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Semester: Autumn 2026

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ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY, ISLAMABAD

Course: Elementary School Management (5019/622) • Level: B.Ed.

Semester: Autumn 2026

Assignment No. 1 (Units 1–5)

Total Marks: 100 • Pass Marks: 50

SOLVED ASSIGNMENT GUIDE

(For Study & Reference)

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Note: This guide is prepared for study and reference purposes. Students are advised to read the relevant units of the course book, understand the concepts, and then write the assignment in their own words. Total marks of this assignment are 100 and the pass marks are 50.

Question 1: Significance of School Organization; Educational Administration versus Educational Management (20 Marks)

What is the significance of school organization in maintaining a well-functioning educational system? Discuss the key differences between educational administration and educational management.

Introduction

A school is not simply a building in which children happen to gather; it is a deliberately created social organization in which teachers, learners, parents, resources and rules are brought together for a defined purpose — the education of the young. School organization refers to the

planned arrangement of all these elements: the structure of classes and groups, the distribution of duties and authority, the timetable, the rules and procedures, and the channels of communication through which daily work is coordinated. Educational administration and educational management are the two closely related activities through which this organization is created, directed and kept working. Although the two terms are often used interchangeably in everyday speech, scholars draw a useful distinction between them: administration is concerned mainly with policy, authority and the overall direction of the institution, whereas management is concerned mainly with the practical execution of plans, the handling of people and resources, and the achievement of results at the working level. This answer first explains why sound school organization is significant for the whole educational system, and then sets out the key differences between educational administration and educational management, showing finally how the two depend upon each other in a well-run elementary school.

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Meaning and Nature of School Organization

Organization, in the management sense, is the process of dividing work into manageable units, grouping similar activities together, assigning them to suitable persons, and defining the authority and responsibility attached to each position so that all parts work towards a common goal. Applied to a school, organization includes the classification of pupils into grades and sections, the appointment and deployment of teachers, the preparation of the timetable and the academic calendar, the formation of committees, the maintenance of records and stores, and the framing of rules of discipline and conduct. It is both a structure — the framework of posts and relationships that exists on paper — and a process — the continuous activity of

arranging and rearranging that framework as enrolment, staff and circumstances change. A school may possess excellent teachers and generous funds, yet fail completely if these elements are not organized: periods clash, duties overlap or are neglected, materials arrive late or not at all, and nobody knows who is answerable for what. Organization is therefore the invisible machinery that converts separate resources into a functioning institution, and its quality quietly decides whether the visible work of teaching and learning can proceed smoothly or is constantly interrupted by confusion.

Significance of School Organization for a Well-Functioning Educational System

The significance of school organization can be appreciated under several heads. First, it gives the school unity of direction. National and provincial policies, curriculum objectives and examination requirements reach the classroom only through an organized institution that translates broad goals into class-wise targets, schemes of work and daily lessons. Without organization, policy remains a document in an office; with it, policy becomes a timetable, an allotted teacher and an assessed outcome for every child. Second, organization secures the economical use of scarce resources. In Pakistan, where elementary schools frequently work with limited budgets, large classes and few trained teachers, waste is unaffordable. A proper organization avoids duplication of effort, matches teachers to the subjects and grades they are best qualified to teach, keeps buildings, furniture and teaching aids fully employed, and ensures that grants are spent on planned priorities rather than on emergencies created by neglect.

Third, organization creates clarity of roles and accountability. When duties are defined — who maintains the stock register, who supervises the morning assembly, who checks homework and

who deals with parents — work is neither missed nor disputed, and the headteacher can fairly evaluate the contribution of each member of staff. Fourth, it provides coordination and continuity. A school year involves admissions, teaching, examinations, co-curricular activities, inspections and reporting; organization links these activities in a sequence so that the output of one stage becomes the input of the next, and so that the departure of one teacher does not paralyse a class, because records, schemes and routines carry the work forward. Fifth, organization supports discipline and a healthy school climate. Predictable routines, fairly applied rules and orderly arrangements reduce friction among pupils and staff, save teaching time that would otherwise be lost to settling disputes, and create the calm, purposeful atmosphere in which young children feel secure and learn best.

Sixth, school organization is the point at which the educational system meets society. Through parent-teacher councils, school management committees and community contacts, the organized school draws parents into supporting attendance, health and homework, and reports back to the community and the department. A well-organized school thus strengthens public trust in the whole system, encourages enrolment — particularly of girls and of first-generation learners — and reduces dropout, because parents can see that their children are looked after in an orderly institution. Finally, organization makes improvement possible: only an institution that keeps records, follows routines and assigns responsibilities can collect the information needed to evaluate results, identify weaknesses and reform itself. In short, organization is significant not as an end in itself but because every other function of education — teaching, learning, character formation and public accountability — depends upon it.

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Educational Administration: Meaning and Scope

Educational administration is the process of directing and controlling the affairs of an educational institution or system in accordance with law, policy and public purpose. It is exercised from positions of formal authority: the secretary and directors of the education department at the system level, the district education officers in the field, and the headteacher within the school. Administration determines what is to be done and why: it frames rules and regulations, approves budgets, sanctions posts, issues instructions, interprets government policy for local conditions, and supervises and inspects the work of subordinates. It is closely connected with authority, accountability to higher bodies, and the maintenance of standards and legality throughout the system. In the school context, the headteacher acts as an administrator when he or she implements the education code, enforces service rules, maintains official records, corresponds with the department, conducts examinations according to prescribed regulations and ensures that public money is spent under the rules. Administration is thus largely concerned with the formal, official and policy side of running education, and its horizon is the institution or system as a whole and its obligations to the state and the public.

Educational Management: Meaning and Scope

Educational management, by contrast, is the practical process of getting things done through people and resources at the working level. It consists of the familiar functions of planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, motivating, controlling and evaluating, applied to the daily life of the school. Where administration asks what should be done, management asks how it can best be done with the teachers, rooms, time and money actually available. The

headteacher acts as a manager when preparing the timetable, distributing classes among teachers according to their strengths, arranging remedial teaching for weak pupils, motivating a discouraged colleague, resolving a timetable clash, storing and issuing teaching aids, or reviewing monthly test results with the staff and adjusting the teaching plan. Management is therefore people-centred and result-centred: it deals with human relationships, teamwork, initiative and problem-solving, and it is judged less by whether rules were followed than by whether learning improved and targets were achieved. Modern educational thought gives management a wide and creative role, because many of the problems of a school — low attendance, weak motivation, poor reading levels — cannot be solved by orders and rules alone; they require leadership, participation and intelligent use of local initiative, which are the essence of management.

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Key Differences between Educational Administration and Educational Management

The principal differences between the two concepts may be summarized in the following table, after which each point is briefly explained.

Table 1: Educational administration and educational management compared

Basis of Difference	Educational Administration	Educational Management
Main concern	Policy, authority, rules and overall direction of the institution or system	Execution of plans, coordination of people and resources, and achievement of results
Central question	What is to be done, and under what rules and authority?	How can it be done best with the staff, time and resources available?
Nature	More formal, legal and directive; works through orders, codes and	More practical, flexible and human; works through teamwork, motivation and

	procedures	problem-solving
Level	Predominantly top and system level (department, district, head of institution)	Predominantly institutional and working level (headteacher with teachers in daily operations)
Orientation	Rule-oriented and accountability-oriented towards higher authority	Goal-oriented and people-oriented towards teachers, pupils and parents
Decision-making	Decisions are taken at higher level and communicated downwards for compliance	Decisions are often participative; staff are involved through meetings and committees
Time horizon	Long-term policy, structure, standards and continuity of the system	Short- and medium-term: timetables, terms, activities and immediate targets
Measure of success	Legality, regularity, uniformity and proper observance of procedure	Effectiveness, quality of learning, efficiency and satisfaction of stakeholders

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Several points deserve emphasis. In terms of function, administration is determinative — it lays down objectives, policies and the framework of rules — while management is executive — it operates within that framework to produce results. In terms of authority, the administrator derives power from the office and the law, whereas the manager relies heavily on competence, cooperation and influence over people. In terms of outlook, administration tends to look upward, being answerable to the department and the government, while management tends to look inward and downward, towards the staff and pupils whose work must be organized each day. It should also be noted that some writers reverse or merge these usages: in North American literature 'administration' is the broader term covering all the work of running schools, while in British and business literature 'management' is often the broader term. The

distinction is therefore one of emphasis rather than of rigid separation, and in a real school the same person — usually the headteacher — performs both roles every day.

Relationship between the Two and Conclusion

Administration and management are complementary, not rival, activities. Sound administration without competent management produces a school that is regular on paper but lifeless in the classroom: files are complete, yet teaching is poor and targets are missed. Energetic management without administrative discipline produces the opposite defect: enthusiastic activity that breaks rules, spends money without authority, maintains no records and collapses when inspected or when the leader is transferred. A well-functioning educational system needs both — the stability, legality and direction supplied by administration, and the flexibility, motivation and efficiency supplied by management. To conclude, school organization is significant because it is the framework that unites policy, people and resources into a working institution, secures economy and accountability, maintains discipline and continuity, links the school with its community, and makes evaluation and improvement possible. Within that framework, educational administration provides the authoritative, policy-making and rule-keeping dimension, while educational management provides the practical, people-centred and result-producing dimension; the headteacher who understands and balances both is the one most likely to run an elementary school that is orderly, lawful and, above all, effective in teaching children.

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Question 2: Concept and Core Processes of School Management; Total Quality Management (TQM) in an Elementary School (20 Marks)

Explain the concept and core processes of school management. How can a headteacher implement Total Quality Management (TQM) principles in an elementary school setting?

Introduction

School management is the process through which a headteacher, together with the staff, plans, organizes and directs the human and material resources of a school so that its educational objectives are achieved efficiently and effectively. A school differs from other organizations in an important respect: its 'product' is not a manufactured article but the learning, character and development of children, and its 'workers' are professional teachers whose cooperation cannot simply be commanded. School management must therefore combine the classical functions of management with sensitivity to children, parents and the community. In recent decades, schools in many countries have also borrowed ideas from industry, the most influential of which is Total Quality Management (TQM) — a philosophy of continuous improvement in which every member of the organization is involved in satisfying the needs of the 'customer' and in preventing errors rather than merely detecting them. This answer first explains the concept of school management and its core processes, and then shows, step by step, how a headteacher can implement TQM principles in an elementary school.

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Concept of School Management

School management may be defined as the coordination of all the activities and resources of a school — human, material, financial and informational — towards the achievement of predetermined educational goals. Three ideas are contained in this definition. First, management is goal-directed: a school exists to achieve specific outcomes such as literacy and numeracy for every child, regular attendance, moral development and successful transition to the next level of education; management keeps every activity pointed at these outcomes and discards activity that does not serve them. Second, management works through other people. The headteacher teaches little of the total timetable personally; results are produced by teachers in classrooms, so the manager's real task is to select, deploy, support, motivate and develop people so that their combined effort exceeds what any of them could do alone. Third, management is concerned with both effectiveness and efficiency: effectiveness means achieving the right goals (children actually learning to read), while efficiency means achieving them without wasting time, money or effort. A school that enrols every child but teaches them badly is effective in enrolment and ineffective in learning; a school that teaches a few children brilliantly while excluding the rest fails on equity. Good school management holds these values together, and it does so within the special character of the school as a social and moral institution, where decisions affect young children and must therefore satisfy ethical as well as technical standards.

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Core Processes of School Management

The core processes, or functions, of school management are generally described as planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, controlling and evaluating, together with decision-making and communication, which run through all of them.

- Planning. Planning is the first and foundational process: deciding in advance what is to be done, when, where, by whom and with what resources. In a school this includes the annual school development plan, the academic calendar, admission and enrolment targets, schemes of work, the timetable and the budget. Good planning is based on facts — enrolment trends, previous results, available staff and funds — and it converts broad objectives into concrete, dated targets for which named persons are responsible. Without planning, the school drifts from crisis to crisis; with it, the year unfolds in an orderly sequence and problems are anticipated rather than merely met.
- Organizing. Organizing creates the structure through which the plan will be executed: dividing the work into classes, subjects and duties; forming committees for examinations, sports, discipline and purchases; defining the authority and responsibility of each teacher; and arranging rooms, furniture and equipment. A clear organization ensures that every necessary task has an owner and that no task is duplicated or neglected.
- Staffing. Staffing is concerned with having the right people in the right positions: requesting and receiving staff from the department, deploying teachers according to qualification and experience, arranging induction for new teachers, distributing workload fairly, and providing in-service training and professional development so that the staff grows in competence. In elementary schools, where one teacher may handle several subjects,

thoughtful staffing — for example, assigning the strongest reader-teacher to the early grades where reading is founded — has a direct effect on learning.

- Directing and leading. Directing means guiding, supervising and motivating people in their daily work: issuing clear instructions, demonstrating lessons, visiting classrooms supportively, holding staff meetings, appreciating good work and correcting weaknesses without humiliation. Direction is where leadership becomes visible; it turns a plan on paper into energy in the classroom, and its quality largely determines staff morale and commitment.
- Coordinating. Because a school's work is interdependent — the timetable, examinations, games, cleanliness and reporting must all fit together — coordination is essential. The headteacher coordinates through timetables, calendars, meetings and personal contact, harmonizing the efforts of teachers, resolving clashes of time and resources, and linking the school with the department, parents and the community.
- Controlling and evaluating. Controlling compares actual performance with the plan: attendance percentages are checked, test results are analysed, expenditure is matched against the budget, and stock is verified. Evaluation goes further and judges the worth of the activity itself, asking not only 'did we do what we planned?' but 'did it improve learning?' The findings feed back into the next round of planning, which makes management a continuous cycle rather than a one-time act.

Decision-making and communication bind all these processes together. Every managerial act involves choosing among alternatives — which teacher for which class, which purchase first, how to handle a complaint — and every decision succeeds or fails according to the quality of

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communication through which it is conveyed and understood. A headteacher who decides on facts, consults where consultation is due, and communicates clearly and promptly will find the other processes far easier to operate.

Total Quality Management: Meaning and Main Principles

Total Quality Management is a management philosophy developed by thinkers such as W. Edwards Deming and Joseph Juran and widely applied first in industry and later in public services and education. Its central idea is that quality is not produced by inspecting finished work and rejecting the defective part; it is built into the process itself, so that errors are prevented and every stage is continuously improved. Applied to a school, 'quality' means the degree to which the school satisfies the legitimate needs and expectations of its stakeholders — pupils who must learn, parents who entrust their children to the school, teachers who need support to teach well, and the community and state that fund the institution. The main principles of TQM are: (1) focus on the customer or beneficiary; (2) total involvement of all staff in improvement, not only the head; (3) a process approach, which studies and improves the steps by which work is done; (4) continuous improvement, in small regular steps (often called kaizen), rather than waiting for a grand reform; (5) decisions based on facts and data rather than impressions; (6) prevention rather than inspection — designing work so that mistakes do not occur; and (7) teamwork and the removal of fear, so that staff can report problems honestly and suggest improvements. Together these principles change the culture of the institution from one of blame and compliance to one of shared responsibility for quality.

Implementing TQM in an Elementary School: A Step-by-Step Approach

A headteacher can implement TQM gradually and realistically, without extra funds, through the following steps. The first step is to define quality in the school's own terms and to identify its beneficiaries. With the staff, the headteacher frames a short school vision and a small number of measurable quality aims — for example, every child in Grade 3 will read a grade-level passage fluently; average pupil attendance will reach at least 92 per cent; every lesson will begin on time; parents' complaints will be answered within two working days. Parents and the school council should be consulted so that the aims reflect their expectations as well as the department's requirements. The second step is to establish a quality team: a small staff committee, chaired by the headteacher, which meets regularly, keeps a simple record of problems raised and actions agreed, and models the participative style that TQM requires. In a small elementary school the whole staff may form the team.

The third step is to map and improve the school's key processes. The team selects one important process at a time — admission, the teaching of reading, homework checking, midday arrangements, cleanliness, or the handling of pupil absence — and examines how it actually works at present, where delays, errors and dissatisfaction arise, and how the process could be redesigned. For example, if many pupils are weak readers, the process analysis may reveal irregular reading periods, no level-wise grouping and no record of individual progress; the redesigned process provides a daily protected reading period, simple reading cards, and a monthly record of each child's level. The fourth step is to use data. The headteacher maintains a few simple indicators, displayed in the staffroom: enrolment and attendance, results of monthly tests, the number of books issued from the library corner, and cleanliness inspection

results. Decisions are then argued from these figures in staff meetings, which replaces rumour and blame with evidence and makes improvement visible and encouraging.

The fifth step is staff empowerment and training. TQM fails if teachers are treated as suspects; it succeeds when they are treated as the experts on their own classrooms. The headteacher therefore involves teachers in setting targets, invites them to lead improvement projects (one teacher champions handwriting, another the science corner), arranges peer observation and short in-school training sessions, and publicly recognizes good work. The sixth step is prevention and standardization of routine work: checklists for opening and closing the school, a fixed format for lesson plans and progress reports, a stock and issue procedure for materials, and a follow-up slip for absent pupils convert repeated tasks into reliable routines, so that quality does not depend on memory or mood. The seventh step is a feedback loop with parents and pupils: a complaint and suggestion register, term-wise parent meetings at which results are shared honestly, and simple pupil feedback in the upper classes tell the school whether its internal improvements are actually experienced as quality by its beneficiaries. Finally, the headteacher reviews the whole effort each term under the Plan–Do–Check–Act cycle: plan a small improvement, carry it out, check the data, and either adopt it as standard practice or revise it. Over two or three years this cycle steadily raises the standard of the school without any dramatic upheaval.

Benefits, Difficulties and Conclusion

The benefits of TQM in an elementary school are considerable: teaching becomes more consistent, problems are surfaced early and solved by those closest to them, staff morale rises

because teachers share ownership of results, parents develop confidence in the school, and the limited resources of the school are steadily directed towards learning. Difficulties must also be admitted. TQM ideas were born in industry, and their language of 'customers' and 'products' must be translated with care, because a child is not a customer who can simply take his custom elsewhere, and education has moral aims that cannot be reduced to satisfaction scores. Data collection can degenerate into paperwork if too many indicators are demanded, and teachers already burdened with large classes may see quality initiatives as one more burden unless the headteacher protects their time and starts with a few priorities. To conclude, school management is the coordinated set of processes — planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, controlling and evaluating — by which a school converts its resources into learning. TQM strengthens each of these processes by adding a disciplined concern for the beneficiary, for evidence, for prevention and for continuous, participative improvement. Implemented step by step, as described above, it enables an ordinary elementary school, with ordinary resources, to become steadily and demonstrably better at its central task.

Question 3: Physical and Human Resources in an Elementary School; Resource Mobilization and Maintenance (20 Marks)

What are the major physical and human resources required in an elementary school? Discuss the strategies a manager should adopt for effective resource mobilization and maintenance.

Introduction

Resources are the means by which a school achieves its purposes. However inspiring its aims and however sound its timetable, a school cannot teach children who have no classroom to sit in, no teacher before them, no book in their hands and no money for the most basic necessities. Resource management is therefore one of the headteacher's central responsibilities, and in the elementary schools of Pakistan — where public funds are limited, classes are large and many buildings are old — it is often the responsibility on which everything else depends. Resources are conventionally divided into physical (material and financial) resources and human resources, though in practice the two are inseparable: a library without a teacher who organizes reading is furniture, and a devoted teacher without books or a roof is frustrated goodwill. This answer first describes the major physical and human resources required in an elementary school, and then discusses the strategies a manager should adopt for mobilizing these resources — that is, obtaining and generating them — and for maintaining them so that their service lasts and their value is preserved.

Major Physical Resources Required in an Elementary School

Physical resources include the site, buildings, furniture, equipment, teaching-learning materials and money. The school site and building come first. A safe, accessible and reasonably spacious site, with a boundary wall, a playground and room for future expansion, is the foundation of all school activity. The building must provide enough classrooms for the enrolment, with adequate light, ventilation and protection from weather; an office for the headteacher and staff; a room or corner for a library and stored materials; toilets for boys and girls in working order; and safe

drinking water. In many elementary schools these basics are incomplete — children study under trees or in verandas, and the absence of toilets, especially for girls, is a documented cause of absenteeism and dropout — so securing and completing the physical plant is a genuine educational priority, not a matter of comfort alone.

Furniture and equipment form the second category: desks or mats and low chairs suited to young children, blackboards or whiteboards in every room, a teacher's table and chair, cupboards and storage boxes, office equipment, a first-aid box, sports material, and basic science and mathematics kits for demonstration and activity-based learning. Teaching-learning materials form the third and most directly instructional category: textbooks for every child, workbooks and exercise copies, charts, maps, globes, flashcards, reading cards, a class library of storybooks, slates or writing material for the early grades, and increasingly, where available, audiovisual aids and a computer with educational content. Finally, financial resources — the school's funds — are the resource that commands all the others. They include the government grant and school council funds, funds released for specific schemes, and any income from permissible local sources. Money must be planned through a budget, spent under the rules, and accounted for in the cash book; a school that manages its small funds honestly and visibly can attract further support, whereas a school with doubtful accounts loses both official and community confidence.

Table 1: Major physical resources of an elementary school and their educational purpose

Resource Category	Principal Items	Educational Purpose
Site and building	Land, classrooms, office, library corner, toilets, drinking water,	Safety, access, health, space for teaching, play and future growth

	boundary wall, playground	
Furniture	Desks/mats, chairs, blackboards, cupboards, teacher furniture	Comfort, posture, orderly storage and effective classroom presentation
Equipment	First-aid box, sports goods, science and mathematics kits, office equipment	Health and safety, physical development and activity-based learning
Teaching-learning material	Textbooks, workbooks, charts, maps, flashcards, storybooks, audiovisual aids	Direct support of lessons, reading habits and self-learning
Financial resources	Government grants, school council funds, scheme funds	Purchase, repair and running of all other resources under proper accounts

Major Human Resources Required in an Elementary School

Human resources are the people whose knowledge, skill and effort make the physical resources productive. The most important are the teachers. An elementary school requires a sufficient number of trained teachers to keep class size manageable, with a proper balance across grades: teachers skilled in early-grade pedagogy and the teaching of reading for Classes 1–3, and teachers with stronger subject knowledge of mathematics, science, Urdu, English and social studies for Classes 4–5 (and up to Class 8 where the school is a middle or elementary school in the full sense). Quality matters as much as number: a teacher who understands child psychology, prepares lessons, uses activity methods and assesses learning continuously contributes more than additional untrained hands.

The headteacher is the second key human resource: leader, administrator, supervisor and the school's link with the department and community. A competent headteacher multiplies the

value of every other resource by deploying staff wisely, protecting teaching time and maintaining systems. Supporting staff — a clerk where sanctioned, a peon or attendant, a watchman and a sweeper — keep the office, premises and services running so that teachers can concentrate on teaching. Beyond the gate, the pupils themselves are a resource in the educational process, through monitors, class prefects, cleanliness and library committees and peer tutoring, which also teach responsibility. Parents and the community constitute a further human resource: the school management committee or parent-teacher council, local elders, philanthropists, health workers, and the field officers of the education department (such as the assistant education officer) who provide supervision and guidance. Finally, the wider system supplies resource persons — trainers, subject specialists and master trainers — whose occasional input raises the capacity of the school's own staff. A wise manager treats all these persons not as a list of posts but as a living network of capabilities to be developed and coordinated.

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Strategies for Effective Resource Mobilization

Resource mobilization means obtaining the resources the school needs, from all legitimate sources, in the right quantity, at the right time. The first strategy is systematic needs assessment and planning. The headteacher prepares a school development plan based on facts: present enrolment and its likely growth, the condition of the building, the stock register's record of furniture and materials, and the learning deficiencies revealed by test results. Needs are then ranked — drinking water and a leaking roof before decoration — so that when funds or opportunities appear, the school already knows its priorities and can present them

convincingly. The second strategy is full and timely use of government provision. Many resources are lost simply because demands are not submitted, forms are not completed or released grants lapse unspent. The manager therefore knows the budget calendar, submits enrolment-based demands for teachers, textbooks and grants on time, follows up files politely but persistently, and spends released funds within the financial year under the rules, since unspent and lapsed grants weaken the school's claim in the following year.

The third strategy is community mobilization. In the Pakistani context, communities have historically built and supported schools, and an organized appeal through the school management committee can yield land, labour, materials, furniture, books and cash for specific, visible purposes — a repaired boundary wall, a water cooler, library books. The keys to success are specificity and transparency: ask for a defined item, display the estimate, complete the work quickly, acknowledge the donor publicly, and show the account to the committee. People give again when they see their contribution in use; they stop giving when its fate is doubtful. The fourth strategy is partnership with non-governmental organizations, philanthropists, alumni and the private sector, which in many districts support missing facilities, scholarships, uniforms for poor children, teacher training and reading material. The headteacher identifies such partners, presents the school's plan rather than a vague request, and reports back on results. The fifth strategy is mobilizing human resources themselves: persuading the department, through proper data, to fill vacant posts; arranging volunteer and community teachers only within the rules; using retired teachers and educated local youth for remedial and library support where permitted; and, above all, developing the existing staff through school-based training, peer observation and demonstration lessons, because improving a teacher

already in post is often faster and cheaper than acquiring a new resource. The sixth strategy is economical internal generation and sharing: cluster-level sharing of kits and reference books among neighbouring schools, a book bank that recycles textbooks, and careful timetabling that keeps rooms and equipment fully employed all day.

Strategies for Effective Maintenance of Resources

Mobilization without maintenance is waste: resources in schools deteriorate quickly through weather, heavy use by young children and simple neglect, and replacement is slow. The first maintenance strategy is an accurate and current record. Every item received or purchased is entered in the stock register with its date, source, cost and condition; a separate dead-stock and consumable record is maintained; and the headteacher verifies stock physically at least once a year, as the rules require. Records are not bureaucracy for its own sake — they are the school's memory, the basis of audit, and the only proof, when a roof must be repaired or a post justified, of what the school actually possesses. The second strategy is preventive maintenance on a calendar: roofs and drains inspected before the monsoon, whitewashing and minor repairs in the vacations, taps, toilets and electrical fittings checked monthly, furniture repaired at the first looseness rather than after collapse, and books covered, stored dry and protected from termites. Small, timely expenditure prevents the large expenditure — or the lost classroom — that neglect eventually forces.

The third strategy is clear assignment of responsibility and a culture of care. Each room, cupboard, kit and corner of the school is placed in the charge of a named teacher; class monitors assist with daily tidiness; and pupils are deliberately taught to respect school property

as their own — a lesson in citizenship as much as in economy. Damage is reported at once through a simple procedure, and repairs are not left to accumulate until inspection day. The fourth strategy is a maintenance provision in the budget: a modest, regular allocation for repairs and consumables, spent under the rules and recorded in the cash book, so that maintenance does not depend on emergency appeals. The fifth strategy concerns human resources, whose 'maintenance' is professional development and welfare. Teachers are maintained — kept effective and committed — through fair distribution of duties, recognition of good work, protection from unnecessary non-teaching burdens, leave and service matters handled promptly and correctly, opportunities for training and promotion, and a working climate of respect. A demoralized teacher is a deteriorating resource, and no physical facility can compensate for that loss. Finally, the manager reviews resources periodically with the staff and the school council: what is unused should be redeployed, what is obsolete should be written off by the prescribed procedure, and what is missing should enter the next development plan. Maintenance, in this sense, is a cycle of record, prevention, responsibility, provision and review.

Conclusion

To conclude, an elementary school requires, on the physical side, a safe site and complete building, furniture and equipment, teaching-learning materials and honestly managed funds; and, on the human side, sufficient trained teachers, an able headteacher, supporting staff, and the active cooperation of pupils, parents, community and departmental officers. The manager mobilizes these resources by assessing needs and planning credibly, claiming government

provision fully and on time, organizing community support transparently, building partnerships, developing the staff in post, and sharing and economizing within the school cluster. The same manager preserves them through accurate stock and cash records, preventive maintenance on a fixed calendar, clearly assigned responsibility and a culture of care among pupils, a regular maintenance budget, and sustained attention to the development and morale of teachers. Schools in poor areas cannot choose to be rich, but they can choose to be well managed; and in elementary education it is very often this difference — between resources merely received and resources mobilized and maintained — that separates the school that improves every year from the school that merely survives.

Question 4: Transformational Leadership and Situational Leadership Compared; Suitability for an Elementary School (20 Marks)

Compare and contrast Transformational Leadership and Situational Leadership styles. Which style is most suitable for an elementary school environment and why?

Introduction

Leadership is the process of influencing people so that they willingly work towards the goals of the organization. In a school, leadership is exercised chiefly by the headteacher, and research consistently shows that the quality of this leadership is one of the strongest influences on teacher morale, teaching quality and pupil achievement. Many styles of leadership have been described, but two of the most discussed in educational management are transformational leadership and situational leadership. Transformational leadership, associated with James

MacGregor Burns and Bernard Bass, seeks to raise followers to higher levels of motivation and commitment by inspiring them with a shared vision and appealing to their values and professional pride. Situational leadership, developed by Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard, holds that there is no single best style: the effective leader varies his or her behaviour — directing, coaching, supporting or delegating — according to the readiness of the followers for the particular task. This answer compares and contrasts the two styles and then argues which is most suitable for an elementary school, and why.

Transformational Leadership: Meaning and Features

Transformational leadership is leadership that transforms: it changes the attitudes, aspirations and performance of followers rather than merely securing their compliance. The transformational headteacher articulates a clear and attractive vision of what the school can become — for example, 'every child in this school a confident reader' — and communicates it repeatedly until it is shared. Bass described four characteristic behaviours, sometimes called the four I's. Idealized influence means the leader acts as a role model whose conduct earns trust and respect: the headteacher who arrives first, teaches a demonstration class and applies rules to himself or herself before applying them to others. Inspirational motivation means arousing enthusiasm and optimism, setting high but attainable expectations and giving meaning to routine work by connecting it to the larger purpose of educating children. Intellectual stimulation means encouraging teachers to question old habits, experiment with new methods and solve problems creatively, without fear of punishment for honest failure. Individualized consideration means attending to the needs, strengths and development of each teacher

separately — mentoring the new recruit, giving the experienced teacher a leadership responsibility, and supporting the colleague facing personal difficulty. The expected results are commitment rather than mere obedience, effort beyond the formal job description, professional growth, and a school culture in which improvement is continuous because it is internally motivated. Its risks should also be noted: a vision that is only rhetoric, unsupported by resources and follow-through, breeds cynicism, and the style depends heavily on the character and energy of the leader, so its benefits can fade when that leader is transferred.

Situational Leadership: Meaning and Features

Situational leadership begins from the observation that followers differ, and the same follower differs from task to task. A senior teacher may need no supervision in teaching mathematics but close guidance in maintaining a new record format; a newly appointed teacher may need detailed direction in almost everything during the first months. Hersey and Blanchard therefore describe the leader's behaviour along two dimensions — task behaviour (giving direction, setting standards, checking work) and relationship behaviour (listening, encouraging, involving) — and combine them into four styles matched to the follower's readiness level. In the directing style (for low readiness), the leader defines the task precisely, demonstrates it and monitors closely. In the coaching style (for moderate readiness), the leader still directs but also explains, encourages and begins to involve the follower in decisions. In the supporting style (for fairly high readiness), the leader shares decisions, facilitates and encourages, while the follower performs the task. In the delegating style (for high readiness), responsibility is handed over, and the leader monitors only results. The leader's skill lies in diagnosis: reading the competence and

commitment of each person for each task and flexing the style accordingly. The strength of the model is its practicality and its respect for individual differences; its weakness is that, used alone, it can become a technique for getting tasks done without building any shared purpose, loyalty or culture in the school as a whole.

Comparison and Contrast

The two styles agree on fundamentals: both reject the purely autocratic issuing of orders, both treat followers as persons whose motivation matters, and both expect the leader to be active and observant rather than a distant office-holder. Beyond this agreement, they differ in focus, mechanism and assumptions, as summarized below.

Table 1: Transformational and situational leadership compared

Aspect	Transformational Leadership	Situational Leadership
Central idea	Inspire followers with a shared vision so that they rise above routine performance	Match the style of leadership to the readiness of each follower for each task
Focus	The whole school: its vision, values, culture and collective commitment	The individual follower and the specific task in hand
Mechanism of influence	Values, example, inspiration, intellectual challenge and personal consideration	Varying degrees of direction and support according to diagnosed readiness
View of followers	Partners in a common mission, to be developed as future leaders	Persons at different levels of competence and commitment, to be handled differently
Style of the leader	Consistent in character and vision, though flexible in method	Deliberately variable; no fixed style, behaviour changes with the situation
Time horizon	Long-term transformation of people and culture	Immediate effectiveness in the task and gradual development of

		the follower
Main strength	Builds commitment, morale, innovation and lasting improvement	Practical, fair and effective with a mixed staff of varied experience
Main limitation	Depends on the leader's charisma and integrity; vision without support becomes empty slogans	Can remain a technique for task completion without creating shared purpose or culture

In terms of contrast, three points stand out. First, the unit of attention differs: transformational leadership addresses the staff as a community bound by purpose, whereas situational leadership addresses each teacher individually as a performer of tasks. Second, the source of energy differs: transformational leadership releases energy from within the follower, whose own values and ambitions are engaged, while situational leadership supplies energy from the leader's behaviour, calibrated from outside. Third, their risks are opposite: transformational leadership may inspire people towards goals they cannot yet perform, neglecting the beginner who simply needs to be told exactly what to do; situational leadership may manage everyone competently while inspiring no one, leaving the school efficient but uninspired. It follows that the two are better seen as complements than as rivals: one supplies direction of the heart, the other supplies appropriateness of method.

Which Style Is Most Suitable for an Elementary School, and Why?

For an elementary school, the most suitable approach is transformational leadership as the primary, governing style, applied through situational flexibility in daily dealings with individual teachers. If a single style must be named, transformational leadership deserves the first place, for the following reasons. Elementary education is a long, patient, value-laden enterprise: its

results — a child who reads, trusts school and has formed good habits — appear slowly and depend on the sustained devotion of teachers whose pay and status are modest and whose classes are large. Such devotion cannot be purchased or commanded; it must be inspired. Teachers who share a vision of their school as a place where every local child, however poor, will be taught well, will prepare lessons, follow up absent pupils and help weak learners in a way that no inspection regime can extract. The elementary headteacher is also physically and socially close to a small staff, often teaching alongside them; this intimacy makes idealized influence — leadership by personal example — both possible and powerful, whereas in a large bureaucracy it would be diluted. Further, elementary schools in our context must constantly mobilize parents and community, and a transformational leader's clear, hopeful vision is precisely what persuades a village or neighbourhood to give land, labour, funds and trust to its school.

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At the same time, the elementary staff is typically very mixed: a senior trained teacher, a young contractual appointee, a teacher near retirement resistant to new methods, and sometimes an untrained substitute. Here situational leadership is indispensable as the operating method. The new teacher needs directing and coaching — modelled lessons, exact formats, frequent encouraging feedback; the experienced and willing teacher should be supported and delegated to — given charge of the reading programme or the examinations — because over-direction of a competent professional breeds resentment; the able but discouraged teacher needs the supporting style, with obstacles removed and achievements recognized. A headteacher who used only inspiration with a bewildered beginner would be unkind and ineffective; a headteacher who used only calibrated direction with a devoted senior would waste a leader.

The wise course, therefore, is a transformational purpose carried out with situational intelligence: one vision for the whole school, many styles for the many situations within it.

Conclusion

To conclude, transformational and situational leadership share a human and participative spirit but differ in their centre of gravity: the first transforms people and culture through vision, example and inspiration, while the second adapts direction and support to the readiness of each follower for each task. For the elementary school — a small, value-centred institution whose success rests on the long-term commitment of a small and varied staff, and on the trust of its community — transformational leadership is the most suitable primary style, because it alone creates the shared purpose and professional pride on which young children's education ultimately depends. Used together with situational flexibility towards individual teachers, it gives the headteacher both a compass and a set of tools: a vision worth following, and the practical wisdom to lead each colleague in the way that colleague, at that moment, most needs to be led.

Question 5: Administrative Planning, Leadership and School Performance Indicators (20 Marks)

Explain how proper administrative planning and strong leadership styles collectively contribute to the academic success and performance indicators of a school.

Introduction

Every school is judged, formally or informally, by its results: how many children enrol and stay, how regularly they attend, how well they read, write and calculate, how they behave, and how successfully they pass to the next stage. These outcomes are commonly expressed as performance indicators — measurable signs by which the health of a school can be assessed and compared over time. Results of this kind are never accidental. Behind a successful school two forces are almost always found working together: proper administrative planning, which arranges in advance what will be done, with what resources and by what dates; and strong leadership, which animates the plan through the commitment and effort of teachers, pupils and parents. Planning without leadership remains paper; leadership without planning dissipates energy in uncoordinated enthusiasm. This answer explains the contribution of each, shows how they act collectively on the principal performance indicators of a school, and notes the conditions and limits of their influence.

Contribution of Proper Administrative Planning

Administrative planning is the deliberate process of setting objectives, forecasting conditions, preparing programmes and budgets, and fixing responsibilities and timelines before action begins. In a school it includes the annual school development plan, the academic calendar, the timetable, schemes of work, examination schedules, the budget, and plans for admissions, staff deployment, maintenance and co-curricular activities. Its first contribution to academic success is goal clarity. Planning converts general intentions — 'improve reading', 'reduce dropout' — into specific targets for specific classes and terms, for example that 80 per cent of Grade 2

pupils will achieve the prescribed reading fluency by the second term. Teachers teach differently when the target is known, dated and monitored; vague goodwill becomes directed effort. Its second contribution is the orderly allocation of scarce resources. A planned timetable protects instructional time — the single most precious resource in a school — by distributing periods fairly among subjects, avoiding clashes and wasteful gaps, and reserving time for revision, testing and remedial teaching. A planned budget directs money to the inputs that affect learning most, such as reading material and repairs that keep classrooms usable, instead of allowing funds to be consumed by whatever demand arrives first.

Third, planning provides coordination and continuity across the school year. Admissions, teaching units, monthly tests, terminal examinations, sports and annual functions are sequenced so that each activity prepares for the next and none collides with another; the syllabus is completed before the examination because the calendar was built backwards from it. Fourth, planning builds in monitoring: monthly tests, attendance registers and stock and cash records, all fixed in advance, generate the data by which the headteacher detects a failing class, a truant group of pupils or an overspending head of account while correction is still cheap and possible. Fifth, planning prepares for contingencies — a teacher's leave, a monsoon closure, an unexpected inspection — through substitute arrangements and reserve time, so that learning is interrupted as little as possible. In all these ways planning raises the floor of a school's performance: it prevents the losses caused by confusion, delay and drift, which in poorly run schools quietly consume a large share of the teaching year.

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Contribution of Strong Leadership Styles

If planning supplies the design, leadership supplies the life. A strong headteacher — using the participative, instructional and transformational behaviours discussed in management literature — contributes to academic success first by establishing high expectations and an academic focus. Schools improve when the leader constantly signals that learning is the central business: classroom visits concentrate on teaching and pupils' work, staff meetings discuss results and methods more than routine circulars, and achievements in reading, mathematics and conduct are publicly celebrated. Second, leadership develops and motivates the teachers on whom all results depend. Through demonstration lessons, peer observation, school-based training, fair distribution of duties, prompt attention to teachers' legitimate problems and sincere recognition of good work, the leader raises both the competence and the morale of the staff. Motivated, growing teachers prepare better lessons, mark work more carefully, follow up absentees and stay in the school — each of which directly affects pupils' learning.

Third, strong leadership creates a disciplined, safe and caring school climate. Clear, fairly enforced rules for pupils and staff, punctuality modelled from the top, cleanliness and order in the premises, and firm but humane handling of misbehaviour produce the calm atmosphere in which young children concentrate and teachers can teach without spending the period on control. Fourth, the leader builds the school's external support: regular contact with parents, an active school council, honest reporting of results and visible improvement persuade families to enrol their children, send them regularly, support homework and contribute resources — contributions no plan can command into existence. Fifth, leadership sustains improvement over time. Plans are annual, but leaders interpret data, insist on follow-through, protect good

practices from being dropped when fashions change, and hold the staff kindly but firmly to the targets they have jointly set. Where leadership is weak — an absentee or purely clerical headteacher — even excellent plans decay into unopened files, because nobody presses for their execution.

Joint Effect on the School's Performance Indicators

The collective effect of planning and leadership can be traced through the standard performance indicators of an elementary school. On enrolment and retention, planning identifies out-of-school children through household data, fixes an enrolment campaign with dates and responsibilities, and arranges classes and teachers for the expected intake; leadership gives the campaign a human face, visiting homes, addressing parents and welcoming new children, so enrolment rises and, because the school visibly works, pupils stay instead of dropping out. On attendance, planned registers and follow-up procedures detect absence patterns quickly, while leadership motivates teachers to contact parents, makes the school attractive through activities and recognition, and addresses causes such as illness, distance or child labour through the council. On learning achievement — the most important indicator — planning secures full syllabus coverage, protected teaching time, monthly assessment and remedial periods; leadership converts this structure into quality, by supervising teaching supportively, arranging training where results expose weakness, and setting class-wise learning targets that teachers own. Rising pass percentages, better reading and numeracy levels, and stronger results in board or cluster examinations follow from the combination.

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On teacher indicators — teacher attendance, punctuality, lesson preparation and professional development — planning fixes the timetable, duty roster and training calendar, while leadership models punctuality, checks preparation with encouragement rather than fault-finding, and turns development activities into genuine growth; a staff that is present, prepared and improving is itself a leading indicator of pupil success. On financial and material indicators, planned budgeting and maintenance keep funds properly spent and auditable and buildings functional, while leadership's transparency with the school council protects the school's reputation and attracts further support. On equity indicators — the enrolment and achievement of girls, of the poorest children and of children with disabilities — planning reserves attention and resources for these groups, and leadership supplies the conviction and community persuasion that bring hesitant families into the school. The pattern is consistent: for every indicator, planning provides the mechanism and leadership provides the motive force; remove either and the indicator stagnates.

Table 1: How planning and leadership act together on performance indicators

Performance Indicator	Contribution of Planning	Contribution of Leadership
Enrolment and retention	Enrolment targets, campaign dates, class and teacher arrangements	Home visits, parent trust, welcoming school climate
Pupil attendance	Registers, absence follow-up procedure, attendance monitoring	Motivation of staff and pupils, action on causes of absence
Learning achievement	Syllabus coverage, timetable, monthly tests, remedial periods	Instructional supervision, teacher development, high expectations
Teacher performance	Duty roster, training calendar, clear responsibilities	Example, recognition, fair dealing and professional support
Finance and facilities	Budget, maintenance calendar,	Transparency with council,

	records and audit	mobilization of community support

Conditions, Limits and Conclusion

Two cautions complete the analysis. First, planning and leadership operate within conditions they do not fully control: sanctioned posts may remain vacant, funds may arrive late, and poverty may pull children towards work. Honest evaluation therefore distinguishes what the school can govern from what it cannot, and judges the headteacher by progress on the former and by credible effort on the latter. Second, indicators must be used intelligently. If examination results alone are rewarded, schools may narrow teaching to test rehearsal or inflate internal marks; a balanced set of indicators — including attendance, retention, observed teaching quality and equity — keeps improvement genuine. To conclude, proper administrative planning contributes goal clarity, orderly use of resources, coordination, built-in monitoring and preparedness, while strong leadership contributes expectations, teacher development and motivation, a disciplined and caring climate, community support and sustained follow-through. Acting together, they raise the school's enrolment, attendance, achievement, staff performance, financial health and equity — the very indicators by which a school's academic success is measured. The successful elementary school is therefore neither merely well planned nor merely well led; it is a place where a sound design is daily animated by leadership that makes people want to achieve it.

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