or temporary disability or death (Benekos, 1989; Lord, 1989). This accident may happen anywhere and anytime and has socio-economic consequences for the victim (student or teacher), for the organization and for the state. Even though an accident is often attributed to “bad luck”, with the exception of natural causes, we can avoid many accidents through appropriate and effective information dissemination and the proper design of the environment.

10.4 Hygiene and Safety at School

The issue of hygiene and safety in a working environment is of great importance to the function of an organization. Protecting an organization’s workers from danger, as well as those who interact with the organization, ought to be one of the main concerns of its administration. Schools are no exception. Indeed, the situation is more sensitive since it concerns the safety of children.

10.4.1 First Aid

In an accident, what must be done without delay, in the first instance, is to ensure that the victim receives first aid by someone appropriately qualified and that the victims swiftly receives attention from a doctor and, if necessary, is promptly taken to hospital. That said, by the time a doctor or ambulance has arrived, the opportunity to save a human life may have been lost. In view of such an unpleasant scenario, a first-aider would be expected to ensure that the victim is breathing, stop any bleeding, prevent their condition from deteriorating, try to relieve any pain and boost the victim's morale. Thus, "First Aid" is the dexterous application of accepted principles in the treatment of those who have succumbed to injury or sudden illness, using the available means or materials" (Siamaga & Teliou, 2007, p. 13). It constitutes the first medical intervention in an accident scenario immediately after the patient's trauma/accident and aims to stabilize their condition until a doctor or ambulance arrives. At this point we must emphasize that some school managers feel that, as head of their school, they ought to intervene in *every* issue affecting their team members or students, but they actually do themselves (and others) an injustice. For instance, in the case of a life-threatening accident in the school courtyard, the headmaster must accept that there some scenarios that he/she is not able to deal with. They have neither the relative experience nor the professional training to handle the situation effectively. In fact, by trying to intervene, they could end up doing more harm than good. So what must they do? Call an ambulance so that the injured student can be transferred to the nearest hospital.

10.4.2 Dimensions of School Violence

School Violence Is a Real Problem

It is known that students and educators witness various forms of violent behaviour either in or out of school with alarming frequency. This behaviour is enacted by students towards their classmates, their teachers or school property (buildings, equipment, etc.). While the issue of violent behaviour in some schools may not be as serious as in schools of certain developed countries in the West (England, USA, Germany), we must not dismiss it as an insignificant matter that can be ignored. Indeed, a relevant survey for Greece (Kokkevi, Stavrou, Fotiou, & Kanavou, 2011) showed that "8.5% of teenagers mentioned that they were victims of bullying at least 2 or 3 times per month, while 1 in 6 (15.8%) admitted that they intimidated other teenagers with the same frequency. The students intimidating others were mainly boys, while the victims of bullying tended to be either boys or girls. Comparing 2012 with 2010, there was a remarkable increase in the proportion of teenagers mentioning that they had intimidated others (15.8% and 9.1% respectively) while the percentage of bullying victims was relatively unchanged. The forms of bullying most commonly mentioned were: verbal quips, gestures of a

sexual nature, the spreading of slanderous rumors, and quips/harassment through a computer or mobile phone. One in four boys (23.9%) claimed that during the previous 12 months they had had at least three physical confrontations with others. The percentage for girls was significantly lower (8.3%)” (p. 1).

Roots of School Violence

The phenomenon of school violence and victimization can be attributed to many factors. On the one hand, the presence and interaction of many children in the same place generally creates an environment for many positive experiences in terms of social development and the choice of friends, but unfortunately it can also set the scene for some negative and unpleasant experiences whereby an individual or group aims to gain popularity/respect/influence by intimidating another individual or group through physical or emotional violence (or both)—otherwise known as bullying. Such negative unpleasant experiences often cause pain and anxiety and can be potentially dangerous (Paraskevopoulos & Herbert, 2013). For instance, incidents of physical or verbal abuse (such as quips, pranks, aspersions or threats) tend to increase when left unchecked and can easily develop into an atmosphere of belligerence at school which is highly detrimental to the educational process. Some of the key causes that provoke school violence (Paraskevopoulos & Herbert, 2013) are:

- **Family.** The messages that children receive from their parents leave a very marked impression on their behaviour. If they see their parents trying to impose themselves through physical force or by yelling and using threatening tones, then it is natural for them to copy what they experienced and do the same in their school environment. Parents who neglect their children’s emotional needs and instead pay attention only to their material needs are (often unknowingly) increasing their children’s emotional tensions.
- **Technology.** Media such as the television serve as a window to the outside world that presents children with a wide variety of content. With enough exposure to it, this content can gradually be perceived to represent socially acceptable norms. This becomes an issue, for example, in the case of parents who allow their children to watch movies not appropriate for their age category (e.g. movies with extreme violence). Video games, especially combative ones, are a big attraction for children nowadays and can engross them for hours at a time, often depicting violent and aggressive behaviour.
- **Financial or professional insecurity.** This may add to any general feelings of insecurity or anxiety that young people may already have. A sense that things have little chance of getting any better when they enter society in the future would only serve to heighten their emotional tensions and their feelings of insecurity.
- **Intercultural issues.** Education systems in many countries have become multi-cultural, with classes that are (over)crowded and consist of a whole mixture of different cultures. With such diversity in the school environment, any differences of opinion in the classroom could potentially explode into a race-related issue and turn violent.

The aggressive and intimidating behaviour of students towards their classmates is usually triggered by a feature that differentiates an individual or group of persons (nationality, religion, weight, school performance). This means that, because of our uniqueness, any one of us could potentially become a victim or an initiator of bullying.

Ways of Confronting School Violence

This prompts the question: What must be done in order to curb school violence? Researchers in the field such as Paraskevopoulos and Herbert (2013) claim that the efforts to restrict school violence need to focus on:

- It's prevention rather than its restriction.
- Making sure that the children are given the opportunity to develop the interpersonal skills they need in order to contribute positively in their daily interactions with fellow students and with the school's personnel.
- Practice the use of dialogue between abusers and their victims to establish a mutual empathy (this involves putting the abuser in the victim's shoes through dialogue). In plain words, effort must be made to ensure that the general psychological atmosphere of the school remains calm, pleasant and attractive to children.

For the above to materialize, the issue of bullying must not be confronted solely by the school but through the collective effort of all those involved—the educators, the students *and* the parents.

Additionally, the same researchers (Paraskevopoulos & Herbert, 2013) underlined that no matter how much thought goes into maintaining discipline, we must not forget that “details make the difference”. “They gave the example of comparing the differing approaches of two teachers in the way they start their class. In the first class, the students have already entered. Inside, there is uncomfortable whispering. The teacher enters punctually, puts his teaching materials on the desk, says an unfriendly “good morning” to the children and begins the lesson”. Here, there is obedience in the class, but it is underlined by a fragile discipline.

In the other class, the teacher arrives early at the door of the classroom and “welcomes” the students one by one, greeting them by their name, as they enter the classroom. During the lesson the teacher gives each student individual attention.

The first teacher acts more like a “conscientious teacher”, devoted to the work of teaching but less so to his role as an educator. His words are structured but are colourless. His behaviour is robotic. His priority is to “teach” but is out of touch with the students' feelings and with how they are receiving his class.

The second teacher acts more like a good host who is familiar, calm and good-minded while keeping a low profile. As he teaches, he focuses his energies on the persons that he is teaching, paying attention to his students' level of interest in his lesson and in the work he sets them to do. This teacher knows that learning conducted in a pleasant and appealing environment is more engaging. In other words, in psychological terminology, the first teacher is totally dedicated to the

teaching work (task-oriented), while the second considers the others' feelings (person-oriented)" (p. 463).

According to Paraskevopoulos and Herbert, "a school ought to present the image of an open community with an emphasis on the creative skills of parents as well as educators and students so as to facilitate a knowledge-based society" (p. 464).

To this end, the actions they propose include the following:

- Students should be encouraged to engage in collaborative work with each other.
- The school should organize inter-school activities in the sciences and the arts, especially for topic areas where they are lacking resources.
- Plan for the continual training of educators and parents on matters concerning the handling of children's problematic behaviour. This training should have the form of experience-exchanging seminars—not amphitheatre-style lectures but teams of 12–15 persons that can discuss issues such as the "what, why and how" of problematic behaviour; ways of enhancing positive interpersonal behaviour and prevention of negative behaviour; and techniques for intervening to reduce children's problematic behaviour for different aspects of school life.
- Regular communication between school and family: Undoubtedly, when there is a closer collaboration between the teacher and the parents, the positive outcome of this cooperation is amplified. This cooperation must be done through parents' associations and with parents directly.

10.4.3 Rules for Safety and Hygiene at School

Based on the above and bearing in mind that the headmaster and teachers are responsible of the students' physical well-being (they can be prosecuted if an accident takes place on the school's premises due to negligence), we consider that a general framework for safety and hygiene is needed, which must include (Booth, 2015; Paraskevas, 2006; Stanton, Babaer, & Harris, 2008):

- **A set of safety rules that are known by all school teachers.** This should include general guidelines concerning the health and safety of educators in the working environment as well as the scenarios in which the guidelines can be applied and how communication is organized before, during and after an incident.
- **The training of teachers and students.** Each school unit, regardless of its size, must be in a position to offer first aid in case an accident takes place on its premises during school hours or on location (e.g. during an excursion). The school's administration must take care of this so that all school staff are not only familiar with the safety rules but also know how to apply them.
- **Allocation of duties.** School safety and its related activities must not be the responsibility of just one person. The distribution of jurisdictions and responsibilities among staff members must be clear so that everyone knows who the main person responsible is for each section of the school's facilities (classrooms,

laboratories, sports facilities, courtyard), each school activity (theatre, excursions, parent evenings) and each part of the school's equipment.

- **Identifying and analysing dangers.** The headmaster, with the support of all staff members, will establish a procedure for identifying and reporting existing or possible dangers that could threaten children's safety. Dangers are often encountered in recreational spaces. The dangers are usually of two kinds:
 - Material (unprotected or scattered spaces, slippery floors, ripped carpets, etc.)
 - Behavioural (children running in the hallways or throwing objects, books poorly arranged on shelves, etc.).
- **Emergency situations.** One part of the safety rules needs to describe the emergency procedure for dealing with accidents, diseases and emergency incidents. This procedure must contain:
 - A procedure for "sounding the alarm"
 - The evacuation procedure and the assembly point where all staff and children are to report
 - Instructions on the use of emergency equipment
 - Information on First Aid in case of an accident (who the trained contact persons are and the location of the First Aid kit(s))
 - The procedure for alerting the emergency services
 - The procedure for inspecting the scene of the incident (usually carried out by the safety supervisor)

The school's management should also examine other aspects of school life such as:

Checking the cleanliness of classrooms and other school spaces

Checking any unhygienic or potentially harmful substances used in school laboratories and other student activities (correction fluid, paint, duct tape, glue, etc.)

Checking for potential health threats in and around the school's cafeteria

10.5 The Need for a School's Prompt Response to a Crisis

An organization's promptitude in responding to a crisis helps to ensure that:

- The crisis management plan is working effectively and that the impact of the incident is minimized.
- The possibility of any negligence on the part of the school unit (and subsequent legal action by the parents) is minimized. This is an important point since, if school managers do not take appropriate precautions, they can easily become a target of legal recourse in court when a child succumbs to an accident on school premises or during a school activity off-premises.

- The financial consequences. As an example, consider a state high school that has succumbed to an act of vandalism in its computer lab and several work stations are no longer functional. Such damage to school equipment and facilities has a negative effect not only on the mood of students and teachers and on the public image of the school but also incurs expenditures to repair or replace the damaged equipment, which needs to be recovered from the state's education budget.

10.6 Establishing a Crisis Management Policy at School

The term “crisis management policy” is looked upon here as the practice of thoroughly examining on a regular basis the school environment, the risk of danger, contingency plans for unpredictable situations, the available resources and the responsible personnel of the school unit who will be called upon in moments of crisis.

A school's crisis management policy must provide a legal framework that clearly defines and governs:

- The purpose of the school unit's crisis management plan
- What the students and school personnel should understand by the term “crisis”
- The role of the school personnel in moments of crisis: there needs to be a crisis management team that kicks into action as soon as the alarm has been raised, with clearly defined roles and tasks for the team coordinator and the other team members, including contingency plans to cover for any absent staff
- Written guidelines that fully describe the measures, procedures and rules for dealing with a crisis

10.6.1 Development of a Crisis Management Plan

We have mentioned previously in the book that, in the sphere of organizational science, planning/programming is a mandatory element. This element needs to be applied in order to establish a crisis management plan (CMP) that the crisis management team can implement. Therefore, in the context of possible crisis scenarios, the following is required: define the school's goals for a given crisis, assess the crisis that has just taken place, identify a set of alternative solutions or suggestions, choose the best available solution or suggestion, agree on an action plan, implement it and then evaluate the action plan's impact.

10.6.2 Preparatory Steps

A crisis management plan needs to be developed by those with the relevant expertise and authority, namely, a crisis management board (CMB) that consists of a school psychologist as well as other key representatives of the school, the ministry of education and civil authorities such as the health service, the fire brigade, the police and the organization responsible for anti-earthquake planning and protection. The CMB members first ought to delimit what constitutes a “crisis” at the school and agree on the circumstances that could trigger a state of crisis (e.g. an individual’s significant loss of blood and/or consciousness, the unexpected death of a student or teacher, or the destruction of physical infrastructure with substantial damage).

The CMB then needs to be aware of any possible dangers that currently threaten the school. There are four basic approaches to identifying dangers: brainstorming, retrospective statistical analysis, information analysis and closer inspection of the dangerous environment. In this phase of planning/programming, the CMB members examine potential threats in the school’s internal environment but also any factors in its external environment to which it is exposed and could have an influence. The board studies all the available evidence and then makes a set of recommendations to the school unit on crisis management: a list of possible dangers, a suggested solution(s) for each danger, a crisis management plan, how to implement it and, finally, how to evaluate the initial results in order to establish if the intervention in the crisis has been successful.

10.6.3 Content of the CMP

The CMP should have the following structure:

- The purpose of the plan, that is, to state precisely what the specific plan aims to achieve.
- Measures to ensure the school’s safety. These measures may concern the prevention of accidents, eliminating certain dangers, ensuring the necessary means are available (e.g. fire extinguishers, first aid kits, etc.) and training for the teaching personnel on how to intervene in a crisis.
- Ways of organizing the school unit so that it is better able to deal with crises. This includes the process of assigning (a) the coordinator of the crisis management team, (b) their deputy in case they are absent/incapacitated and (c) the team members. This should also include a statement of the coordinator’s obligations.
- Written instructions, essential reference information (e.g. emergency contact numbers, the location of crisis support materials, etc.) and a logbook of actions taken.
- Training of teaching personnel on issues of crisis management. This is one of the main features of a CMP. The content of this training should mainly focus on how

to spot potential dangers to help make the school premises safer; how to prevent and tackle fires, floods, etc.; practical knowledge on how to administer first aid and offer psychological support; and how to organize rationally all human and material resources involved in the management of a crisis.

- Guidelines on emergency drills. Since a crisis can occur at any time, a school needs to be constantly on the alert, ready to confront whatever danger emerges. Being alert implies that the crisis management team is ready to respond swiftly at any given moment. The level of alertness of the team, and indeed of the entire school, can be quickly ascertained through emergency drills.

10.6.4 Conditions for the Effective Implementation of a CMP

A CMP can be more effectively implemented when certain conditions are in place, key among which are (Booth, 2015; Darling, 1980; Fink, 2013; Mitroff, Shrivastava, & Udewadia, 1987; Sturges, 1994; Walker et al., 2006):

- **Proper coordination.** The coordinator should have excellent communication skills to get their message across efficiently and effectively.
- **Clear roles among the members.** Who does what.
- **A clear procedure.** How the work must be done.
- **General alertness.** The cultivation of a school-wide culture of being alert.
- **Qualified school leadership.** A headmaster should have the attributes necessary for their role. These include being able to provide vision, guidance, motivation and discipline to the teaching staff and students to ensure that the school functions smoothly and efficiently.
- **Adequacy of resources.** In order for a CMP to be implemented effectively, the necessary materials must be in place for the responsible persons to use when a crisis occurs.
- **The education of teaching staff.** If we accept that a CMP is useless without the personnel capable of intervening in the crisis (Brock, Sandoval, & Lewis, 2001), the training of teaching staff on how to handle critical situations is a mandatory requirement.
- **A positive atmosphere at school.** A positive atmosphere in a school unit is more conducive to an environment where individuals are more likely to report issues concerning health and safety, rather than leave it as “someone else’s problem”.

10.7 Case Studies

Case 1: A Fire at School

At 10:30 am all students of a New York high school in the USA were in their classrooms. Ten minutes later a student of the second grade who was sitting near the

door interrupted the teacher, saying: “Miss, something smells funny, something is burning..”. The teacher looked around the classroom, saw nothing unusual, and then opened the door to see what is happening outside. She was shocked to see dense smoke covering the hallway. It appeared that a fire had broken out in the Chemistry laboratory next to the classroom. She screamed “Help! We’re on fire!” In her panic she failed to close the classroom door. Instead, she inhaled the dense fumes, started coughing and choking and promptly passed out. By now the students were also in a state of panic. Some started screaming and crying, while others were pale and silent, obviously shocked. Because of the dense smoke, the emergency exit was inaccessible. Consequently the students were left trapped in the classroom. At 10:45 am the alarm went off and the fire service was called. Two minutes later all students had gathered in the school yard, except for those of the second grade. Realizing this, the headmaster and teachers started to panic and frantically tried to locate the missing students. At 10:50 am a teacher rushed into the dense smoke to try and reach the classroom of the second grade. Fortunately he made it and discovered that his colleague had fainted in the corridor. He opened the classroom window which looked out over the school yard and yelled at the headmaster and his colleagues to get a ladder so that they could evacuate the classroom. At 11:00 am the teacher and five students were taken by ambulance to the nearest hospital with serious breathing problems. At the same time, two fire engines arrived to put out the fire in the Chemistry laboratory. A while later an officer of the fire department conducted an inspection to try and identify the cause of the fire. He informed the headmaster that it was caused by a worn out electrical wire near combustible materials. The next day some teachers were saying how lucky the second grade was that no one was more seriously hurt, while others demanded that the headmaster be better organized when it comes to managing crises that take place on the school premises.

Based on the above, please to answer the following questions:

- a) Did the school management have organization measures in place to deal with this crisis?
- b) Did the school respond to the crisis promptly?
- c) How can a school head enhance their personnel’s sense of responsibility in the event of a crisis?

Case 2: Students’ Conflict with NonSchool Members

Mr. S. serves as the headmaster of a high school. Last Thursday at 10:30 am, a local gang not associated with the school intruded on the school premises. They were reacting to a previous street incident in which one of their gang had been beaten by a student of the school. An affray broke out in the school yard between the gang and the student’s friends. The teacher who was on playground duty at the time tried to intervene but became seriously hurt when he was stabbed with a knife by a gang member. A 16-year-old gang member was also hurt severely in the fighting, while a student was killed by a gunshot to the head. By 11:00 am the teacher and the gang member were at the nearest hospital for treatment. At 12:00 noon police officers started the necessary surveillance to identify and arrest the perpetrators. At a teachers’ emergency meeting, fears were expressed by several teachers that

“there is a war going on between students and gang members”. Yet, the majority of teachers were under the impression that “something like that could never happen at our school”.

Based on the above, please answer the following questions:

- a) Could the school management have avoided this affray between students and gang members? If so, how?
- b) Comment on the complacency of the teachers who said “something like that could never happen at our school”.

Case 3: Serious Injury of a Student

At 8:45 am all the students of an elementary school were in the school yard. A student of the fifth grade was climbing one of the huge plane trees there when suddenly a strong wind picked up and caused her to lose balance and fall from a height. She lay unconscious while here classmates were frantically calling from help. Hearing the commotion, the teacher on playground duty came running. After detecting breakages in both legs, the teacher immediately called an ambulance and then informed the parents of the injured student.

Some teachers were suggesting to the head that they themselves could transfer the student directly to hospital, while others were saying that the plane trees should have been chopped down years ago, because it was only a matter of time before an accident happened. “Yes”, the manager answered, “the matter of having the trees chopped down had been among the teachers’ discussion points a year ago, but unfortunately objections were raised by two ecologically conscientious colleagues at the time, and it was agreed that the trees should remain”.

At 9:20 am an ambulance arrived, at which time the injured student received some first aid treatment before being transferred to hospital.

Based on the above, please answer the following questions:

- a) What was the main cause of the student’s injury?
- b) Determine the leadership style of the headmaster.
- c) What is more difficult for a school’s administration to deal with: an occasional crisis or an evolving crisis?
- d) If you were the manager of the school, how would you confront the two colleagues who objected to having the trees chopped down on ecological grounds? Which techniques would you use?

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