EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

Handbook for School of Education Student

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FOREWORD

Educational Management: Handbook for School of Education Student is practically a student handbook on Educational Management subject. This subject is a part of Educational Foundation Subjects (*Mata Kuliah Dasar Kependidikan*) for the student of all educational study programs.

This book presents the basic science of educational management. It is important introduce the educational management to all educational study programs' student. The future teachers are must be prepared in managerial knowledge and skills. They will be faced into resources management, such as facility, student, curriculum, finance, public relations, leadership, office administration, personnel, and supervision.

Author also provides the international perspectives in every chapter. Mostly are based on Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) as our benchmark. We hope our future teachers will adopt and adapt the innovations in the best practice.

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CONTENT

Chapter 1
The Concept of Educational Management

At the end of this part, students should be able to:

1. Make the educational management definition.
2. Explain the area of educational management field study.
3. Apply the main principles each managerial function to the national and international education setting.

A. Definition of Educational Management

Some experts who explain the meaning of management is Frederick W. Taylor and Henry Fayol. They put forward the scientific management movement. Educational management also influenced by their views. Taylor recommended the use of performance standards, namely the achievement of the expected labor productivity. A goal is something to be achieved by the organization. While the standard is a measure of performance which if met will result in the destination set.

The other management expert is Fayol. On his book *Administration Industrielle et Generale*, which translated in America become *General and Industrial Management*, he was the first who developed the theory of administrative management. He identified the difference between operational and managerial activities, and he wanted to find ways to improve management. So, Fayol focuses more on operational issues. He wrote five principles which become management functions, they are: planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating, and controlling.

Many people have used the term administration to mean management. Administration is a generalized type of human behavior found in an organization. Administration is a process through which decisions are reached. Administration is the process of directing and controlling life in any social organization such as schools or in an industry. On the other way, we may say that management is a science which

concern with how the people cooperate to reach the organization goal. (Kimani, 2011: 17)

Basically, educational management is the implementation of management principles in education field. According to Gerald Ngugi Kimani (2011: 17) it is quite clear that educational administration and educational management are applied fields of study. Educational management is an applied field of management. One can therefore deduce that educational management refers to the application of theory and practice of management to the field of education or educational institutions. Educational administration is a process of acquiring and allocating resources for the achievement of predetermined educational goals.

We conclude, the educational management is called as a science or process which based on resources managing to reach the productive education goal according to the planning effectively and efficiently.

Discussion

There are many people tell about the term of management and administration. First, they who said that administration is wider than management. Second, they who said that management is wider than administration. Third, they who said that administration and management have the same meaning. Which one is yours?

B. Functions of Educational Management

The process of educational management consists of three basic functions, namely planning, implementing and controlling. A manager uses these functions to achieve educational organization goals and objectives.
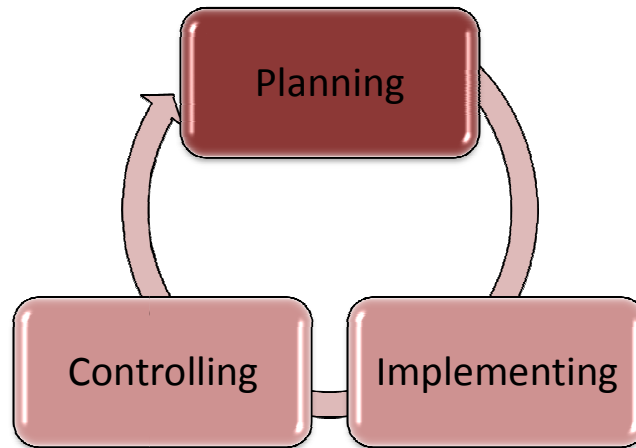
Diagram 1.1.
Educational Management Functions Cycle

Planning					
Budgeting					

Implementing					
Organizing	*Staffing*	*Directing*	*Accomodating*	*Coordinating*	*Motivating*

Controlling		
Evaluating	*Reporting*	*Monitoring*
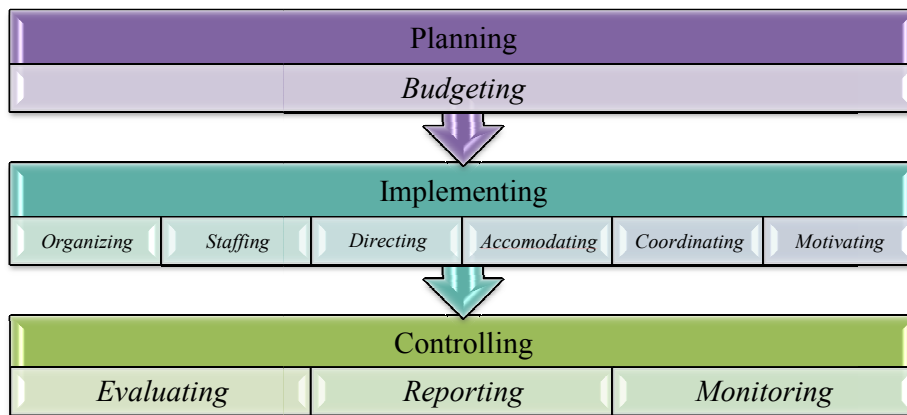
Diagram 1.2
Management Functions

Many management experts stated their view of management functions. But, there is no strict composition for it. Beside the three major functions that we already discuss, we can compile a few management functions in the matrix below.

Matrix 1.1
Management Functions

Experts	Management Functions							Acronym
Luther Gullick	Planning	Organizing	Staffing	Directing	Coordinating	Reporting	Budgeting	POSDCoRB
Ernest Dale					Innovating	Representing	Controlling	POSDIRC
Koontz & Donnel								POSDC
William Newman			Assembling	Resources	Directing			POARDC
Henry Fayol			Commanding	Coordinating				POCCC
George Terry			Actuating					POAC
John F. Mae			Motivating					POMC
Deming		Do	Check	Act				PDCA
John D. Millet				Directing	Facilitating			DF

Compiled by Mulyati & Komariah (2010: 92)

1. Planning

Planning is the first step of educational management. Kimani (2011: 17) said "Planning is a rational and systematic way of forecasting the future of an organization. It is a process of preparing for change by formulating future course of action."

He also considered Warren (1994) who said that planning is a decision-making activity requiring the process of ascertaining objectives and deciding on activities to attain these objectives. Through planning process the manager aims at managing organization efficiently and effectively.

Planning is preparation activity to anticipate the actions which will be done. Planning may formulate the goals and what techniques to get it. (Djam'an Satori, 2007: 155)

In the educational context, Russel G. Davis (1980: 1) said "Educational planning is a form of general social planning, and systematic social planning is *rational foresight applied to stimulate and guide social action toward articulated objectives*."

Consider the experts, we may said that educational planning is a management function which involves the process of formulate the

education organization's goals, establishing an overall strategy for achieving those goals and developing a comprehensive set of plans to integrate and coordinate organizational work.

Planning should is continuous and gradual activities which are guided by goals to be achieved. It could be single or plural activity, and support each other. One determines the other activities. Planning must formulate what actions will be taken. This is the core activity which contains decisions on actions to be implemented. Formulation of the plans contains some uncertainty elements because not all the obstacles that will occur in the future can be foresighted for sure in determining what techniques most appropriate to do. The future can not be predicted exactly and definitely because of the possibilities has always existed. Optimization foresight will likely occur to maintain the minimum failures. (Satori, 2007: 156).

According to Kimani (2011: 39), there are four the characteristics of planning functions. First, planning is anticipatory. Decisions are made on how and what to do before it is done. Second, it is goal directed. Third, planning focuses on desired future results. Fourth, planning is future oriented. It involves making decisions that will be achieved in future.

Planning must adaptability, adoptability, flexibility, and scientific. Educational planning is the starting point to make the perfect educational management. It should be adapted and adopted by everyone, flexible to anticipate any possibilities, and based on the obtained and accurate need and information.

Planning is a very important function of management. This helps in setting goals. The purpose of defining the outcome for an educational organization which can be used as a performance criteria. The output of an organization can be considered good if there is intended output at the earliest. Through the plan, managers can learn what the organization intends to achieve. They can make decisions to ensure that internal policies, roles, performance, structure, products and expenditures will be in accordance with the desired results.

2. Implementing

Implementing is equivalent with doing. It means we must implements the plan into the real actions. We could compile many educational functions which have similar characteristics as the real actions after we make the plan into implementing function. They are organizing, communicating, staffing, directing, accommodating, coordinating, motivating, and so on. It depends on what kind of object which managed. If we talk about educational facility management, it doesn't mean that we must communicate or motivate our facility, but just maintenance. In the other hand, we must communicate, direct, coordinate, and motivate the person who in charge as a facility officer (general affair, janitor, etc).

a. Organizing

Organizing is similar to staffing which is the educational management function of gathering resources, establishing orderly uses for such resources and structuring tasks to fulfill organizational goals. It includes the determination of what tasks are to be done, how tasks are to be grouped, who is responsible to do these tasks and who will make decisions about the tasks. Organizing is a process of putting together human material resources in order to achieve organizational goal. In a school situation it may involve putting together teachers, non-teaching staff, building, teaching and learning materials to ensure pupils learn effectively. In order to achieve maximum success, activities need to be well organized. (Kimani, 2011: 41)

We must consider the following are the principles underlying organizational design.

1) The principle of objectivity. Every organization geared towards achievement of its goals and objectives
2) The principles of specialization. In the allocation of work, the specialization of workers should be taken into consideration
3) The principle of definition. The content, duties authority and responsibility for each position should be clearly defined

4) The principle of correspondence. Authority and responsibility for each position should correspond.

5) Efficiency. Organizational structure should enable it function efficiently and accomplish Objectives with minimum cost.

6) Simplicity. Organizational structure should be as simple as possible.

7) Flexibility. The organization should be adaptable to changing circumstances and permit expansion or replacement

8) Balance. There is need to balance the size of different departments and factors such as human, technical, expertise and financial.

9) Unity of direction: For a group of activities having the same objective, there should be one head and one plan.

10) Personal ability. Selection, placement and training of staff should be given priority to ensure optimum performance from employees.

b. Directing

Directing is similar to leading, motivating and coordinating, which is the integrating of people with the educational organization to get their cooperation for the achievement of its goal. Directing is a process through which educational personnel are motivated to make effective and efficient contribution to the realization of organizational goals.

Directing requires some organizational commitment. It needs integration of organizational goals with those of individual and groups. It exclusively deals with the human element. It is therefore a very delicate and sensitive function that managers must take extreme care.

There are many types of directing. At least we recognize three majors of it. First, the democratic leading or consultative directing. Participative techniques of giving directions. Second, the free-rein directing/laissez faire. The leader, director, or supervisor does not participate actively in giving decisions. Third, the autocratic or dictatorial directing. The leader keeps the entire authority and control with him.

3. Controlling

Why is controlling needed? It is because of the goals of individuals or groups sometimes contrary to the organization purposes. The other reason is the deviations which caused by a gap period between the time when the objectives are formulated and embodied.

Controlling is a management function which monitors whether the activities on going well or not. As we know that the activities are must fit in the planning. If there is something that is not appropriate, it needs an adjustment.

Controlling involves determining what is achieved evaluate performance and implement corrective measures to enable the aims and objectives implemented in accordance with the original plan. Therefore, controlling means comparing performance with respect to pre-set goals and making the necessary adjustments and corrections. (Kimani, 2011: 45).

Controlling is needed to update plans, to protect organizations assets from inefficiency and waste and to appraise employee's performance. It means this educational management function trying to control individual and organizational aspect.

There are four steps in the process of control. First, establish the standards. Second, measure the performance. Third, compare the actual performances or results into standards. Fourth, take the corrective action which required.

Effective and efficient is the main principle in educational management. Controlling as its function, must have the characteristics of effective control. According to (Kimani, 2011: 46) effective control systems tend to have certain characteristics. These are:

1. Accuracy. Effective controls should generate accurate date and information for effective managerial decisions.
2. Timeliness. Controls should ensure that information reaches a decision maker when a meaningful response can be taken.

3. Flexibility. Controls should be flexible to accommodate changes in the environment. It is important to update control system if when a need arises.

4. Acceptability. A good control system is one where people affected by it understand and fully accepts it.

5. Integration. Controls that are consistent with organizations values and culture are easier to enforce as they become integrated to organizational environment.

6. Economic feasibility. A control system should be economical and reasonable to operate. Costs of operating such as system should be balanced against its benefits.

7. Strategic placement, controls should be placed at strategic points where time and money costs of failures are greatest.

8. Corrective actions, controls should identify deviations and be programmed to give solutions to such deviations.

9. Emphasis on exception. Good control systems work on exception principle so that only important deviations are brought to the attention of management.

C. Area of Educational Management Field Study

Basically, educational management concern with three major functions, they are planning, implementing, and controlling. So, it needs a harmonious collaboration between the educational management functions and its field study area. (Engkoswara, 2001: 3).

Matrix 1.2
Educational Management Functions and Objects
Adapted from Engkoswara (2001: 2)

Functions	Objects		
	Human Resource	Learning Resource	Facility & Finance
Planning	√	√	√
Implementing	√	√	√
Controlling	√	√	√

Educational management has three major field study area, they are:

1. Human resource, through the student, the educational personnel, and the stakeholder and community as an education service user.
2. Learning resource, such as tools through the planning which will be used as a media or curriculum.
3. Facility and finance resource, as supporting factors which make the education held well.

The functions and area of the educational management field study must be used as the guideline for organizational activity to reach the productive education goal. We must arrange the good harmony between individual and organizational needs. Educational management is trying to make a productive education which is effectively and efficiently.

In our discussion, we will describe the range of the field study area into ten study objects. They are educational leadership, educational supervision, educational organization, curriculum

management, student management, educational personnel management, educational facility management, educational finance management, educational archives and management information system.

International Perspective

The educational administration term has been used in America continent familiarly, especially in the United States of America. It is different to European which use the educational management term.

The American introduced the administration has a wider scope than just a clerical work which European said. It is a whole cooperative process. Most of the American university have the department which namely "Educational Administration". The British have been use the "management" term to call American's "administration". So, they have the department which namely "Educational Management".

According to Peter Earley and Dick Weindling (2004:5) over the years there has been considerable discussion in the literature about the similarities and differences between the notions of leadership, management and administration. The terms tend to have differing definitions; for example the meaning of administration in North America and Australasia is quite different from that in the UK where it tends to be associated with 'lower level' and more operational matters than leadership or management. Leadership tends to be more formative, proactive and problem-solving, dealing with such things as values, vision and mission, whereas the concerns of management are more to do with the execution, planning, organising and deploying of resources, or 'making things happen'. Management is focused more on providing order and consistency to organisations, while leadership is focused on producing change and movement.

How about Indonesia? As we know that Dutch colonized Indonesia for 350 years. So the term of administration is understood as the clerical work. It is well known as office administration. But, in the other hand, the American influences it. Many universities in Indonesia use the "administration" for their department name, such as Public Administration, Educational Administration, Business Administration, Fiscal Administration, etc.

The "management" term had been used in economic discipline. Many universities in Indonesia have the Management Department in their Faculty of Economic. This condition makes some perception that administration term is used in nonprofit or public organization. The management term is used in profit organization.

In the early year 2000, the management term had been popularized in Indonesia. It was because of the third view beside the American or the British. Some expert said that administration and management is equal, same, and interchangeable. The management term is not only used in

profit organization, but also nonprofit or public organization. This opinion said that the most important is not the term, but the essence of activity. There are effective and efficient which used in both administration and management. So, the term of educational management becomes popular. Many universities in Indonesia changed their name of Educational Administration Department or Study Program into Educational Management.

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Evaluation

1. What is management?
2. What is educational management?
3. Why we must study the educational management?
4. Explain the area of educational management field study?
5. How to manage the education in the international community?

Chapter 2
Educational Leadership

At the end of this part, students should be able to:

1. Explain the definition of educational leadership.
2. Describe the development of educational leadership theories.
3. Identify the style of educational leadership.
4. Explain how to apply the educational leadership in international setting.

A. Definition of Educational Leadership

Leadership is kind of activity when somebody influences the other persons to obey his order. Martin M. Chemers in Hoy and Miskel (2001: 392) said "leadership is a process of social influence in which one person is able to enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task."

On the educational context, especially at school, Bush and Glover (2003: 8) defined the leadership as follow,

> Leadership is a process of influence leading to the achievement of desired purposes. Successful leaders develop a vision for their schools based on personal and professional values. They articulate this vision at every opportunity and influence their staff and other stakeholders to share the vision. The philosophy, structures and activities of the school are geared towards the achievement of this shared vision.

Leadership needs at least two central factors which related inside. They are power and authority, plus the interaction of people in groups. The leader must have a vision and strong character to influence his followers.

We are familiar with the term leader, leadership, and lead. They initially derived from the same root word "lead". However, all of them are used in different contexts. The leader is a role within a particular system; therefore a person in a formal role does not necessarily have the

leadership skills and may not be able to lead. As for the term leadership is basically related to skills, aptitude, and levels of influence that person; therefore leadership can be owned by people who are not "leaders" (formal position). While the term "lead" is used in the context of the use of one's role relates to its ability to influence others in various ways.

Educational leadership is defined as occurring when someone takes the initiative to facilitate the following conditions for implementing change in teaching and learning. They must be making opportunities to allow participants to develop personal understandings and to form social groups to allow for mutual support during the change process. They also must have encouragement to reflect on practice.

What the different between leadership and management? According to Bush & Glover (2003: 10) leadership is a process of influence leading to the achievement of desired purposes. It involves inspiring and supporting others towards the achievement of a vision for the school that is based on clear personal and professional values. Management is the implementation of school policies and the efficient and effective maintenance of the school's current activities. People say, "Managers manage tasks, but leaders lead people," and "Management is doing things right, but leadership is doing the right things."

Table 2.1
Educational Leadership Definitions

Name of Experts	Definitions
Ortrun Zuber-Skerritt (2011: 7)	Leadership as the ability to ignite a fire and influence others towards the achievement of common goals that contribute to a commonly agreed purpose, such as professional, organizational and community development and improvement of practice and of life generally. This process requires leadership attributes such as wisdom, knowledge, higher order skills, character and beliefs and values.
Jonathan Smilansky (2006: 295)	Leadership is the ability to make things happen through others by organising, motivating and inspiring them. It implies the desire and ability to establish clarity and organise resources to achieve the company vision. It is underpinned by the ability to communicate.

Didier Marlier, Chris Parker and Mobilizing Teams International (2009: 8)	Leadership is about fulfilling their followers' expectations around the intellectual agenda, by providing them with a coherent logic of why things should change, displaying behaviors in line with the new strategic intent, and creating the conditions for their people to do and be their best.
P. A. Duignan and R. J. S. Macpherson. (1992: 19)	Educational leadership is a matter of facilitating, by example or otherwise, sound organisational decision making, so on the pragmatic and holistic view of knowledge growth through feedback enhanced problem-solving, the leader's central task is the provision of educative leadership. That is, as someone concerned with creating, promoting and applying knowledge, a leader must also be an educator.
Brian J. Caldwell (2001: 147)	Educational leadership is a broad concept that focuses on the notion of 'building a learning community': building the capacity of teachers and others in the school community to provide programmes in teaching and learning of the highest quality.
Nick Foskett and Jacky Lumby (2003: 173)	Leadership characteristics of a school are important factors in promoting systems and structures that enable the school to operate as a learning organisation. School leaders need to be highly skilled in transformational leadership practices which work, directly and indirectly through others, towards bringing about: consensus in the organisation's mission; structures for shared decision making; continual learning through reflective practice; high standards of professionalism; and, a supportive and appreciative climate that promotes a culture of trust and collaboration.
J. Tim Goddard. (2003: 13)	Leadership is not so simply learned. In schools, leadership is a concept both multidimensional and multifaceted, where the values, goals, beliefs and decision making skills of the principal give purpose and meaning to the policies and procedures which she or he is duty-bound to implement. These policies and procedures, however, together with the norms of the school context within which they are implemented, are not set by the principal or the school but rather are established and affected by national, provincial, divisional and local pressure groups.

Based on the definitions of educational leadership, there is the similar essence that implies the process of influencing others to perform or act

like a leader wants to achieve a common goal that has been set. Thus it can be concluded that leadership is a science and art of influencing people or groups of to think and act through positive behavior in order to achieve common goals effectively and efficiently.

B. Preview of Educational Leadership Theories

The study of leadership includes the multi-dimensional studies. Various theories have been generated from this study. The oldest theory is the Trait Theory or the so-called theory of nature. This theory was developed in the 1940s, starts from the premise that the success of a leader is determined by the characteristics or properties owned by a leader. These characteristics by focusing on a leader's personal characteristics, including: innate talents, characteristics of leaders, physical factors, personality, intelligence, and communication skills. Assumption of the nature of this is to become a successful leader largely determined by personal ability. To become a leader must have properties that should be present in a leader. One becomes a leader because there are a number of people who think that person has certain properties which overall is not owned by anyone else.

Frankie K. Williams, Diane Ricciardi, and Richard Blackbourn (2006: 587) said that trait theories explain leadership in terms of leader characteristics and personality, identifying certain physical, social, and personal attributes in leaders. Hundreds of studies between 1930 and 1950 helped identify characteristics to differentiate leaders from followers. Relevance was on leader selection, and emphasis was on characteristics like gender, height, energy, appearance, integrity, self-confidence, intelligence, desire to lead, and charisma. Subsequent researchers maintained that personal characteristics could not accurately predict leadership, and that situational variables are important to explain effectiveness, causing researchers to reject trait theory and focus emerging theories on behaviors and situations.

Because of a limitedness of human being, it is difficult for a leader to have many characteristics according to the Trait Theory. Later, it was push the creation of a new theory. It is based on a human behavior, the Behavior Theories. These theories are more focused on the actions which carried out of the leaders rather than pay attention to their attached attributes. This theoretical approach is based on the premise that the success or failure is determined by the style leader of behaving and acting its leader. Style of behave and act will be apparent from the way of influencing others. Thus, this approach starts from the premise that leadership very closely with the primary function of leadership, namely to move others to achieve goals.

Frankie K. Williams, Diane Ricciardi, and Richard Blackbourn (2006: 587) said that the next generation of theories focused on leader behaviors and differed dramatically from the trait approach—moving leadership conceptualization from what a leader is to what a leader does. Studies began to address how leaders behave with subordinates in varied contexts. Humanistic or personal behavioral theories are based on the development of the individual in an effective organization. Leaders by nature are motivated, while organizations by nature are structured and controlled. Leadership is seen as observable actions of the leader.

From this theory, the concept of Managerial Grid was born. Robert Blake and Jane Mouton (1964) explained that there is one best leadership style as a result of a combination of two factors, there is factors of production and human factors. In the Managerial Grid or lattice there are four styles of leadership, namely: (1) Impoverished Management, (2) Country-Club Management, (3) Autocratic Task Managers, and (4) Team Managers. Impoverished Management or poor style/barren is the management of the lowest of work to be done and the morale of the subordinates that work. Country-Club Management style or associations is a full management attention to the needs of people so that the organization should be a friendly atmosphere and fun, but related to the

implementation of low duties or relaxed. Autocratic Task Managers or task force is management with an emphasis on the implementation of the tasks so that the effectiveness and efficiency can be achieved but little attention to human elements. Team Managers or team style is the management at once concerning two elements, namely production and human achievement realized by providing confidence and independence of persons passing a particular regulation or standard set.
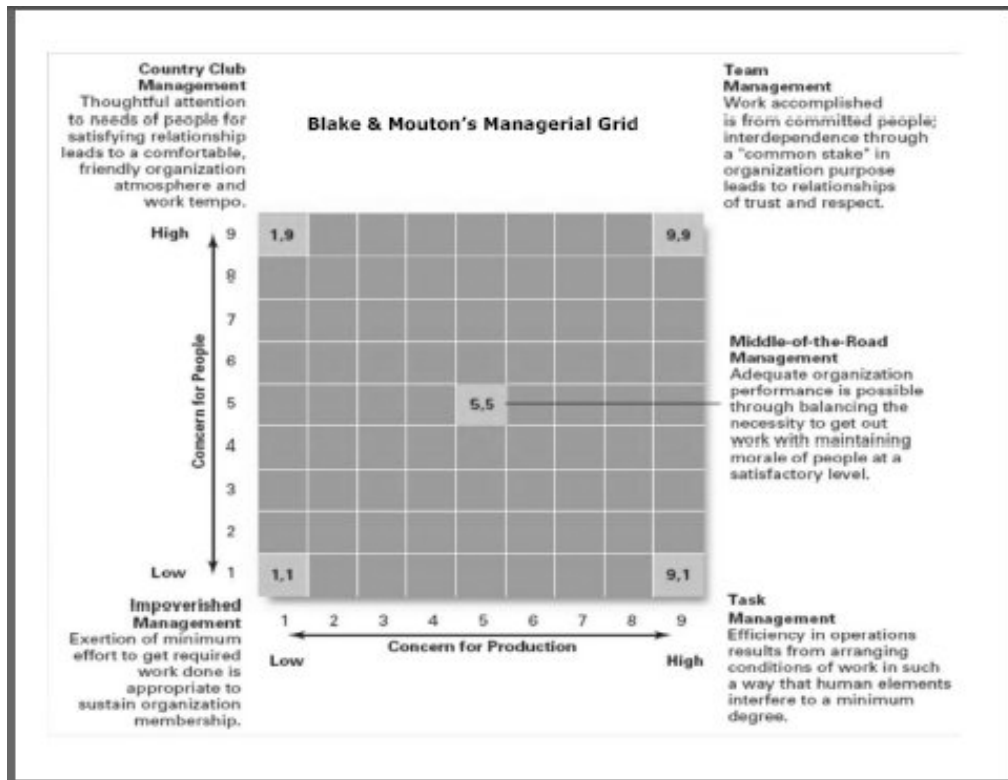
Figure 2.1.
Managerial Grid
(Source: http://www.strategies-for-managing-
change.com/images/ManagerialGrid.jpg)

There are many other theories of leadership that was born on leadership behavior approach studies. However, the next of behavior theory is no longer considered relevant to the circumstances of the times. Contingency leadership studies or affectionately known as the Theory of Situational approaches arisen which its center is the main character by Fiedler. This theory holds that there are two essential things that need to

be in the leadership, namely: (1) different situations to be faced with different leadership behaviors, and (2) determine the most appropriate leadership style to specific situations. Thus a good leader according to this theory is a leader who can change the style of leadership in accordance with the existing situation and treat subordinates according to the conditions and characteristics of subordinates who have different needs. Many leadership styles were born from the results from this leadership contingency study. One of the very well known is proposed by Hersey and Blanchard.
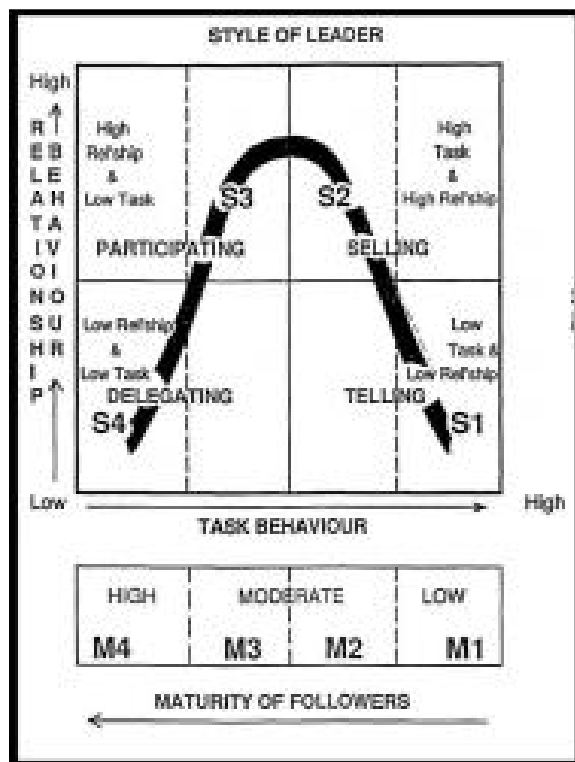
Figure 2.2.
Situational Leadership
(Source: http://www.personalbusinesscoach.co.uk/pictures/news1214333482.jpg)

Subordinate level of maturity or adulthood differentiated into four categories, namely Low (M1), Low to Medium (M2), Medium to High (M3), and High (M4).

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M1: low maturity level, that is, subordinates who lack the ability to work, and no willpower or are unsure of what to do.

M2: low to moderate level of maturity, that is, subordinates who lack the ability to work, but it has the will to carry out tasks (work) have faith in what will be done.

M3: moderate to high level of maturity, which is subordinate who has the ability to work, but lacks the will or feel unsure of what to do.

M4: high maturity level, that is, subordinates who in addition have the ability to also have the will or feel for the work.

The development of theories on the actual formulation is a process of finding the actual system and the right leadership to be applied in the time. In other words, it is an effort for the strategic and effective system of leadership. Nowadays, many experts develop emerging visionary and transformational leadership approach as opposed to transactional leadership.

Many theories have been advanced over the years to explain how leaders lead, whether in schools or elsewhere. Bush and Glover build on the work of Leithwood et al. (1999) to develop a typology of leadership consisting of eight broad theories (Bush and Glover, 2003: 11-22). These are: instructional leadership, transformational leadership, moral leadership, participative leadership, managerial leadership, post-modern leadership, interpersonal leadership, and contingent leadership.

C. Type of Educational Leadership

Many people categorized the leadership into their point of view. Many theories had been constructed and still increasing for tomorrow. Educational leader which based on the power projected in the attitude, behavior, and characteristic of the lead. Properties of leader activities which developed in educational institutions will affect the work situation, the morale of staff members, the nature of human relationships among

themselves, and will affect quality of the work that may be achieved by that institution.

Based on the concepts, traits, attitudes and ways of leadership development activities in the work environment they lead, the educational leadership can be classified into four types, namely the authoritarian, laissez-faire, democracy, and pseudo democracy.

1. Authoritarian Type

In an authoritarian leadership, the leader acts as a dictatorship of the members of the group. He is actuating and forcing the group. The power of authoritarian leaders is only limited by statute. The interpretation as a leader is to direct and command the member. Subordinates or members obligations are to follow and execute his commands and should not be denied or asking for advice. They should be absolutely obedient and loyal to the leader. Authoritarian leaders do not want a meeting or deliberation. Briefing or meeting is only to convey instructions. Any differences between the members of the group are defined as a cunning, insubordination, or violation of discipline, against the orders or instructions that were given. In actions and deeds he can not be contested. Members' initiative and resourcefulness are very restricted, so it was not given the opportunity to issue his opinion. Supervision for the authoritarian leader is meant to control, make sure the members executes the command properly. They carry out inspections, fault finding and researching the people who do not obey and believe to the leader. The members who liable will get a penalty, removed or dismissed from office, and so on. Conversely, people who obediently and submissive, could be a golden boy and even rewarded.

This excessive power could be make the defeatism without critics, the attitude of "anything must do to make the leader happy" and a tendency to ignore commands and duties if there is no direct

supervision. Excessive dominance is easily to pursue the oppositions. It also caused the apathy and other traits of the group members to their leader.

2. Laissez-faire Type

Actually, in this type of leadership, the leader does not provide a leadership. He lets his subordinates run as they want. The leader does not provide control and correction of subordinates work. The division of tasks and cooperation left entirely to subordinates without guidance or suggestions from the leader. Powers and responsibilities are in the maze, scattered unevenly among group members. Thus easily be chaos and clashes. The success rate of the organization or institution solely because of several group members awareness and dedication and not because of the influence of the leadership. Organizational structure is unclear and blurred. All activities carried out without planning and the supervision of the leadership.

3. Democratic Type

Leaders who interpret a democratic type of leadership, it is not as a dictator, but as a leader in the middle of the group members. The relation with group members is not like an employer of labor, but as a brother to his siblings. A democratic leader is always trying to stimulate their members to work productively to achieve common goals. The leader efforts always proceed from the interests and needs of the group, and consider its ability.

In performing his duties, he is willing to accept and even expect the opinions and suggestions of the group. The constructive criticism from his members is admitted as a feedback and taken into consideration in subsequent actions. He also has confidence in his members that they have the ability to work well and responsibly. Leader is always trying to foster a sense of kinship and unity. He always tried to build a spirit of group members in running and developing their resources. In

addition, he also offered an opportunity for group members to have the capacity to lead through delegate some powers and responsibilities.

4. Pseudo Democratic Type

This type is also called as pseudo-democratic or diplomatic manipulation. Pseudo-democratic leader is seems like being democratic, but in fact he is being autocratic. For example, if he has the ideas, thoughts, concepts to be applied at the institution, then it is discussed with his subordinates, but the situation is set and created in such a way that ultimately subordinates urged to accept the ideas, thoughts, concepts as group decisions.

So, with brief descriptions above, the leader considered himself as a democratic leader but actually he is a leader who manipulates democracy. He is embracing apparent democracy. It is more to be an authoritarian leader in the smooth and vague form. It may be carried out without realizing that his action was not the act of a democratic leader.

International Perspective

England Educational Leadeship

National College for School Leadership (NCSL) reported, in England, there are many possibilities for schools and principals to work with others, at individual and institutional level. Many of these strategies have been developed in recent years in the search for system-wide school improvement. These roles can be divided into formal roles which have developed through nationally supported programmes; and more informal roles that are locally developed and are far more fluid, ad-hoc and organic. Flexibility is often an important factor in the development of these system leadership roles.

Among the different system leaders' roles are:

1. *Educational partnerships: Developing and leading a successful educational improvement partnership between several schools, often focused on a set of specific themes that have outcomes reaching beyond the capacity of any one institution. These include partnerships on curriculum design and specialisms; 14-to-19 consortia; behaviour and hard to place students. While many such partnerships are in what is commonly referred to as "soft"*

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organizational collaboratives, some have moved to "harder" more fomalised arrangements in the form of (con)federations (to develop stronger mechanisms for joint governance and accountability) or education improvement partnerships (to formalise the devolution of certain defined delivery responsibilities and resources from their local authority).

2. *Choosing to lead and improve a school in extremely challenging circumstances and change local contexts by building a culture of success and then sustaining once low achieving schools as high valued added institutions.*

3. *Partnering another school facing difficulties and improving it, either as an executive head of a federation or as the leader of a more informal improvement arrangement. Earlier research on executive heads for the NCSL led to the College's advice on complex schools to the Secretary of State: "there is a growing body of well-documented evidence from around the country that, where a school is in serious trouble, the use of an executive head teacher / partner head teacher and a paired arrangement with that head's successful school can be a particularly effective solution, and is being increasingly widely applied".*

4. *Acting as a community leader to broker and shape partnerships and/or networks of wider relationships across local communities to support children's welfare and potential, often through multi agency work. Such system leadership is rooted firmly in the national Every Child Matters (ECM) and children agendas.*

5. *Working as a change agent or expert leader within the system, identifying best classroom practice and transferring it to support improvement in other schools. This is the widest category and includes:*

   a. *heads working as mentor leaders within networks of schools, combining an aspiration and motivation for other schools to improve with the practical knowledge and guidance for them to do so;*

   b. *heads who are active and effective leaders within more centrally organized system leadership programmes, for instance within the Consultant Leader Programme, School Improvement Partners (SIP) and National Leaders of Education (NLE), trained through the NCSL;*

   c. *heads who with their staff purposely develop exemplary curricula and teaching programmes either for particular groups of students or to develop specific learning outcomes in a form that is transferable to other schools and settings.*

(Source: The English Approach To System Leadership in "Improving School Leadership", Volume 2: Case Studies on System Leadership – OECD 2008)

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Evaluation

1. What is an educational leadership?
2. Describe the development of educational leadership theories shortly. Write it down.
3. Distinguish the styles of educational leadership. Write it down.
4. How to apply the educational leadership in international setting?

Chapter 3
Educational Supervision

At the end of this part, students should be able to:

1. Explain the definition of educational supervision.
2. Describe the development of educational supervision model.
3. Identify the techniques of educational supervision.
4. Explain how to apply the educational supervision in international setting.

A.   Definition of Educational Supervision

In our daily talks, supervision founded when someone watches a person or activity and makes certain that everything is done correctly, safely, or well done. Peter Hawkins and Robin Shohet (2006: 225) said that supervision is a quintessential interpersonal interaction with the general goal that one person, the supervisor, meets with another, the supervisee, in an effort to make the latter more effective in helping people. Group supervision happens within a group with a supervisor present. Team supervision is supervision of a whole team working together. Peer supervision happens within a group between peers who supervise each other in a reciprocal way. Unconscious supervision is an unconscious communication from patient/client to therapist, which corrects or affirms what is happening within the work.

Mary Connor and Julia Pokora (2007: 49) wrote that The Association of Professional Executive Coaching and Supervision (APECS) refers to supervision as 'the relationship between the coach and a qualified person who is not in any managerial relationship with the coach wherein the coaching work with particular clients may be discussed in strict confidence with the purpose of enhancing the quality of the coaching work and of ensuring client safety'.

The Association for Coaching (AC) notes that while supervision is a formal arrangement for maintaining adequate standards of coaching provision, 'it is also a supportive process. Supervision has sometimes been called "Super Vision" as a way of demonstrating that it is not restrictive or prescriptive but rather a process for increasing creativity'.

Wiley (2004: 11) said "Supervision is a means of offering to teachers, in a collegial, collaborative, and professional setting, specialized help in improving instruction and thereby student achievement."

We may conclude that educational supervision is professional guidance for teachers. Professional guidance provides an opportunity for them to grow professionally. They are going to advance in their job, i.e. to improve and enhance student learning.

There are several principles that can be used in carrying out educational supervision. They are scientific, democratic, cooperative, constructive and creative.

Scientific includes systematic, objective and instrument usage. Systematic means implemented on a regular basis, planning, and sustainable.
Objective means that the data was based on real observations. Activities of improvement or development based on the results of the needs of teachers or teachers' weakness, rather than based on personal interpretation.
Instruments usage can provide information as feedback to conduct an assessment of the learning process.

Democratic means upholding the principles of deliberation, have a strong hospitality and able to accept others' opinions.

Cooperative means cooperation of all staff in data collection, data analysis and development of teaching-learning process should be done the way cooperation of all school staff.

Constructive and creative mean to assist the initiative of teachers. They encourage teachers to actively create an atmosphere where everyone feels safe and free to develop its potential.

Educational supervisor in a school has his own roles. Laura Pedersen (2007: 4) said that the school supervisor plays three roles:

1. Counselor – participating with the intern in self-exploration; establishing boundaries; becoming aware of one's values and possible biases; and confronting the range of emotions that inevitably occur.
2. Teacher –imparting new knowledge; refining skills as requested by the intern or as the occasion calls for; inquiring about the cognitive theoretical orientation of the intern; demonstrating by example as a role model; assuring the intern has a range of experiences; and observing and providing feedback on performance.
3. Consultant – meeting weekly with your intern; responding to intern special request for a conference to discuss a specific counselee, or approach/technique the intern utilized; emphasizing professional commitment and improvement.

Commonly, the supervisor is a former teacher or school principal. He had been known how to teach and how to lead in the school. As a counselor, teacher, and consultant, the supervisor must have the empathy to develop teacher ability.

UNESCO-International Institute for Educational Planning (2007: 7) said that generally, supervision staff are expected to play three different yet complementary roles, which are quiet evident in the job descriptions. They are, to control and evaluate, to give support and advice, and to act as a liaison agent.

Table 3.1.
Core Functions of Supervisor

Core Functions	Field					
	Pedagogic			Administrative		
	Focus					
	Teacher	School	System	Teacher	School	System
Control						
Support						
Liaison agent						

Adapted from UNESCO-IIEF (2007: 8)

Each of these roles has two fields of application that are not always easy to disentangle, namely the pedagogical and the administrative. Moreover, supervisors can focus either on the individual teacher or on the school as a whole and as we see later on, they can also play an important role in monitoring the system as whole.
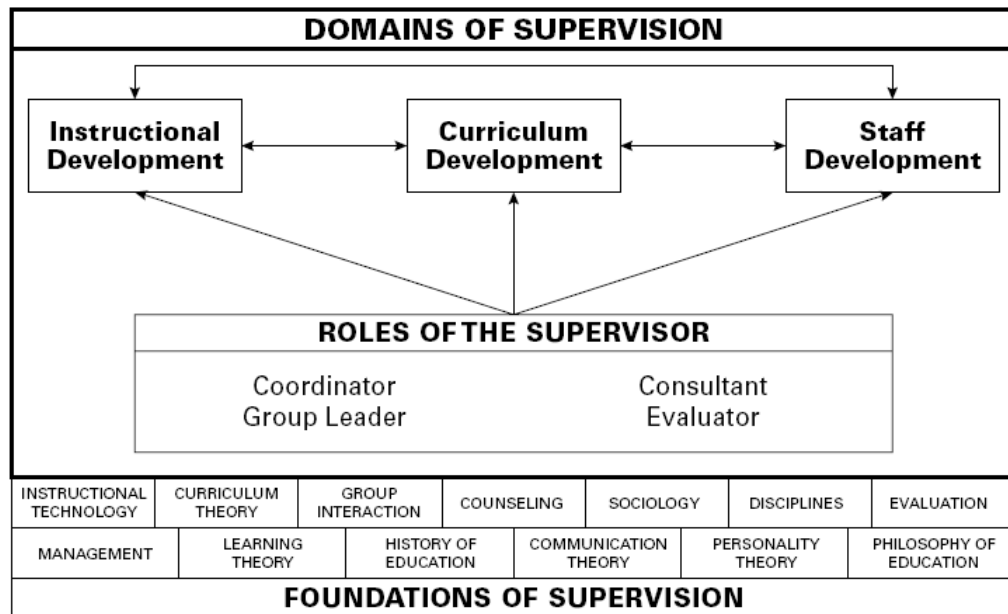

Figure 3.1.
A Conceptual Model of Supervision.
(Wiley, 2004: 21)

Supervision is a complex activity. It needs the supporting discipline. Beside the curriculum knowledge, he needs more the human relation skills. How the supervisor guides the teacher? It is better for us to see the historical development of educational supervision.

Table 3.2.
Major Periods in the Historical Development of Supervision

Period	Type of Supervision	Purpose	Persons Responsible
1620–1850	Inspection	Monitoring rules, looking for deficiencies	Parents, clergy, selectmen, citizens' committees
1850–1910	Inspection, Instructional improvement	Monitoring rules, helping teachers improve	Superintendents, principals
1910–1930	Scientific, bureaucratic	Improving instruction and efficiency	Supervising principals, principals, general and special central-office supervisors, superintendents
1930–1950	Human relations, democratic	Improving instruction	Principals, central-office supervisors
1950–1975	Bureaucratic, scientific, clinical, human relations, human resources, democratic	Improving instruction	Principals, central-office supervisors, school-based supervisors
1975–1985	Scientific, clinical, human relations, human resources, collaborative/collegial, peer/coach/mentor, artistic, interpretive	Improving instruction, increasing teacher satisfaction, expanding students' understanding of classroom events	Principals, central-office supervisors, school-based supervisors, peer/coach/mentor
1985–present	Scientific, clinical, human relations, human resources, collaborative/collegial, peer/coach/ mentor, artistic, interpretive, culturally responsive, ecological	Improving instruction, increasing teacher satisfaction, creating learning communities, expanding students' classroom events, analyzing cultural and linguistic patterns in the classroom	School-based supervisors, peer/coach/mentor, principals, central-office supervisors

(Source: Wiley, 2004: 5)

Supervision has been increase according to many aspects who supporting continuous improvement of teacher. Supervisor must have possession of administrative and curriculum capability.

B. Educational Supervision Techniques

Various techniques can be used in the supervisors to help teachers improve teaching and learning situations. They are group techniques or individual techniques. Then, face to face technique and indirect techniques through visual, audio, and audio-visual communication media. Some techniques can be used by education supervisors.

1. Classroom visits are planned to be able to obtain a description of teaching and learning in the classroom.
2. A meeting between the supervisors with a private teacher to discuss the special problems faced by teachers.
3. Meetings between supervisors with the teachers at school. Usually to discuss common problems related to repairs and also the quality of education.
4. Visits inter classes or inter schools is an activity that is primarily for the mutual exchange of experience among teachers or principals about improvement efforts in teaching and learning.
5. Meetings at working group overseers, the working group principals, and teachers' working group meeting, the central activities of teachers and so on. These meetings can be conducted by each working group or coalition which is mainly intended to find the problem, looking for an alternative settlement, and apply appropriate problem-solving alternatives.

How to implement the teachers' professional services or supervision? These are some alternatives way to supervise them.

1. Classroom visit.
   In this way, supervisor observes the teaching learning process in the class. The supervisors are superintendent, supervisor, or principal. The purpose of this visitation is to know how the teacher doing the instructional in the class. They are some benefits from this visitation. We can know the good teacher instruction which can be developed, we can find teacher weaknesses for improvement, and we can provide corrections as needed.
2. Personal meeting.
   Personal meeting is one method of supervision. Supervisor meets the teacher face to face. This meeting aim is to provide special assistance. This method has the advantages of direct dialogue

and more focused on problems. The obstacle of this method is a little hard to find time.

3. Staff meeting

Supervisors meet the teachers. They provide general assistance. This assistance is provided to all teachers in a one-time general brainstorming meetings. But it is a little bit difficult to determine the time. It also needs longer time.

4. Inter-class visit

Teachers visit other classes in one school. It aims to find out how other teachers teach and manage the classrooms. The advantage is we could know how the other teachers implement the instruction and manage the classroom. The good thing can be used as an example. The bad one can be discussed. The disadvantage is that it can interfere with the teaching and learning activities of other classes, and their own classes are abandoned.

5. School visits

School visit by supervisors is divided into without notice, with notice, and the invitation. Unannounced visit aimed to know the real situation. The good thing is able to provide actual guidance. The disadvantage is considered to be less democratic. School visit with a notice intended to allow teachers to know the intent and purpose of the visit. The advantage is the principal or the teacher can show the results of his efforts. The disadvantage is cannot reflect daily activity. While the visit at the invitation intended that teachers want to announce their achievement. The goodness of this visit is the supervisor can serve their special needs. The disadvantage is the need to provision the right time.

6. Inter-school visit

Teachers are visiting another school. The goal is to observe the activities of teaching and learning in other schools, and also observe the school and class management. We can know how the other school teachers implement the instruction and managing

the school or classroom. The founded good things can be a benchmarking. The bad things can be discussed. The weakness of this method is may interfere with other schools and abandoned their own school.

International Perspective

Core Functions of Supervisor
In Spain, the first function of the Inspectorate Service is to "ensure that the laws, regulations and any other legal dispositions of the educational administration are fulfilled in schools and services". Similarly, in the Netherlands, "the primary responsibility of the Inspectorate has always been to ensure compliance with statutory regulations. This has traditionally been seen as an important way of ensuring that the teaching and training provided within any given sectors is in principle the same.

Tension Between Administrative and Pedagogic Duties
An IIEP study on school functioning in Madhya Pradesh, a State in India, found that 80 per cent of the visits of inspectors were routine inspections of an administrative nature, simply to solve practical problems related to day-to-day school functioning. Likewise, in Bangladesh "about 70 per cent of inspections have been concerned with granting/renewing recognition to schools, 15 per cent with inquiry into allegations, 10 per cent with academic supervision, and 5 per cent with other purposes". Data on Trinidad and Tobago suggest that secondary school supervisors, when visiting school, spend slightly more time on personnel matters (including teacher discipline) and plant matters (including construction, repairs, maintenance and security) than on programme matters (such as curriculum, time-tabling and student-related matters).

The Views of The Teachers
Almost all teachers in Bangladesh also expressed a feeling that supervision staff suffer from an attitude "of a controller and superior officer". According to them, supervisors show little patience and respect for teachers, even in the presence of the learners. Their visits to schools for that reason lead to stress among teachers, rather than helping them to develop their skills. This is also evident in Nepal, where many teachers "perceive supervisors as a threat as they feel could transfer them without good reason". Korean teachers also complain about supervisor' authoritarian and bureaucratic attitudes and their lack of professional knowledge.

Separating Control and Support Roles
South Africa, Malawi, Chile, France, Germany and several stages in the USA, among others, request their supervision staff to focus more on giving support, and thus playing a developmental role. In the mid-1970s in Peru,

special technico-pedagogic adviser posts were created at the levels of regions, zones and nuclei, whose focus was on giving support and support alone. About the same time, similar changes occurred in Venezuela and Costa Rica. In the framework of the Chilean '900 schools programme', supervisors were given specific training so that they could adopt the role of pedagogical guide in the schools. This change from inspector to advisor was well appreciated by almost all supervisors.

The Education Review Office established in New Zealand in 1989 does not play any role in support and advice, but is concerned mainly with monitoring schools. The comparable reforms of 1992 in England and Wales are in part designed to clearly separate the functions of control and support, by prohibiting anyone who has had a close professional relationship with a school from participating in an OFSTED (Office for Standards in Education) inspection. The OFSTED team that visit schools is there to control and not to support. Originally, OFSTED inspection team members were instructed not to engage in any form of advice during their visits –an instruction which has been slightly relaxed since then. This clearly shows that the new system introduced in 1992 represented a change in approach from supporting schools to controlling their results. Not surprisingly, it went together with a reduction of the resources available to local authorities, which used to control and provide support at the same time. A link can thus be noted between increased emphasis on accountability and a trend towards control in school supervision.

De-linking Administrative and Pedagogical Tasks
In Spain, a redefinition of the functions of supervisory staff took place in the early 1990s: "various factors connected with the strengthening of educational administration have tended to eliminate from the Inspectorate many central and long-standing features of their profession, namely planning, distribution of materials, equipping schools, managing teaching staff, control of buildings, selection of teachers, special educational programmes, etc. –all examples of executive areas which have now been assigned to other departments of the administration". This hand-in-hand reformulation of tasks and restructuring of administration has allowed in Inspectorate to focus on its pedagogic duties, both on advice and control. As a result the number of school visits after the reform has increased significantly.

Focus on School rather than on Teachers
In England, the audit, the system of global school inspection by a team of inspectors has been systematized since the School Act of 1992. Each primary school is to be inspected every few years by a full-fledged inspection team. This team covers all aspects of school functioning, from financial management to pedagogical practices. Such school evaluations are related to the formulation of an action plan to address the issues raised in the inspection report. In other countries (such as Korea, Sri Lanka and Chile), similar trends can be observed, although the focus on

school functioning is less systematic and often more support than control-oriented.

Increasing Role of Supervision in System Evaluation
In France, a change in the functions of the General Inspectorate was introduced in 1989 on the grounds that, because of their intimate contacts with school realities, inspectors were the best placed to assess the overall school system in a qualitative way and to produce regular reports on specific issues and challenges. These reports, which are based on specific fieldwork and special school visits carried out by the General Inspectorate staff, have become an extremely important input for decision-making at ministerial-level. Yearly resumes are published for the public at large, which are widely commented upon in the press and are the basis for much political debate.

In England and Wales, OFSTED has been producing an Annual Report on the school system as a whole since its establishment. This report, which is presented each year to the Parliament by the Secretary of State for Education, is largely based on evidence from the year's regular school inspections carried out by inspection teams and by HMI, and also on special research commissioned by OFSTED. In addition to this Annual Report, OFSTED also produces other reports on specific topics such as the ones mentioned above.

Towards More Openness and Transparency
In England, New Zealand, Spain and Sweden, for example, school evaluation reports are accessible or made available to the general public, and in the first instance, to the local school community. The 1998 Education White Paper in Jamaica mentions that the revised Education Regulations will reflect an obligation by education officers to ensure that School Boards are regularly and appropriately informed about assessments of school performance and principal performance.

(Source: IIEF-UNESCO. (2007). *Role and Functions of Supervisors*. Paris: IIEF-UNESCO)

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Evaluation

1. Write down the definition of educational supervision.
2. Describe the development of educational supervision model.
3. Identify the techniques of educational supervision. Write it down.
4. How to apply the educational supervision in international setting?

Chapter 4
Educational Organization

At the end of this part, students should be able to:

1. Explain the definition of educational organization.
2. Describe the structure of educational organization.
3. Identify the pathway, level and type of education.
4. Explain how to organize the international education programme.

A.   Definition of Educational Organization

When we see any situation in which two or more persons are involved in a common pursuit or objective, we may call it organization. Organization is a group of people who work together in a structured way for a shared purpose. It is a based definition of organization.

S. Shajahan (2004: 5) said that an organization is a system of two or more persons, engaged in cooperative action, trying to reach some purpose. Organizations are bounded systems of structured social interaction featuring authority, relations, communication systems, and the use of incentives.

Jerry L. Wellman (2009: 22) said that an organization is for our purposes any systemically arranged group of individuals working toward shared objectives. The individuals may have many objectives, some shared and some not shared, but if they have arranged themselves so as to pursue one or more common objectives, then they are an organization.

A comprehensive organization definition told by Hal G. Rainey (2009: 20) An organization is a group of people who work together to pursue a goal . They do so by attaining resources from their environment. They seek to transform those resources by accomplishing tasks and applying technologies to achieve effective performance of their goals, thereby

attaining additional resources. They deal with the many uncertainties and vagaries associated with these processes by organizing their activities. Organizing involves leadership processes, through which leaders guide the development of strategies for achieving goals and the establishment of structures and processes to support those strategies. Structures are the relatively stable, observable assignments and divisions of responsibility within the organization, achieved through such means as hierarchies of authority, rules and regulations, and specialization of individuals, groups, and subunits. The division of responsibility determined by the organizational structure divides the organization ' s goals into components that the different groups and individuals can concentrate on — hence the term organization, referring to the set of organs that make up the whole. This division of responsibility requires that the individual activities and units be coordinated. Structures such as rules and regulations and hierarchies of authority can aid coordination. Processes are less physically observable, more dynamic activities that also play a major role in the response to this imperative for coordination. They include such processes as determining power relationships, decision making, evaluation, communication, conflict resolution, and change and innovation. Within these structures and processes, groups and individuals respond to incentives presented to them, making the contributions and producing the products and services that ultimately result in effective performance.

B. Structure of Educational Organization

The organizational structure is a form of organization as a whole that describes the unity of the various segments of the organization and functions which are influenced by environmental conditions, size, type of technology usage, and targets to be achieved. Organizational structure will be clear and unequivocal when drawn in a chart or organizational scheme.

The organizational structure is depicted in the map or organization chart or organigramme, which gives an overview of the overall activities and processes that occur in the organization. The components of an

organization structure are given in Baligh and Damon (Baligh, 2006: 33) as:

1. A set of people
2. A set of operating decision variables
3. A set of parameter variables
4. A set of things that are used as rewards
5. A set of assignments each of which pairs a decision variable from the set of component 2 with a subset of people in the set of component 1
6. A set of assignments each of which pairs a parameter variable from the set of component 3 with a subset of people in the set of component 1
7. A set of assignments each of which pairs a reward variable from component described in component 4 with a subset of people of component 1
8. A set of decision rules each of which involves one decision variable from the set of component 2
9. A set of decision rules each of which involves one parameter variable from the set of component 3
10. A set of decision rules each of which involves one reward variable from the set of component 4

Establish a system of relationships within the organization that enables the achievement of communication, coordination and integration of all activities of organizations in both the vertical and horizontal direction, which is an element that is dynamic rather than static.

Organizational schemes provide an explanation regarding the reporting relationship is expressed as vertical lines on the organization chart shows a person who is an office or individual had to report; describe the scope of responsibilities, allocation of duties and responsibilities of each officer within the organization, job title and the line indicating the scope of duties and authority responsibility; describe a position description listing the duties and responsibilities of each position; grouping by function, showing employees with similar jobs are grouped in the organization led by the same boss.

The organization chart showing the organizational structure with boxes or lines are arranged according to position, each of which contains

a specific function, which is connected to each other with lines of authority channels. Usefulness of the scheme or organization chart to determine: the size of the organization; line channels of authority; various units of the organization, the details of a unit of the organization; every position there; details of official duties; name and class rank; number and official photographs; position; assess whether the organization apply the principle of the organization well.

The organization chart showing the organizational structure with boxes or lines are arranged according to position, each of which contains a specific function, each other connected by lines of authority. Usefulness of the scheme or organization chart to determine: the size of the organization; line channels of authority; various units of the organization, the details of a unit of the organization; every position there; details of official duties; name and class rank; number and official photographs; position; assess whether the organization apply the principle of the organization well.

Sutarto (2002: 184), who is Indonesian organization expert, said that level of the organization is divided by the line channels on into this following.

1. Straight down relationship is a relationship between a superior officer with inferior officer, such as command, delegation of authority, control, and direction.
2. Straight up relationship, the relationship between inferior an officer with superior officer, such as reports, submission of accountability.
3. Horizontal relationship, a relationship between equals based officers, such as asking the opinion of the head of advice, ask for consideration colleagues.
4. Down diagonal relationship, the relationship between superior officials with inferior officers from other units, such as requests for assistance from the Head of the A to the performer of the B.

5. Up diagonal relationship, the relationship between inferior officers with superior officials from other units, such as the delivery of information from the operator in unit B to the Head of section C.
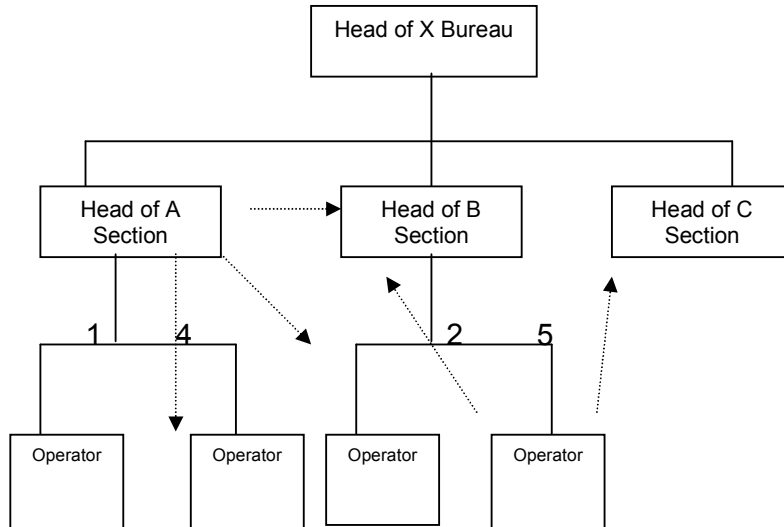
Diagram 4.1.
Organizational Chart

According to Sutarto (2002:71-94), in making the organizational structure, there are units in the organizations. They are leaders unit, bow unit, operations unit, commercial unit, arrangement unit, control unit and consultation unit.

1. Leaders unit, the holder of supreme authority and final charge in the organization, such as universities presidium.
2. Bow unit, the organizational unit conducting the activity makes the rules, basic policies that accommodate the public opinion environment, for example, the university senate.
3. Operations unit, an organizational unit who perform essential activities that directly relate to the achievement of organizational goals, for example, educational management department faculty of education.
4. Commercial unit, an organizational unit who perform essential activities that directly relate to the achievement of organizational

goals that the management is based on economic fundamentals. For example the phone company at the Department of Telecommunications.

5. Unit arrangement, an organizational unit conducting the activity helps the various needs of other units in order to run smoothly, such as the development of personnel bureau.

6. Control unit, an organizational unit conducting the activity check, supervise, and control so that the implementation of activities in accordance with the plans, policies, regulations and intended purpose, such as financial audit.

7. Consultation unit, an organizational unit conducting the activity of providing expertise or advice on another unit, for example, lawyers staff.

C. Pathway, Level and Type of Educational Organization

Education can take place in the family environment, community and school. Education in the family is often referred to as informal education, education in the community are called non-formal education and education in schools called formal education. In terms of legislation, education within the family is part of a pathway out of school education, which emphasizes the cultivation of religious beliefs, cultural values, moral values and skills. In addition to the family, educational was held in the form of out of school pathways. It also held in study groups and institutions courses which organize learning activities or training which could not be hierarchical and continuously.

The education track is held in stages and continuous of education. Level of school education includes primary education, secondary education and higher education. Besides the three levels of education can be organized pre-school education. In the national education system, operator or person having duties and functions directly implement the learning process is called education unit or institution.

Educational pathways consist of formal, non formal and informal could be complementary and enriching. Types of education consist of the general education, vocational education, academic education, professional education, religious education, and special education. The level of formal education consists of primary education, secondary education, and higher education.

Table 4.1.
Classification of Educational Programmes by Level

ISCED-97 Level	Description
0	Pre primary level of education
1	Primary level of education
2	Lower secondary level of education (sub categories 2A, 2B and 2C*)
3	Upper secondary level of education (sub-categories 3A, 3B and 3C*)
4	Post-secondary, non-tertiary education (sub-categories 4A, 4B and 4C*)
5	First stage of tertiary education not leading directly to an advanced research qualification (sub-categories 5A and 5B*)
6	Second stage of tertiary education, leading to an advanced research qualification

* Distinguishing between the destinations that the programmes are theoretically designed to prepare students for

(Source: OECD, 2004: 81)

International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED-97) provides the foundation for internationally comparative education statistics and goes on to set out the definitions and classifications that apply to educational programmes within it. The levels which programmes are assigned within ISCED-97, are as shown on Table 4.1.

The report said that the level of an educational programme should be determined by its educational content. It is very difficult, however, to directly assess and compare the content of the educational programmes in an international comparative way. Curricula are far too diverse, multi-faceted, and complex to permit clear judgements that one curriculum for students of given age or grade belongs to a higher level of education than another. The kind of international curricular standards that would be needed to support such judgements simply do not yet exist. The lack of such information on programme equivalence seriously undermines the international comparability of the statistics and indicators that are analysed

by level of education and this remains a major challenge for future improvement.

Table 4.2.
Description of ISCED-97 Levels, Classification, and Sub-categories

Description of ISCED-97 levels, classification criteria, and sub-categories

0 Pre-Primary Level of Education	Main criteria	Auxiliary criteria	Sub-categories		
Initial stage of organised instruction, designed primarily to introduce very young children to a school-type environment.	Should be centre or school-based, be designed to meet the educational and developmental needs of children at least 3 years of age, and have staff that are adequately trained (i.e., qualified) to provide an educational programme for the children.	Pedagogical qualifications for the teaching staff; implementation of a curriculum with educational elements.			

1 Primary Level of Education	Main criteria	Auxiliary criteria			
Normally designed to give students a sound basic education in reading, writing and mathematics.	Beginning of systematic studies characteristic of primary education, e.g. reading, writing and mathematics. Entry into the nationally designated primary institutions or programmes. The commencement of reading activities alone is not a sufficient criteria for classification of an educational programmes at ISCED 1.	In countries where the age of compulsory attendance (or at least the age at which virtually all students begin their education) comes after the beginning of systematic study in the subjects noted, the first year of compulsory attendance should be used to determine the boundary between ISCED 0 and ISCED 1.			

2 Lower Secondary Level of Education	Main criteria	Auxiliary criteria	Destination for which the programmes have been designed to prepare students		Programme orientation
The lower secondary level of education generally continues the basic programmes of the primary level, although teaching is typically more subject-focused, often employing more specialised teachers who conduct classes in their field of specialisation.	Programmes at the start of level 2 should correspond to the point where programmes are beginning to be organised in a more subject-oriented pattern, using more specialised teachers conducting classes in their field of specialisation.	If there is no clear break-point for this organisational change, however, then countries should artificially split national programmes into ISCED 1 and 2 at the end of 6 years of primary education.	A	Programmes designed to prepare students for direct access to level 3 in a sequence which would ultimately lead to tertiary education, that is, entrance to ISCED 3A or 3B.	1 Education which is not designed explicitly to prepare participants for a specific class of occupations or trades or for entry into further vocational/technical education programmes. Less than 25 per cent of the programme content is vocational or technical.
	If this organisational transition point does not correspond to a natural split in the boundaries between national educational programmes, then programmes should be split at the point where national programmes begin to reflect this organisational change.	In countries with no system break between lower secondary and upper secondary education, and where lower secondary education lasts for more than 3 years, only the first 3 years following primary education should be counted as lower secondary education.	B	Programmes designed to prepare students for direct access to programmes at level 3C.	2 Education mainly designed as an introduction to the world of work and as preparation for further vocational or technical education. Does not lead to a labour-market relevant qualification. Content is at least 25 per cent vocational or technical.
			C	Programmes primarily designed for direct access to the labour market at the end of this level (sometimes referred to as 'terminal' programmes).	3 Education which prepares participants for direct entry, without further training, into specific occupations. Successful completion of such programmes leads to a labour-market relevant vocational qualification.

3 Upper Secondary Level of Education	Main criteria	Modular programmes	Destination for which the programmes have been designed to prepare students		Programme orientation
The final stage of secondary education in most OECD countries. Instruction is often more organised along subject-matter lines than at ISCED level 2 and teachers typically need to have a higher level, or more subject-specific, qualification that at ISCED 2	National boundaries between lower secondary and upper secondary education should be the dominant factor for splitting levels 2 and 3.	An educational qualification is earned in a modular programme by combing blocks of courses, or modules, into a programme meeting specific curricular requirements.	A	ISCED 3A: programmes at level 3 designed to provide direct access to ISCED 5A.	1 Education which is not designed explicitly to prepare participants for a specific class of occupations or trades or for entry into further vocational/technical education programmes. Less than 25 per cent of the programme content is vocational or technical.
	Admission into educational programmes usually require the completion of ISCED 2 for admission, or a combination of basic education and life experience that demonstrates the ability to handle ISCED 3 subject matter.	A single module, however, may not have a specific educational or labour market destination or a particular programme orientation.	B	ISCED 3B: programmes at level 3 designed to provide direct access to ISCED 5B.	2 Education mainly designed as an introduction to the world of work and as preparation for further vocational or technical education. Does not lead to a labour-market relevant qualification. Content is at least 25 per cent vocational or technical.
There are substantial differences in the typical duration of ISCED 3 programmes both across and between countries, typically ranging from 2 to 5 years of schooling.		Modular programmes should be classified at level "3" only, without reference to the educational or labour market destination of the programme.	C	ISCED 3C: programmes at level 3 not designed to lead directly to ISCED 5A or 5B. Therefore, these programmes lead directly to labour market, ISCED 4 programmes or other ISCED 3 programmes.	3 Education which prepares participants for direct entry, without further training, into specific occupations. Successful completion of such programmes leads to a labour-market relevant vocational qualification.

4 Post-Secondary Non-Tertiary	Main criteria	Types of programmes can fit into level 4		Destination for which the programmes have been designed to prepare students		Programme orientation
These programmes straddle the boundary between upper secondary and post-secondary education from an international point of view, even though they might clearly be considered as upper secondary or post-secondary programmes in a national context.	Students entering ISCED 4 programmes will typically have completed ISCED 3. As described above, successful completion of any programme at level 3A or 3B counts as a level 3 completion.	The first type are short vocational programmes where either the content is not considered "tertiary" in many OECD countries or the programme didn't meet the duration requirement for ISCED 5B—at least 2 years FTE since the start of level 5.	A	Programmes at level 4, designed to provide direct access to ISCED 5A.	1	Education which is not designed explicitly to prepare participants for a specific class of occupations or trades or for entry into further vocational/technical education. Less than 25 per cent of the programme content is vocational or technical.
They are often not significantly more advanced than programmes at ISCED 3 but they serve to broaden the knowledge of participants who have already completed a programme at level 3. The students are typically older than those in ISCED 3 programmes.	Programme duration: ISCED 4 programmes typically have a full-time equivalent duration of between 6 months and 2 years.	These programmes are often designed for students who have completed level 3, although a formal ISCED level 3 qualification may not be required for entry.	B	Programmes at level 4, designed to provide direct access to ISCED 5B.	2	Education mainly designed as an introduction to the world of work and as preparation for further vocational or technical education. Does not lead to a labour-market relevant qualification. Content is at least 25 per cent vocational or technical.
		The second type of programmes are nationally considered as upper secondary programmes, even though entrants to these programmes will have typically already completed another upper secondary programme (i.e., second-cycle programmes).	C	Programmes at level 4 not designed to lead directly to ISCED 5A or 5B. These programmes lead directly to labour market or other ISCED 4 programmes.	3	Education which prepares participants for direct entry, without further training, into specific occupations. Successful completion of such programmes leads to a labour-market relevant vocational qualification.

5 First Stage of Tertiary Education	Classification criteria for level and sub-categories (5A and 5B)			Cumulative theoretical duration at tertiary		Position in the national degree and qualifications structure
ISCED 5 programmes have an educational content more advanced than those offered at levels 3 and 4.	Entry to these programmes normally requires the successful completion of ISCED level 3A or 3B or a similar qualification at ISCED level 4A or 4B.		A		1	
ISCED 5A programmes that are largely theoretically based and are intended to provide sufficient qualifications for gaining entry into advanced research programmes and professions with high skills requirements.	The minimum cumulative theoretical duration (at tertiary level) is of three years (FTE). The factury must have advanced research credentials. Completion of a research project or thesis may be involved.	The programmes provide the level of education required for entry into a profession with high skills requirements or an advanced research programme.	B	Duration categories: Medium: 3 to less than 5 years; Long: 5 to 6 years; Very long: More than 6 years.	2	Categories: Intermediate; First; Second; Third and further.
ISCED 5B programmes that are generally more practical/technical/occupationally specific than ISCED 5A programmes.	Programmes are more practically oriented and occupationally specific than programmes at ISCED 5A and they do not prepare students for direct access to advanced research programmes. They have a minimum of two years' full-time equivalent duration.	The programme content is typically designed to prepare students to enter a particular occupation.	C	Duration categories: Short: 2 to less than 3 years; 3 to less than 5 years; Long: 5 to 6 Years; Very long: More than 6 years.	3	Categories: Intermediate; First; Second; Third and further.

6 Second Stage of Tertiary Education (leading to an Advanced Research Qualification)						
This level is reserved for tertiary programmes that lead to the award of an advanced research qualification. The programmes are devoted to advanced study and original research.	The level requires the submission of a thesis or dissertation of publishable quality that is the product of original research and represents a significant contribution to knowledge. It is not solely based on course-work.	It prepares recipients for faculty posts in institutions offering ISCED 5A programmes, as well as research posts in government and industry.				

(Source: OCED, 2004: 88-89)

Education units can be managed by the government or private sector, with implementation to follow the rules set by the relevant technical ministries, the Ministry of Education. In Indonesia, there are also educational institutions regulated by other ministries like the Ministry of Religious Affairs, Ministry of Defense, Ministry of Health and other ministries official in charge of educational institutions. After the educational policy is made by national regulator, it must be implemented in regional and institution level. This called as macro level organization. Continuing

this policy, regional office and school play their role. Theoretically, the unit or educational institution is also called a micro-level educational organization.

General understanding about the board of education is similar to a school board or school committee is the title of the board of directors or board of trustees of a school, local school district or higher administrative level (Wikipedia.org). Peter J. Cistone (2006: 81) said that the board of education may be variously designated as the school board, the board of trustees, the school committee, the school commissioners, the school directors, the school trustees, or the school inspectors.

The elected council helps determine educational policy in a small regional area, such as a city, county, state, or province. It usually shares power with a larger institution, such as the government's department of education. The name of the board is also often used to refer to the school system under the board's control (Wikipedia.org)

Peter J. Cistone (2006: 81) said that notwithstanding the fragmented and decentralized nature of American educational government, local boards of education tend to feature certain fairly common characteristics in their organization, structure, and operation. A recent review of literature on the role and effectiveness of school boards indicated that school boards have typically evinced the following characteristics: local control in response to the specific needs and preferences of the locality, separation of educational from general governance, large districts with small boards, lay oversight with emphasis on policy making and reliance on a professional superintendent for administration and management, and at large rather than sub-district elections or appointments.

Nowadays Indonesia is applying the decentralized governance, includes the education sector. Autonomous management as the demands of educational decentralization in cities put more emphasis on self-reliance in managing and empowering a variety of resources to implement the

policies which are set by central and provincial authorities. Looking at the resources available in the area, then each region differs in handling the affairs of education. This difference was seen in the organizing institution of education managers, while the organizers for organizing educational institutions still adhere to the national provisions concerning the type and level of education.

In the USA, according to National Association of State Board of Education (2011) there is the state board of education. State boards of education play key roles in maintaining and improving the quality of public schools that include the following:

Policymaker: The state board is responsible for policies that promote educational quality throughout the state. In this capacity, the board defines the fundamental mission of the state's education system and develops the system's long-range goals. In order to meet these goals, the board enacts appropriate regulations, lobbies for necessary legislation, develops an adequate education budget, supports local implementation efforts, oversees the state department of education, and regularly measures the performance of the system.

Advocate for Education: The state board serves as the primary advocate for a quality education for all children and youth in the state. As such, the board seeks to promote excellence in the education of all students and advocates equality of access to educational opportunity.

Liaison: The state board serves as a bridge between educators and others involved in education policy. It translates the concerns of the general public, elected officials, business leaders and civic groups into policy and clearly communicates them to educators. At the same time, the board articulates the needs of the education system to the state's public and private constituencies-and helps assure continued citizen support for education at a time when fewer adults have children in school.

Consensus Builder: The state board encourages communication and consensus among all those who seek to influence current state education policies and help formulate long-range policy goals and plans. Although concurrence may not always be possible, a commitment to consensus building ensures that all citizens will be heard. State boards ensure that the public voice is represented in decisions about public education.

Indonesia has the similar board, called as Board of Education and School Committee. Board of Education is the entity that embodies the community participation in order to improve quality, equity, and efficiency of education management at the city. Board of Education acts as:

1. Giving consideration (advisory agency) in the determination and implementation of education policy
2. Supporter (supporting agency) good financial shape, thought and effort in providing education
3. Controller (controlling agency) within the framework of transparency and accountability in the implementation and outcomes of education
4. Mediator between the government (executive) and parliament with the public.

Members of the Board of Education consist of elements of society, and elements of the bureaucracy and legislature. Model relationship with the Board of Education Institutions in the city as follows:

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┌─────────────┐      ┌─────────────┐      ┌─────────────┐
│ Parliament  │......│  Board of   │......│   Mayor     │
│  /Senate    │      │  Education  │      │             │
└─────────────┘      └─────────────┘      └─────────────┘
                       :         :              │
                       :         :              │
                  ┌─────────────────┐   ┌─────────────┐
                  │ School Committee │...│  Education  │
                  │                 │   │   Office    │
                  └─────────────────┘   └─────────────┘
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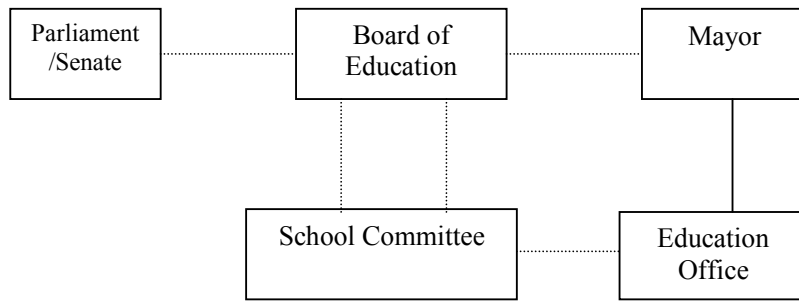
Diagram 4.2.
Organizational Chart of the Board of Education

The School Committee is an independent entity that embodies the community participation in order to improve quality, equity, and efficiency of education management in educational units. School Committee role:

1. Giving consideration (advisory agency) in the determination and implementation of educational policies in education unit.
2. Supporter (supporting agency) good financial shape, thought and effort in providing education in the educational unit.
3. Controller (controlling agency) within the framework of transparency and accountability in the implementation and outcomes of education in the educational unit
4. Mediator between the government (executive) and parliament with the community in education units.

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Evaluation

1. What is an educational organization?
2. Describe the structure of educational organization?
3. Describe the main pathway, level and type of education?
4. Explain how to organize the international education programme?

Chapter 5
Curriculum Management

At the end of this part, students should be able to:

1. Explain the definition of curriculum management.
2. Describe how to organize the curriculum.
3. Explain the curriculum implementation
4. Describe the curriculum development.

A. Definition of Curriculum Management

Before we talk about curriculum management, let's start from curriculum itself. Paul Black (2001: 8) wrote a quotation from the OECD, "The curriculum is a field of enquiry and action on all that bears on schooling, including content, teaching, learning and resources."

He also explained the Kelly's statement (1988) that the most useful definition we could adopt . . . was one which is loose enough and broad enough to embrace all the learning that actually goes on in schools and all dimensions of the educational process.

Black considered the Stenhouse's statement (1975) that a curriculum is an attempt to communicate the essential principles and features of an educational proposal in such a form that it is open to critical scrutiny and capable of effective translation into practice.

David Scott (2001: vii) said that the curriculum is defined in its widest sense, and it refers to programs of teaching and learning which take place in formal settings. Examples of formal settings are schools, colleges and universities. A curriculum may refer to a system, as in a national curriculum, an institution, as in the school curriculum, or even to an individual school, as in the school geography curriculum. The four dimensions of curriculum are: aims and objectives, content or subject matter, methods or procedures, and evaluation or assessment. The first

refers to the reasons for including specific items in the curriculum and excluding others. The second refers to the knowledge, skills or dispositions which are implicit in the choice of items, and the way that they are arranged. Objectives may be understood as broad general justifications for including particular items and particular pedagogical processes in the curriculum; or as clearly defined and closely delineated outcomes or behaviors; or as a set of appropriate procedures or experiences. The third dimension is methods or procedures and this refers to pedagogy and is determined by choices made about the first two dimensions. The fourth dimension is assessment or evaluation and this refers to the means for determining whether the curriculum has been successfully implemented. A range of issues have been surfaced and debated in relation to these four dimensions.

The curriculum can be defined in different terms: as a plan, in terms of experience, as a field of study, and in terms of subjects and grade levels. A curriculum can be described as a plan of action, or a written document, which covers strategies for success toward the desired goal. Most educators agree to this definition, as with most managers are approaching education curriculum due to a managerial outlook or behavior.

The curriculum can also be described broadly, related to the student experience. This view was considered almost all the experiences in schools as part of the curriculum.

It can also be viewed as a field of study, namely as an academic subject that tries to examine and synthesize the main position, inclination, and the concept of curriculum. This view provides a useful framework to help explain the curriculum that have advanced degrees or with multiple subjects in the curriculum.

It can be viewed in relation to specific subjects like math, science, language, history, etc. and grade levels. The emphasis of this point of view on knowledge, concepts, and generalizations of certain subjects or subject

groups such as core curriculum, which combines two separate subjects such as history and language, or in the broad field of curriculum, which combines with a lot of subjects similar to in new subjects like social science, language arts, or general science.

Curriculum is any opportunity to gain experience as outlined in the form of plan used to guide the implementation of learning activities in schools to achieve specific educational objectives. The form of curriculum is could be written and not, as the means, methods, learning environment, and so on.

Some of the curriculum's mediums are syllabus, intracurricula, cocurricula, extracurricula, incidental event, and hidden curriculum. Syllabus is one component of the curriculum as a guideline for teachers in carrying out everyday tasks in the field of teaching in schools. Intracurricular activities are school activities with time in accordance with the program structure such as Science and Social Studies. Cocurricular activities are closely related to the enrichment lessons conducted outside class hours specified in the program structure such as assignment, homework. Extracurricular activities are after regular school hours and not closely related to the lesson at school such as scouts and sports. Incidental activities are not designed undertaken outside normal school hours and not closely related to the lesson at school and can be followed by the school community such as bazaar and seminar. Hidden curriculum is the curriculum which not designed but the effected on students such as teacher discipline and class arrangement.

We can say curriculum management is the application of the type of activities and management functions (planning, implementation, and assessment) in the curriculum. There are three main processes in the curriculum management, curriculum planning, curriculum implementation, and an assessment of the implementation of the curriculum or evaluating the curriculum.

1. Curriculum Planning

Curriculum planning must consider the characteristics of a good curriculum. It through both in terms of content, organization and opportunities to create a good learning will be easily realized by the teacher. In creating a lesson plan such as teaching preparation, syllabus, semester and annual programs, the selection of teaching materials and strategies.

2. Curriculum Implementation

Implementation phase of the curriculum is learning. The activities of curriculum management at this stage are learning management activities, such as through class management. Teacher has the full right to apply the curriculum into the teaching plans. Successful learning is depends on the ability of teachers in the learning process. So, the good teaching plans are still need a good teacher.

3. Curriculum Evaluation

Assessment of the curriculum is intended to see or assess the effectiveness of the curriculum used by teachers who apply the curriculum. Evaluation of the curriculum can be used as a feedback whether curriculum goals are achieved to the highest level. Broadly speaking, the evaluation of curricula in schools can be divided into formative evaluation and summative evaluation. Formative evaluation conducted by the teacher after completion subject studied by students. Summative evaluation is given by teachers after a period of time (semester/quarter).

From the above description can be concluded that the implementation of the curriculum there is need for management because management activities demonstrate ways towards a better implementation of the curriculum. It could reduce the barriers and provide the effectiveness and efficiency towards the achievement of education objectives, so as to optimize the use of various resources in

the implementation of the curriculum. Without any management activities, curriculum implementation activities can be realized but less achievement we get.

B. Organizing The Curriculum

Curriculum components outlined in the objectives, learning materials, learning processes and strategies, instructional media, and evaluation of learning.

1. Learning Objective

The objective of the curriculum or teaching is holding an important role. It will direct all activities of teaching and coloring components other curriculum. Curriculum objectives are formulated based development demands, conditions and community needs. It also based on the thoughts and focused on the achievement of philosophical values, especially the state philosophy.

There is another category of educational objectives, namely the general and specialized purpose, long-term, intermediate, and short-term purposes. National education goals are long term is a general purpose, while the instructional goals are short-term is a special purpose.

2. Learning Materials

Teaching materials are necessary while achieve any goal that has been determined. Teaching materials are composed of topics and sub-specific topics, each topic or subtopic contains the main idea that is relevant to its intended purpose. Topics or sub-subtopics are arranged in specific sequences that form a sequence of teaching materials. There are several ways to arrange the sequence of teaching materials: chronological sequence, causal sequences, structural sequences, logical and psychological sequence, spiral sequence, a series of back, and sequences based on a hierarchy of learning.

3. Learning Processes and Strategies

Preparation of teaching materials is closely linked to strategy or teaching method. At the time of preparing teachers sequences of teaching materials, teachers also have to think of an appropriate teaching strategy for presenting the teaching material. There are several strategies that can be used in teaching such as *Exposition-Discovery Learning, Groups-Individual Learning, Reception Learning-Discovery Learning,* and *Rote Learning-Meaningful Learning.*

4. Instructional Media

Instructional media are all sorts of stimulants and tools which teachers provide to encourage student. The formulation describes a fairly broad definition of media, including various forms of stimulating learning which is often referred to as an audio visual aid, as well as various forms of stimulants presenter tools to learn, in the form of electronic devices such as teaching machines, films, audio cassette, video cassette, television, and computer.

5. Evaluation Learning

The evaluation aimed to assess the achievement of the objectives that have been determined as well as assess the overall implementation process of teaching. Each activity will provide feedback, as well as in achieving the goals of learning and teaching process of implementation. The feedback is used to make various improvements to the determination and formulation of the purpose of teaching, the determination of teaching materials, teaching strategies and media. There are two kinds of evaluation of learning, namely: (1) evaluation of teaching and learning, and (2) evaluation of teaching.

C. Curriculum Development

Watt (1991) in Mary Simpson (2001: 25) said that curriculum development muddled on, targeted principally at the provision of instant assistance for hard pressed teachers rather than deriving from an underlying philosophy based on new objectives.

Table 5.1
Curriculum Implementation

As Instrumental Action	As Situational Praxis
1. Doing curriculum implementation is installing Curriculum X.	1. Doing curriculum implementation is achieving a deep understanding of Curriculum X and transforming it based on the appropriateness to the situation.
2. The interest of the teacher is in placing Curriculum X in a classroom of school faithfully and efficiently (fidelity view).	2. The implementer's interest is in the transformation of Curriculum X within the situation based on disclosed underlying assumptions and conditions that make the transformation possible.
3. The implied view of curriculum is that of a situation commodity to be dispensed by teachers and assumptions consumed by students.	3. The implied view of Curriculum X is that it is the text to be interpreted, and critically reflected on in an ongoing transformation of curriculum and self.
4. The implied view of the good teacher is one who installs Curriculum X efficiently and faithfully.	4. The implied view of teacher is that of an actor who acts with and on Curriculum X as he [or she] reflects on his own assumptions underlying action.
5. To explain "implementation" within this framework is to give a cause effect relationship.	5. The implied form of the theory/practice relationship is that theory and practice are in dialectic relationship. To implement within this framework is to reflect critically on the relationship between curriculum as-plan and the situation of the curriculum- in-use.
6. The implementer's subjectivity is irrelevant, as implementing Curriculum X is seen as an objective process.	
7. The implied relationship between theory and practice underlying this view of implementation is one in which to implement is to put into practice curriculum-as-plan (i.e., to apply to a practical situation an ideal construct).	6. The interpreter's central activity is reflection on his [or her] subjectively based action with and upon Curriculum X.
8. The typical approach to implementation studies is through examination of the degree of fidelity of the installed curriculum compared with the master curriculum. The master curriculum is typically non-problematic.	7. To evaluate implementation

	within this framework is to examine the quality of the activity of discovering underlying assumptions, interests, values, motives, perspectives, root metaphors, and implications for action to improve the human condition.

<div align="center">William. F. Pinar. & Rita L. Irwin. (2005: 118)</div>

Hansiswany Kamarga (2011) said that there are general principles of curriculum development.

1. Relevance. Relevance to the outside: Components of the curriculum in accordance with the demands, needs, development of society. Relevance to the inside: consistency between curriculum components and internal cohesion.
2. Flexibility. Solid curriculum but in practice allow the adjustment.
3. Continuity. The existence of continuity for the students' learning process takes place on an ongoing basis.
4. Practical. Commonly called efficient, low cost can be carried out easily.
5. Effectiveness. High success in terms of both quantity and quality.

Hansiswany Kamarga (2011) also mentioned the specific principles of curriculum development.

1. Principle with regard to educational goals
   a. Provisions/government policy
   b. Survey parents' perceptions
   c. Survey the views of experts
   d. The experience of other countries
   e. Research
2. Principles relating to the selection of educational content
   a. Translation of objectives into a form of learning experience that is expected
   b. Contents include knowledge, attitudes, and skills
   c. Based on a logical and systematic sequence

3. Principles relating to the selection of the learning process

   a. Alignment method selection

   b. Paying attention to individual differences

   c. Achievement of aspects of cognitive, affective, skills

4. Principles relating to the selection of media

   a. The availability of tools appropriate to the situation

   b. Organizing tools and materials

   c. Integration into the process

5. Principles relating to the selection of assessment activities

   a. Compliance with the content and developmental level of
      students

      time

   b. Administration of assessment

International Perspective

Curriculum Audit
The educational performance audit or curriculum audit uses five standards against which to judge school system operations. Each standard is cited with aspects of what an auditor would expect to find if the standard were met. The auditor is American Association of School Administrators (AASA).

Standard 1: A school system is able to demonstrate its control of resources, programs, and personnel.
Expected indicators:
a. A curriculum that is centrally defined and adopted by the board of education
b. A clear set of policies that establishes an operational framework for management that permits accountability, and reflects state requirements and local program goals and the necessity to use achievement data to improve school system operations
c. A functional administrative structure that facilitates the design and delivery of the district's curriculum
d. A direct, uninterrupted line of authority from school board/superintendent and other central office officials to principals and classroom teachers
e. Organizational development efforts that are focused on improving system effectiveness
f. Documentation of school board and central office planning for the

attainment of goals, objectives, and mission over time

g. *A clear mechanism to define and direct change and innovation within the school system to permit maximization of its resource on priority goals, objectives, and mission*

Standard 2: A school system has established clear and valid objectives for students.
Expected indicators:

a. *A clearly established, systemwide set of goals and objectives adopted by the board of education that addresses all programs and courses*
b. *Demonstration that the system is contextual and responsive to national, state, and other expectations as evidenced in local initiatives*
c. *Operations of the system are set within a framework that carries out the system's goals and objectives*
d. *Evidence of comprehensive, detailed, short- and long-range curriculum management planning*
e. *Knowledge, local validation, and use of current best practices and emerging curriculum trends*
f. *Written curriculum that addresses both current and future needs of students*
g. *Major programmatic initiatives designed to be cohesive*
h. *Provision of explicit direction for the superintendent and professional staff*
i. *A framework that exists for systemic curricular change*

Standard 3: A school system demonstrates internal connectivity and rational equity in its program development and implementation.
Expected indicators:

a. *Documents/sources that reveal internal connections at different levels in the system*
b. *Predictable consistency through a coherent rationale for content delineation within the curriculum*
c. *Equity of curriculum/course access and opportunity*
d. *Allocation of resource flow to areas of greatest need*
e. *A curriculum that is clearly explained to members of the teaching staff and building-level administrators and other supervisory/ personnel*
f. *Specific professional development programs to enhance curricular design and delivery*
g. *A curriculum that is monitored by central office and site supervisory personnel*
h. *Teacher and administrator responsiveness to school board policies, currently and over time*

Standard 4: A school system uses the results from system-designed and/or adopted assessments to adjust, improve, or terminate

ineffective practices or programs.

Expected indicators:

a. A formative and summative assessment system linked to a clear rationale in board policy

b. Knowledge, local validation, and use of current curricular and program assessment best practices

c. Use of a student and program assessment plan that provides for diverse assessment strategies for varied purposes at all levels— district, school, and classroom

d. A way to provide feedback to the teaching and administrative staffs regarding how classroom instruction may be evaluated and subsequently improved

e. A timely and relevant data base upon which to analyze important trends in student achievement

f. A vehicle to examine how well specific programs are actually producing desired learner outcomes or results

g. A data base to modify or terminate ineffective educational programs

h. A method/means to relate to a programmatic budget and enable the school system to engage in cost-benefit analysis

i. Organizational data gathered and used to continually improve system functions

Standard 5: A school system has improved productivity.

Expected indicators:

a. Planned and actual congruence among curricular objectives, results, and financial allocations

b. A financial database and network that are able to track costs to results, to provide sufficient fiduciary control, and to be used as a viable database in making policy and operational decisions

c. Specific means that have been selected or modified and implemented to attain better results in the schools over a specified time period

d. A planned series of interventions that have raised pupil performance levels over time and maintained those levels within the same cost parameters as in the past

e. School facilities that are well kept, sufficient, safe, orderly, and conducive to effective delivery of the instructional program

f. Support systems that function in systemic ways

Source: Fenwick W. English. (2006: 256)

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Evaluation

1. What is curriculum management? Explain the definition of curriculum management by your own words.
2. How to organize the curriculum?
3. How the curriculum implemented?
4. How to develop the curriculum?

Chapter 6
Student Management

At the end of this chapter, the students should be able to:
1. Explain the definition of student management.
2. Describe the enrolment management.
3. Describe the student discipline and development.
4. Put the student management in the international setting.

A. Definition of Student Management

Student management is an arrangement relating to students activities, ranging from their enrolment to their graduation. Student management is also regarded as the recording of student activities ranging from the admissions process to students that graduate from school due to graduation or other reasons.

School is providing the best possible service to students since the admissions process until the student leaves the institution or school because it was graduated. Knezevich (Depdiknas, 2007: 8) defines management learner or pupil personnel administration as a service that focuses on regulation, supervision and services students in the classroom and outside the classroom such as: recognition, registration, individuan services such as the overall development of abilities, interests, needs until he is mature at school.

Student management aims to organize various activities of students in the areas of student learning activities in schools in order to smooth, orderly and organized. Some experts argue that the management goal is to create conditions for students' school environment as well as for students to learn in an orderly manner so that teaching objectives are achieved effectively and efficiently. There are three major tasks in the field of management students to achieve the goal of admission, progress learning activities and guidance and coaching discipline.

B. Enrolment Management

Strategic enrolment management is an established concept in education with a respectable body of literature supporting it that involves marketing, recruitment, support, retention, satisfaction and placement of students.

According to James S. Taylor, et al. (2008: 2) strategic enrolment management is defined as "a comprehensive process designed to help an institution achieve and maintain optimum recruitment, retention and graduation rates of students, where 'optimum' is defined within the academic context of the institution".

If one simply looks at the myriad questions an institution might ask itself in order to better understand the broad area of student success, it becomes clearer that the term enrolment is probably insufficient. Examples are shown below:

1. Why do students come to us? Why do others choose not to?
2. What kinds of students are we interested in attracting? Is this what we get?
3. Where can we find these students? How many of them are there?
4. Are our preferred students applying? Are they enrolling?
5. What must we do to attract them? What are they seeking in an education?
6. Do we offer what they want? Do they know this? How are we telling them?
7. What percentage of our students complete their degrees? What percentage of our competitors' students complete their degrees?
8. How can we retain and graduate a higher percentage of our students?
9. How many more students do we have the resources to support?
10. What are the perceptions of current students about their experience here?
11. What is our image? Does it match our strengths and weaknesses?
12. How do our programmes align themselves with future market trends?
13. What recruitment strategies are effective with different student groups?

14. How do we compare with our competitors? What can we learn from them?

We consider these questions to prepare our school to attract the best student. Then, we organize the enrolment process. First, make an organizing committee for enrolment management. Annually, it held at new academic year. This is including student body analysis. Second, announce the open registration for public. This is including the requirement for student candidate, such as National Examination Certificate. Third, select the student candidate. Commonly, it based on the test, such as psychological test, scholastic test, potential academic test, physical test etc. Fourth, announce the admitted students. They must register as a permanent student. Fifth, introduce the school program and environment to the student.

Student placement is the next step of enrolment. Before students are accepted on a school following the learning process, first needs to be placed and grouped in the group learning. Grouping students who performed at the schools are based on the class system.

According to William A Jeager (Sukarti Nasihin and Sururi, 2010: 210) in the group students can be based on:

1. Integration function, the grouping based on the similarities that exist in students. These groupings are based by gender, age and so on. Grouping by function produces learning that is classical.
2. Difference function, grouping students based on differences in individual students, such as interests, talents, abilities and so on. Grouping by function resulted in individual learning.

The small groups in each class can thus be formed based on individual characteristics. There are several kinds of small groups in this class, namely: interest grouping, special-need grouping, team grouping, grouping tutorials, research grouping, full-class grouping, combined-class grouping.

C. Student Discipline and Development

Student administration could be control the documentation of student activities. Sriwati Sunardjo and Budi Agusman Tandjung (2002: 74) wrote a few books which used to control the student activities. They are register book, Klapper book, presence list, students' mutation book, students' personal record book, scoring book, ledger, report cards.

Coaching students can do with the application of discipline. It must be carried out prudently, democratic and educative. This means were carried out in stages with the type of disorder and the culprit. Stepping with prevention through the healing stages, with the emphasis still rests on the substance rather than on student's personality. In addition, it also must keep a sense of love and respect of students not because of hatred or emotional. Discipline is important to realize that the discipline was influenced by various factors, such as the student environment. Therefore, teachers must collaborate with parents to habits of discipline in schools would be maintained better. There are three types of discipline.

1. "Inner Control" Technique

This technique is highly recommended for use in fostering teachers discipline their students. This technique is growing sensitivity or awareness of the discipline. Ultimately discipline must grow and evolve from the learners themselves (self discipline). In other words, students are expected to control themselves.

2. "External Control" Technique

External control technique is a control from the outside the students such as guidance and counseling. This technique is growing discipline tends to "control" (which is sometimes if necessary, gives penalties for any violations).

3. "Cooperative Control" Technique

This technique is coaching discipline by working together. Teachers and students are control the situation towards the realization of educational goals. They mutually control each other for violations.

The other medium to build the student talent is student organizations. Student organization is a medium to hold, distribute and develop the student creativity. This organization consists of curricular and extracurricular activities in order to support a success curricular.

D. Special Service for Student

The next step in the management of student is the development which includes special services. The student services which are required at the school include:

1. Guidance and Counseling Service

Guidance and counseling service is the process of providing assistance to the student optimal development so that he can steer himself in the act and behave in accordance with the demands and the situation of the school environment, family and community.

Guidance function here is to assist student in choosing the type of the next school, choosing courses, employment in according to his talents, interests and abilities. In addition guidance and counseling also helps teachers to customize programs tailored to the talents of teaching students' interest, as well as assist students in adjusting to their talents and interests of students to achieve optimal development.

2. Library Service

Library service is required to provide the supporting learning process at school, serving the information needs and provide recreational services through the collection of library materials. The

existence of libraries is very important because the library is also seen as key in student learning in schools. For students the library can be the materials provider that enrich and expand the knowledge, improve skills, assist students in conducting research, deepen his knowledge relating to the subject of interest, and improve students' reading interest with the guidance of reading, and so on.

3. Canteen Service

Canteen or cafeteria is needed in every school. Children are need for the foods which are clean, nutritious and hygienic, so their health is assured during the school. Teachers can control and consult with the manager of the canteen to provide healthy and nutritious foods. Another role of the canteen in the school, it is make the students do not go around looking for food and not have to get out of the school environment.

4. Health Service

Health services in schools are usually formed in a school clinic. This main target is for increasing or fostering student health and the environment. Health service program through as follows, such as achieve a healthy living environment, providing the health education, maintenance of health in schools

5. Transportation Service

Transportation service means of transport for student as a support to the process of teaching and learning. Transportation services are usually required for students at the preschool and primary education. Operation of transportation should be implemented by school or private parties.

6. Boarding Service

Students boarding services are very useful for those who are far from family and need a place that's convenient for living. Usually that entered into service at the boarding school and college.

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Evaluation

1. Write down the definition of student management.

2. How to process of enrolment management?

3. How to build the student discipline?

4. How to put the student management in the international setting?

Chapter 7
Educational Personnel Management

At the end of this chapter, the students should be able to:

1. Identify the educational personnel.
2. Explain the definition of educational personnel management.
3. Describe the educational personnel management process.
4. Propose a model of educational personnel management in international context.

A. Definition of Educational Personnel

Educational personnel are similar to educational human resource. Many experts used the personnel management term, the others used human resource management. Who are the educational personnel? According to International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) which reported by OECD, said that the classification of educational personnel used is intended to serve as a framework to classify school and other education system personnel for all levels of education (ISCED 0 to 6). The classification is based on the primary or major functions performed by staff and organises them into four main functional categories; three of the four main functions contain sub-functions with specialised types of personnel. In summary, the classification is:

I. Instructional Personnel
   A. Classroom Teachers (ISCED 0-4); Academic Staff (ISCED 5-6)
   B. Teacher Aides (ISCED 0-4); Teaching / Research Assistants (ISCED 5-6)
II. Professional Support for Students
   A. Pedagogical Support (ISCED 0-4); Academic Support (ISCED 5-6)
   B. Health and Social Support (ISCED 0-6)
III. Management/Quality Control/Administration
   A. School Level Management (ISCED 0-6)
   B. Higher Level Management (ISCED 0-6)
   C. School Level Administrative Personnel (ISCED 0-6)
   D. Higher Level Administrative Personnel (ISCED 0-6)
IV. Maintenance and Operations Personnel (ISCED 0-6)

Consider the experts, we could say that educational personnel is divided into two main categories, instructional or teaching personnel and non-instructional or non-teaching personnel.

1. Instructional Personnel
   a. Teacher

   A teacher is defined as a person whose professional activity involves the transmission of knowledge, attitudes and skills that are stipulated to students enrolled in an educational programme. This definition is according to OECD's Indicators of Education Systems (INES) and does not depend on the qualification held by the teacher nor on the delivery mechanism. It is based on three concepts:

   1) Activity, thus excluding teachers without active teaching duties – although teachers temporarily not at work (e.g. for reasons of illness or injury, maternity or parental leave, holiday or vacation) are included.
   2) Profession, thus excluding people who work occasionally or in a voluntary capacity in educational institutions.
   3) Educational programme, thus excluding people who provide services other than formal instruction to students (e.g. supervisors, activity organisers, etc.).

   A classroom teacher is defined as a person whose professional activity involves the planning, organizing and conducting of group activities whereby students' knowledge, skills and attitudes develop as stipulated by educational programmes.

   This staff sub-category includes professional personnel whose primary or major activity involves direct student instruction; special education teachers in whichever setting they teach; and other teachers who work with students as a whole class in a classroom, in small groups in a resource room, or one-on-one inside or outside a regular classroom.

   In short, teacher is responsible to make the learning process with the students.

b. Academic Staff

This staff sub-category includes personnel whose primary or major assignment is instruction or research and so covers personnel who hold an academic rank with such titles as professor, associate professor, assistant professor, instructor, lecturer, or the equivalent of any of these academic ranks. The category includes personnel with other titles, (e.g. dean, director, associate dean, assistant dean, chair or head of department), if their principal activity is instruction or research.

c. Teacher Aides

This staff sub-category includes non-professional personnel who support teachers in providing instruction to students such as teachers' aides and other paraprofessional personnel who are employed on a full-time or part-time basis by an education system.

d. Teaching/Research Assistants

This staff sub-category includes all students employed on a part-time basis (beyond their studies) for the primary purpose of assisting in classroom or laboratory instruction or in the conduct of research. Personnel in these positions are typically graduate students who hold such titles as teaching assistant, teaching associate, teaching fellow, research assistant, or equivalent personnel with other titles.

2. Professional Support for Students

a. Pedagogical Support

This staff sub-category includes professional staff who provide services to students to support their instructional program such as guidance counsellors, librarians, educational media specialists, and attendance officers. In many cases these personnel would have originally licensed as teachers but then moved into other professional positions in education systems.

b. Academic Support

This staff sub-category includes all personnel whose primary responsibility is to support the academic program of students and covers the same categories of staff included under Pedagogical Support (ISCED 0-4), as well as other professional support staff employed in tertiary education institutions.

c. Health and Social Support

This category includes all personnel employed in education systems who provide health and social support services to students such as: health professionals such as doctors, dentists, ophthalmologists, optometrists, hygienists, nurses, and diagnosticians; psychiatrists and psychologists; speech pathologists and audiologists; occupational therapists; and social workers.

3. Management/Quality Control/Administration

a. ISCED 0-4, School Level Management

This sub-category covers professional personnel whose primary or major responsibility is for school management/administration. It includes principals, assistant principals, headmasters, assistant headmasters, and other management staff with similar responsibilities. It does not include receptionists, secretaries, clerks, and other staff who support the administrative activities of the school.

b. ISCED 5-6, School Level Management

This staff sub-category covers personnel whose primary or major responsibility is the management of the institution, or a recognised department or subdivision of the institution. This category typically includes personnel with the following titles or their equivalents, if their primary activity is administrative: president, vice president, dean, director, chancellor, rector, associate dean, assistant dean, executive officer or department head.

c. ISCED 0-4, Higher Level Management

This sub-category covers personnel whose primary or major responsibility is quality control and the management of the education system at levels higher than that of the school. These personnel may be employed by local boards of education, state or regional ministries or departments of education, or by national ministries or departments of education. Their work may involve direct administration or other functions that support the operation of education systems, (e.g., planning, evaluation, budgeting and accounting, public information, etc.). The category includes the following types of personnel: superintendents of schools, associate and assistant superintendents, commissioners of education, associate and assistant commissioners, directors of instruction and curriculum, directors of planning and evaluation, and other equivalent titles.

d. ISCED 5-6, Higher Level Management

This sub-category covers personnel with similar functions described above for ISCED 0-4. It also includes other management positions that are specific to the tertiary education sector.

e. ISCED 0-4, School Level Administrative Personnel

This sub-category covers all personnel who support the administration and management of the school. This staff category includes receptionists, secretaries, typists and word processors, bookkeepers and clerks, photocopying assistants, etc.

f. ISCED 5-6, School Level Administrative Personnel

This sub-category covers all personnel with similar functions described above for ISCED 0-4 and other personnel who support the administrative/management functions of the institutions. These other personnel include: accountants, analysts, auditors, computer programmers, systems analysts, evaluators, financial aid officers, grant developers, lawyers, network administrators, public

relations/informational services officers, registrars, and others with similar functions and responsibilities.

g. All ISCED levels, Higher Level Administrative Personnel

This sub-category covers who support the administrative/management functions of the education system at levels higher than that of the school. These personnel may be employed by local boards of education, state or regional ministries or departments of education, or by national ministries or departments of education.

B. Definition of Educational Personnel Management

Management personnel are all structuring process that has to do with the problem of obtaining and using the workforce to and in educational institutions efficiently, to achieve educational goals that have been predetermined.

Personnel management is an overall effort to improve the efficiency, effectiveness, and degree of professionalism. Personnel management is through of the implementation of tasks, functions and duties of personnel including planning, procurement, quality development, placement promotions, remuneration, welfare, and dismissal.

This process should be includes utilization of personnel management, capacity building, and fostering a productive work environment personnel to obtain and retain competent and motivated personnel in the organization.
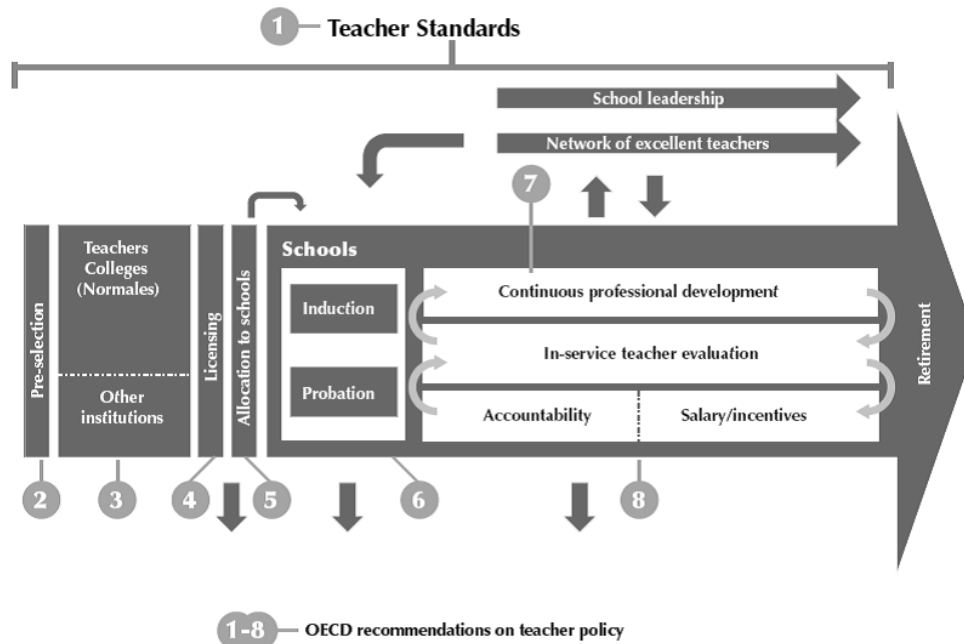
Figure 7.1.
OECD Recommendation on Teacher Policy
(OECD, 2010: 70)

According to Fred C. Lunenburg (2006: 750) the personnel management process consists of the following steps: (a) recruitment, (b) selection, (c) staff development, and (d) performance appraisal.

C. Educational Personnel Recruitment

Recruitment is based on personnel planning. Needs analysis carried out by personnel load calculation by the number of personnel who work there now. When is a lack of personnel, we conducted this recruitment.
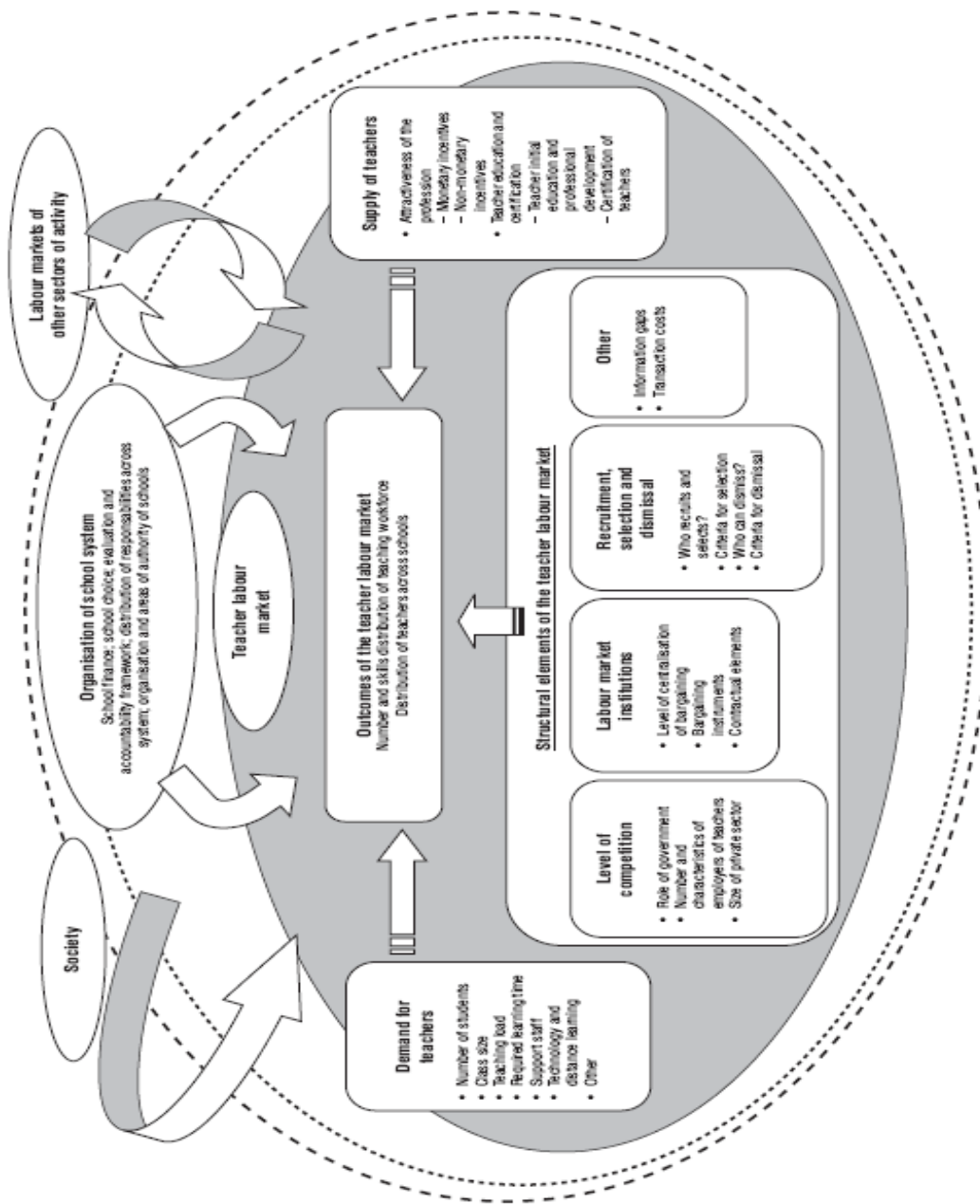
Figure 7.2.
Framework for the teacher labour market
(reproduced from Santiago (2004) quoted by OECD)

William B. Castetter (1996: 86) said that recruitment is refers to those
activities in personnel administration designed to make available the

numbers and quality of personnel needed to carry on the work of the school system.

Teacher and educational personnel recruitment is made to obtain educational staff needed to fill certain positions are still vacant, whether as a result of the formation of new units and as a result of the mutation. Recruitment is an effort to manage the composition of teachers in a balanced manner in accordance with the demands of the educational program implementation through the selection.

Determine vacancies

Derived from organizational objectives and HR plan

Consider sources

- Government agencies
- Institutional agencies
- Private agencies
- Press advertisement

Prepare and publish information

Job advertisement	Application form
• The organization • The job • Qualifications and experience • Rewards and opportunities • Conditions • Method of application	• Personal details • Education and qualifications • Professional qualifications • Employment record • Spare-time activities • Health • Conduct • Additional information • Referees, etc.

Notify applicants

Figure 7.3.
A Summary of the Recruitment Process
(Source: Shaun Tyson, 2006).

According to William B. Castetter (1996: 125), activities in the recruitment process are guided by and coordinated with previously established human resources strategy, personnel development, and selections plans. The human resources plan determines the number of positions to be filled throughout the planning period; the development plan indicates the potential of current personnel to fill certain vacancies; and the selection process focuses on eliminating applicants who do not meet position requirements.
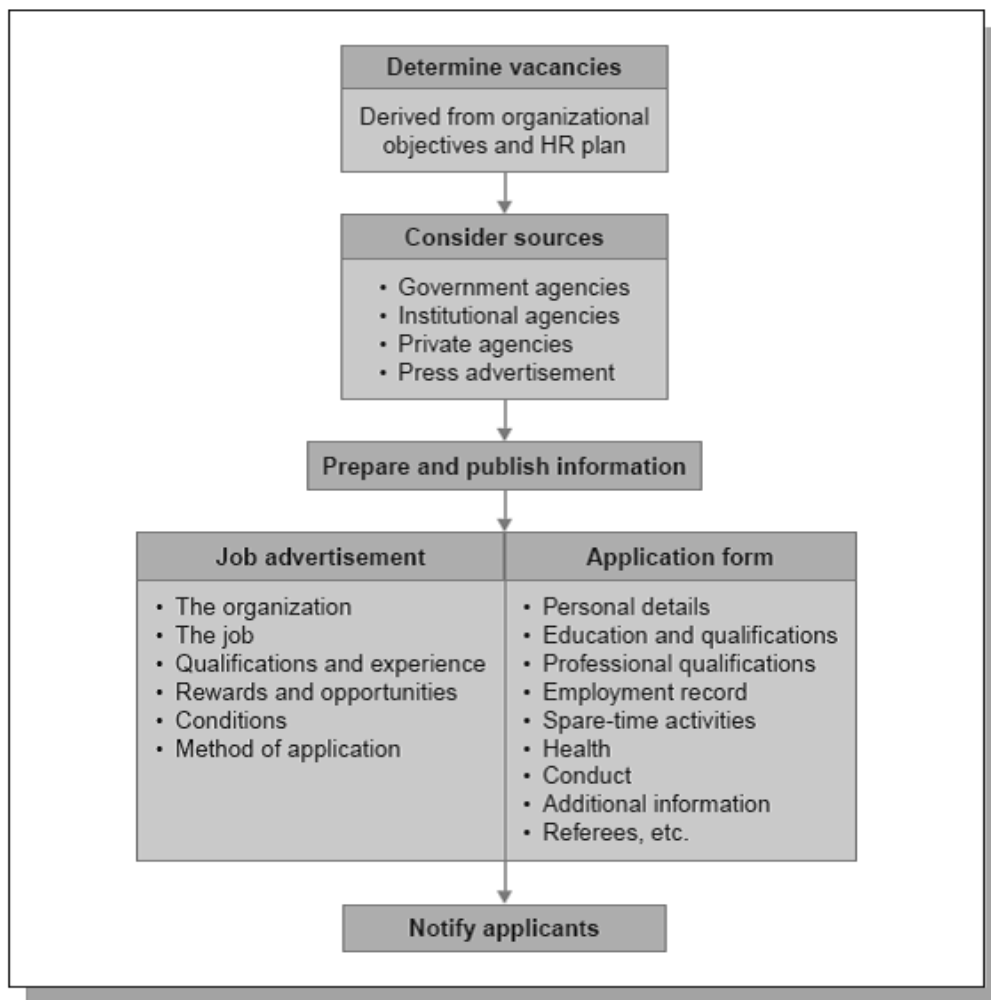
There are several important steps in the hiring process as a continuation of this educational personnel planning. For each step of course will obviously always related to the effectiveness of selection is held.

According to Fred C. Lunenburg (2006: 748) recruitment is the process of attracting a pool of qualified applicants to replenish or expand a school's human resources. To effectively recruit applicants, leaders must (a) have a thorough analysis of job requirements, (b) know the legal constraints that influence recruiting efforts, and (c) cultivate the sources of potential employees.

Recruitment process take the following steps, first, spread the announcement about the needs of educational staff in different types and qualifications as the planning process that has been set. Second, open the registration for the applicant or in accordance with the requirements set out both the requirements of administrative and academic. All three tests conducted by standard selection and using selection techniques or particular ways needed.

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┌──────────┬──────────────┬──────────────┬──────────────┐
│          │              │              │              │
┌──────────┐  ┌──────────┐  ┌──────────┐  ┌──────────┐
│Applicant │→ │Preselect.│→ │Selection:│→ │Postselect│
│Pools     │  │Phase 1   │  │Phase 2   │  │Phase 3   │
└──────────┘  └──────────┘  └──────────┘  └──────────┘
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| Applicant Pools | Preselection: Phase 1 | Selection: Phase 2 | Postselection: Phase 3 |

| Professional Teaching Professional Administrative-Supervisory Professional Technical Support | Selection Policy and Procedural Decisions | Application of Selection-Decision Rules Established in Phase 1 | Rejected Applicants |
| | | | Accepted Applicants: Eligible List, Employment Offer, Contract, Placement |

Figure 7.4.
Model of the Human Resources Selection Process
(Castetter, 1996: 140)

Standard selection is usually related to age, physical health, education, experience, goals, temperament, general knowledge, communication skills, motivation, interests, attitudes, values, mental health, decency work in education, and so on.

	Eligibility criteria	Recruitment procedures		What criteria are used in the selection of teachers?
		Level responsible for recruitment	Procedure (competitive examination, candidate list, open recruitment)	
Australia	Registration with relevant State Teaching Council	It varies, usually either central authority or school or a combination of both	Depending on the position, a combination of candidate list and open recruitment	Varies according to jurisdiction including a combination of interpersonal and other skills assessed in interview; teaching skills, subject specialty, academic performance, qualitative analysis of past experience (usually including written applications addressing various selection criteria), location prepared to work in, date of application
Austria	None	Central/regional school authority	Candidate list	Subject specialty and teaching skills
Belgium (Fl.)	None	School governing authority	Open recruitment	At the discretion of school
Belgium (Fr.)	None	Central/regional education authority Municipal/local education authority School governing authority	Candidate list	Subject specialty; date of application; interpersonal and other skills assessed in interview
Canada (Qb.)	Sometimes, ICT skills	Local education authority	Open recruitment by local education authority	Academic performance; prior experience as an intern; subject specialty; teaching skills; interpersonal skills
Chile	None	Municipal education authority	Open recruitment	At the discretion of the employer
Denmark	None	Municipal/local education authority School governing authority	Open recruitment	Qualitative analysis of past experience; interpersonal skills; subject specialty; postgraduate qualifications
Finland	None	Municipal education authority	Open recruitment	Criteria decided by the municipal educational authority and school principals, but likely to include: academic performance, teaching skills, teaching experience, and interpersonal skills
France	None	Primary level: Regional education authority Sec. level: Central education authority	Competitive examination	Results on (written and oral) competitive examination
Germany[1]	Age restriction (for civil servants, maximum age of 50)	Regional education authority Local education authority	Candidate list	Academic performance; subject specialty
Greece	None	Central education authority	Competitive examination and candidate list[2]	Academic performance (grade of university degree and qualification examinations); postgraduate qualifications; teaching experience; and date of application for candidate list process
Hungary	None	School principal	Open recruitment	Academic performance; qualitative analysis of past experience; subject specialty; and interpersonal and other skills assessed in interview
Ireland	Registration with Registration Council (for voluntary secondary sector)	Local education authority School governing authority	Open recruitment	Selection on the basis of an interview, which considers the following: academic achievement, past experience, subject specialty, teaching skills (e.g. as assessed during initial teacher education or probationary process), postgraduate qualifications, interpersonal and other skills
Israel	None	Central education authority Local education authority School governing authority	Candidate list; Open recruitment (upper sec. education only)	Academic performance; qualitative analysis of past experience; subject specialty; teaching skills; interpersonal and other skills assessed in interview
Italy	None	Central/regional school authority	Competitive examination and candidate list	Qualification examinations; teaching experience
Japan	None	Municipal/local education authority	Competitive examination Candidate list Open recruitment	Academic performance; teaching skills; interpersonal and other skills assessed in interview
Korea	Age restriction	Regional school authority	Competitive examination	Academic performance (including qualification examinations); teaching skills; subject specialty; interpersonal and other skills assessed in interview; professional certificates (e.g. English, ICT)
Netherlands	None	School authority (principal)	Open recruitment	Interpersonal and other skills assessed in interview
Slovak Republic	None	School principal	Open recruitment	Teaching and pedagogical skills; interpersonal and other skills
Sweden	None	School principal	Open recruitment	Academic performance; qualitative analysis of past experience; subject specialty; postgraduate qualifications; interpersonal and other skills assessed in interview
Switzerland	None	Municipal/local education authority	Candidate list	Grade obtained at teacher education institution; qualification examinations; qualitative analysis of past experience; subject specialty; teaching skills; interpersonal and other skills assessed in interview; postgraduate qualifications (less often)
United Kingdom (Eng.)	Skills tests in literacy, numeracy and ICT; Registration with General Teaching Council	School governing authority for voluntary aided and foundation schools; local education authority for all other schools	Open recruitment	Matter for employer but likely to include past experience, interpersonal skills, qualifications and subject specialism. Could include teaching skills in demonstration class
United Kingdom (N.Irl.)	m	m	At the discretion of the employer	m
United Kingdom (Scot.)	Registration with Teaching Council	Municipal/local education authority	Open recruitment	Academic performance; qualitative analysis of past experience; subject specialty; teaching skills (e.g. as assessed in demonstration class or from initial teacher education); postgraduate qualifications; interpersonal and other skills assessed in interview
United Kingdom (Wal.)	Registration with Teaching Council	School governing bodies or local education authorities depending on type of school	Open recruitment	Matter for employer but likely to include past experience, interpersonal skills, qualifications and subject specialism. Could include teaching skills in demonstration class.
United States[3]	Skills tests in literacy and numeracy	Local education authority (school district), occasionally the school	Open recruitment; some states require a licensing exam	Review of university coursework; possession of a degree in subject matter to be taught; performance during an interview; academic credentials (grade of university degree and qualification exams) are given less consideration

Definitions: This table deals with the formal procedures used to recruit and select individuals into the teaching profession, for a first appointment. It includes the application process, the recruitment method and the criteria used to select new teachers from a pool of applicants. *Eligibility criteria* refer to the criteria that individuals need to meet to become eligible for a teaching post. The difference vis-a-vis the selection criteria of the last column is that eligibility criteria are specific to the candidate (*i.e.* criteria that need to be met regardless of the characteristics of other candidates) while selection criteria are used to compare characteristics of the different candidates. Only eligibility criteria other than the following were entered: qualifications to be a teacher; citizenship criteria; proficiency in the language(s) of instruction; personal integrity (e.g. no criminal record); and good medical condition.
The term "competitive examination" is used to designate public, centrally organised examinations and other assessments that are held to select candidates for the teaching profession. A candidate list is a system whereby applications for employment as a teacher are made through submitting candidates' names and qualifications to a central or local educational authority, candidates being ranked on the basis of a number of criteria. The term "open recruitment" refers to the method of recruitment where responsibility for publicising posts open for recruitment, requesting applications and selecting candidates is decentralised. In this case, recruitment is usually the responsibility of the school, sometimes in conjunction with the local authority; the process of matching those teachers seeking employment with available teaching posts taking place on a school-by-school basis.
Notes: m Information not available.
1. Information refers to the majority of posts, for which recruitment procedures are centralised. A growing number of posts are being filled through the direct involvement from the school.
2. 75% of *permanent* teachers are selected by competitive examination and 25% by candidate list. Temporary and hourly-based teachers are selected from candidate lists.
3. Policies vary by school district (municipal education agencies) and it is difficult to express the average for the country as there are 15 000 school districts and no uniform policies.
Source: Derived from information supplied by countries participating in the project. The table should be interpreted as providing broad indications only, and not strict comparability across countries.

D. Educational Personnel Development

After the recruitment and placement of personnel, the next phase is development. According to William B. Castetter (1996: 226), the human resources function does not halt its activities when vacancies have been filled –it must concern itself with the destiny, productivity, and need satisfaction of people after they are employed. This involves activities relating to staff development, health, tenure, leaves of absence, substitute service, employee associations, grievances, and retirement.

The personnel development is preeminent among those processes designed by the system to attract, retain, and improve the quality and quantity of staff member needed to solve its problems and to achieve its goals. (Castetter, 1996: 232). The process of staff development is vitally linked to human resources planning because, as it will be recalled, a sound human resources plan calls for:

1. Improving the performance in their present positions of all incumbent position holders.
2. Developing key skills of selected personnel so as to fill anticipated vacancies.
3. Promoting the self-development of all personnel in order to enhance their influence as individuals and to facilitate need satisfaction.
4. Provide a basis for indentifying and developing successors in each employee group –from executives to support personnel – across the school system.

The personnel development is basically because of the new task, position, tools, and methods which is needs some skill enrichment. Personnel development is including the career. Personnel development embraces both short and long range activities; each has different objectives, involves different levels of personnel, and addresses itself to a

variety of ways for conceptualizing and organizing the personnel development function. A need of development is defined as a discrepancy between an actual and desired state. Objectives are the counterpart of needs and are employed to translate problems into programs.

According to Fred C. Lunenburg (2006: 750), schools recruit and select people who match their job specifications as closely as possible, but the match is seldom perfect. Usually staff at all levels—maintenance, service, clerical, and professional—need to be taught how to apply their abilities to the requirements of the specific job. This instruction, which teaches new employees the skills they need, is known as training.

Development usually refers to teaching experienced professionals how to maintain and even improve those skills. The training and development of faculty and staff is essentially a four-step process: (1) assessing needs, (2) setting objectives, (3) selecting methods, and (4) evaluating the program.
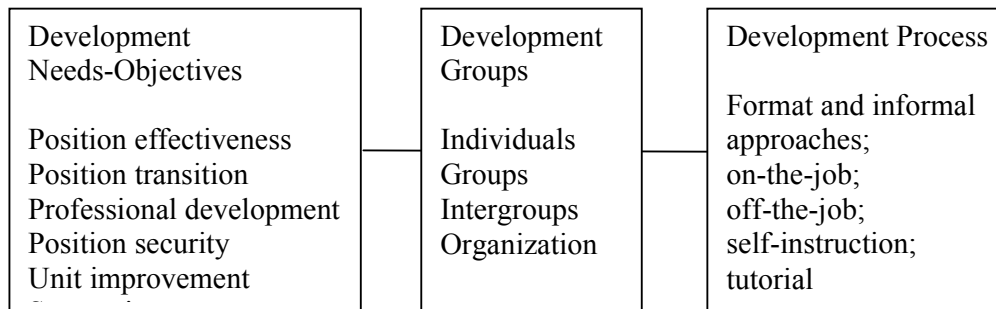
Development Needs-Objectives	Development Groups	Development Process
Position effectiveness Position transition Professional development Position security Unit improvement	Individuals Groups Intergroups Organization	Format and informal approaches; on-the-job; off-the-job; self-instruction; tutorial

Figure 7.2.
A Typology of Personnel Developmet
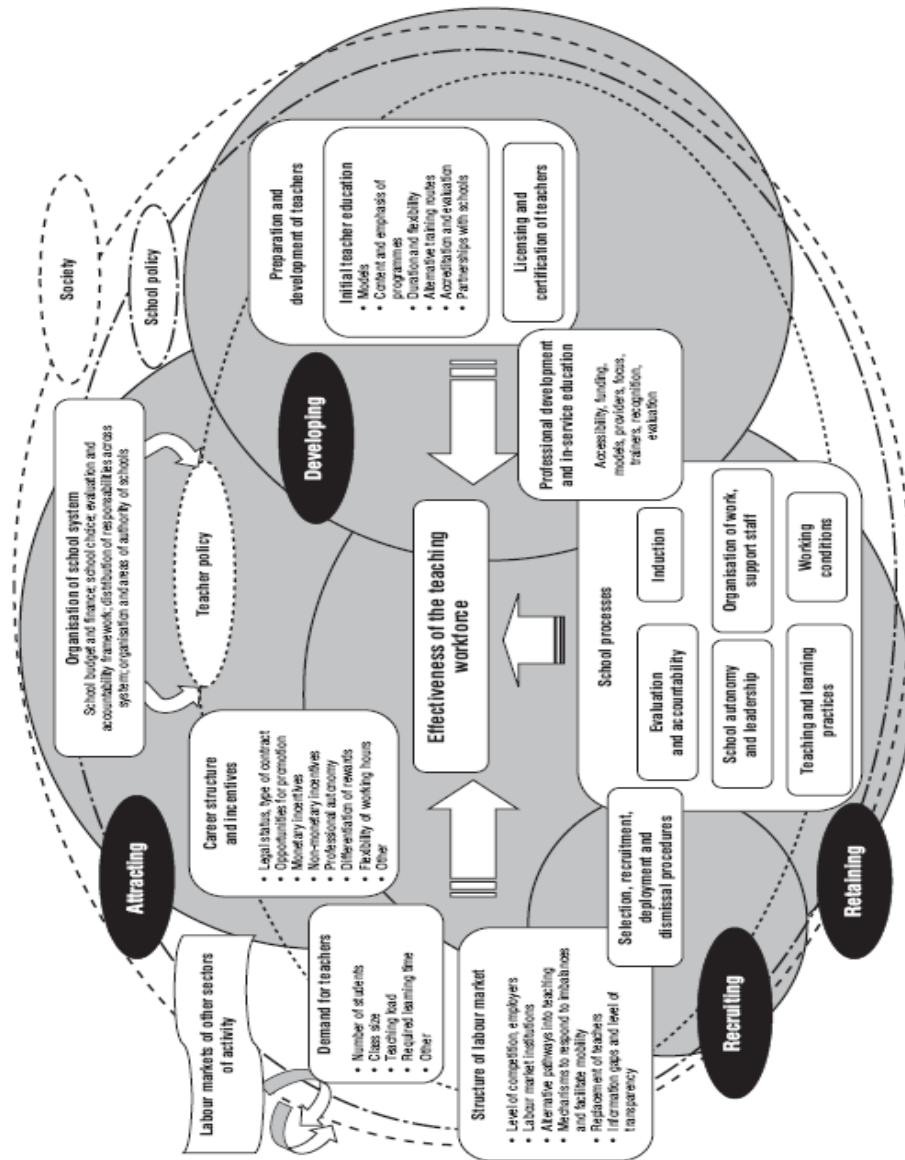(Castetter, 1996:233)

Figure 7.3.
Conceptual Framework for the Development Activity

Personnel development is the process of personnel improvement through approaches that emphasize self-realization, self-growth, and self-development. Development includes those activities aimed at improvement and growth of abilities, attitudes, skills, and knowledge of system members.

The integrated personnel development consists of individual, group and institutional aims. OECD is relating the teacher professional development into labour market, school policy, and national demand of teacher. Personnel development is divided into four phase. First, diagnosing development needs. Second, design of development plans. Third, implementing development programs. Fourth, evaluating the personnel development program.

A popular way in developing the educational staff is through upgrading, both in order to refresh and in order of increasing capability. Other ways to do such as seminars, workshops, panel discussions, meetings, symposia, conferences and so forth.

E.   Educational Personnel Dismissal

Dismissal of educational personnel is a process that makes the personnel can no longer perform the job duties or functions of his office either temporarily or for a while. These are the reasons of dismissal:

1. Own request to stop.
2. Reaches the retirement age according to applicable regulations.
3. The existence of simplification of the organization that led to simplification of the task on the one hand being on the other hand earned surplus labor.
4. Fraud or criminal conduct.
5. Not quite capable physically or spiritually.
6. Leaving the task within a specified period as a violation of applicable regulations.
7. Died or lost as declared by the competent authority.

In a good education personnel management system, there are the procedures that must be taken. All of this is required to provide collateral for their rights as well as educational staff to ensure validity of all provisions established organization.

Dismissal process is actually closely related to the appreciation of the existence of educational personnel in supporting the achievement of educational goals. In other words, organization is paying attention to many aspects when the individual is unable to work anymore for various reasons. After the dismissal, it could be followed by provision of severance pay or pension according to the provisions or agreements. This is in line with the rights of workers who had served, so the work becomes an important consideration.

International Perspective

Teacher Demand and Supply: Improving Teaching Quality and Addressing Teacher Shortages

1) *This report is about the management of teacher demand and supply at the pre-tertiary level. It proposes a conceptual framework for distinguishing among, defining, and relating, the various aspects involved in the management of teacher demand and supply. The ultimate goal, in this context, is considered to be the improvement of the quality of the teaching. Five main areas are involved: "demand for teachers", "potential supply of teachers", "structural elements shaping the market for teachers", the subsequent "current teaching force", and "teaching quality" resulting from the interaction between "teacher quality" and "teaching environment". A second purpose, following the identification of the main policy issues, is to provide an account of current empirical evidence on issues relevant for the management of teacher demand and supply. A final goal is to assess the current availability of data on teachers at OECD and to identify a comprehensive set of data elements relevant for a meaningful future quantitative analysis.*

2) *The investigation carried out in this report resulted in one crucial finding: teacher quality is a critical factor in determining student learning. Therefore, the recruitment and retention of good quality teachers is key to the improvement of school systems. This reality gains even more importance given the widespread belief that several countries in the OECD area suffer from shortages of teachers. It is the case that in a great number of countries the age profile of teachers is skewed towards the older end of the agerange and signs point to a recent worsening of the situation. As a consequence, the future*

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teacher supply is likely to be affected, as proportionately more teachers reach retirement in a given year. In addition, the relative attractiveness of the profession, as far as the salary dimension is concerned, has declined substantially in the most recent years. Other evidence indicates that, at least in some countries, a substantial share of the teaching workforce does not hold a regular teaching license and the proportion of "out-offield" teaching assignments is strikingly high in many subject key areas. In light of these trends, it seems amply justified the development of an investigation on what could be the best strategies for the management of the demand and supply of teachers. In this report, it was possible to identify some empirical evidence that helps us in defining a broad set of policies that should be given serious consideration in the management of teacher demand and supply.

3) *An important finding is the fact that policy tools on the demand side look far less promising in improving student outcomes than policy tools used on the supply side or on the structure of markets for schooling. Specifically, evidence suggests that the impact of across-the-board class size reductions – the main policy tool on the demand side – is small and very expensive. Considering the facts that class size reductions are beneficial in specific circumstances (for example, in lower grade levels or for lower-income and more disadvantaged students) and that broad reductions are very expensive, there is an increasing consensus around the idea that class size reductions should be targeted at those that benefit the most. It turns out that the impact of policies on the supply side (for example, policies improving the attractiveness of the teaching profession) and on the structure of markets for schooling (for example, policies decentralising decision-making) looks more promising in improving teaching quality.*

4) *Evidence on the career decisions of potential teachers, teachers, and former teachers shows that they do respond to incentives. Salaries and opportunity costs strongly influence who goes into teaching, who stays in teaching, and who returns to teaching after a career interruption. Others factors, such as opportunities in the teaching career, working conditions, teacher training and certification procedures, and the status of the profession also play a very relevant role in the supply decisions of potential teachers. In addition, other evidence shows that responsiveness to incentives greatly depends on personal characteristics. The teacher's probability of exiting the profession is higher in the first few years of the career. More academic able teachers and those working in subject areas which provide more opportunities outside education are more likely to leave the profession and less likely to come back once they leave. Another important aspect is that women and men respond differently to incentives. These facts have important implications for the formulation of policies.*

5) *The policy making challenge is to design incentives to attract effective candidates and former teachers to the pool of those who want to teach, exclude from the pool those who lack the skills to teach, and*

retain the good quality teachers currently in the profession. In accomplishing this goal, educational administrators need to devise an incentive structure that shapes the teaching workforce with the appropriate distribution of experience and qualifications. For example, taken into account that young talented teachers leave the profession at higher rates, the wage structure should aim at reducing teacher attrition in the early years of teachers' careers. Also, since the recruitment of women is vital to the maintenance of the labour force in teaching, the incentive structure should take into account that women many times leave the profession for family reasons. It would thus be pertinent to increase the "flexibility" of the profession or provide services such as child-care.

6) *In turn, teacher training and certification also have an important role to play. Aspiring teachers need incentives to undertake high-quality training and it would be desirable to introduce licensing requirements that discourage those who lack the skills necessary to teach effectively. In this domain, reforms might include higher admission standards for teacher education programmes, more rigorous course content, and basic skills and subject matter competency testing for teacher certification. The policies can be complemented by the relaxation of licensing requirements for individuals demonstrating promise in other ways. Likewise, professional development has been identified as a powerful resource in providing opportunities for more experienced teachers to gain new skills and thus should be used as an important tool in retention policies. Moreover, many studies emphasise the fact that it is desirable that efforts be undertaken to enhance the public image of the teaching career. This would essentially mean empowering teachers and give schools more autonomy.*

7) *In fact, this report sheds light on the increasing importance of the organisation of schools. It is shown that the organisational conditions of schools have an impact on teacher turnover and that performance-based accountability systems might be a valid option for improving educational outcomes. Policy makers are increasingly advocating the need for decentralising decision-making. Suggestions include that schools be given more authority in the management of issues such as development of own hiring/recruitment policies, definition of salary levels, reward structure, systems of evaluation, or investment in continuing education. In particular, policies leading to the improvement of recruitment practices are extremely relevant as they provide the link between salary schemes and teacher quality. According to the evidence shown in this document, hiring practices can be very inefficient in linking teacher compensation to teacher quality.*

8) *In this way, if schools are to move forward attracting and retaining higher-quality teachers, they will almost certainly have to build in stronger performance incentives for school personnel. This can be part of a wider range of policies introducing elements of competition in educational markets. Besides, the introduction of productivity-based*

incentives and increased autonomy in the management of schools, such elements could include wider choice of schools, pay differentiation to account for shortages in specific subject areas, grade levels, or regions of the country, and schools directly competing for teachers. In this context, the structure of careers could include market-driven compensation, performance-based accountability, multiple career paths, and on-going applied professional growth.

9) *It is widely recognised that incentives are key to results – whether in education or in other aspects of life. And, education policy, in the context of the management of teacher demand and supply, seems to be engaging in a trend of deregulation with an emphasis on a set of mechanisms based on incentives. Along these lines, policy makers stress the importance of explicitly linking such incentive schemes to student performance, the ultimate goal for any educational system.*

10) *This document also sheds light on the current availability of data at OECD and relevant data needs for a future quantitative analysis. The availability of good data is essential for characterising current teaching workforces and for designing policies aiming at improving school systems. For instance, despite the belief that several countries suffer from teacher shortages, little concrete information exists on the exact nature and severity of shortages. The areas best covered by the current availability of data are the demographic profile of teachers, demand-side elements (for example, student enrolment, composition of the school-age population, instructional time required for pupils, teachers' teaching loads, enrolment rates), and compensation of teachers.*

11) *The analysis also identifies several data gaps. First, little or no data are available on flows in and out of the profession. Data elements such as attrition/retention rates, characteristics of leavers, reasons for leaving/entering/re-entering the profession, reasons for dissatisfaction, potential supply of new graduates, potential supply of returnees, or percentage of newly certified teachers that enter the profession are not available. Secondly, no data seem to exist on the outcomes of teacher recruitment processes. Such data would, for instance, consist of the number of "difficult to fill" vacancies, proportion of positions filled by teachers on "emergency certification", proportion of "out-of-field" assignments, or methods used to cover vacancies "difficult" to fill. In addition, important aspects of the profile of the teaching force such as the license status of teachers, percent of teachers without qualifications in their teaching field are not readily available. Other important data gaps include information on teacher training, teacher certification, existence of market mechanisms, teacher recruitment practices, organisational structure of schools, professional development activities, teaching and learning practices, standards and assessment practices, and partnerships.*

Source and further reading: Santiago, P. (2002), "Teacher Demand and Supply: Improving Teaching Quality and Addressing Teacher Shortages", OECD Education Working Papers, No. 1, OECD Publishing. http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/232506301033

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Evaluation

1. Who are the educational personnel?
2. What is the educational personnel management? Explain it.
3. How is the educational personnel management process?
4. Mention your mind on educational personnel management in the international context.

Chapter 8

Educational Facility Management

At the end of this chapter, the students should be able to:
1. Explain the definition of educational facility management.
2. Describe the facility procurement.
3. Describe the facility maintenance.
4. Describe educational facility management in the international setting.

A. Definition of Educational Facility

Educational equipment can be divided by their function. They are learning tools, teaching aids and instructional media. Educational facilities can be classified into two kinds. First, the facility which is directly used for teaching and learning process is such as the classroom, the library, practice room, and laboratory. Second, the infrastructure which is not used for teaching and learning process but indirectly supporting the learning process such as office room, the principal's office, staff room, toilets, and school canteen.

Peter Barrett & David Baldry (2004: xiii) said 'An integrated approach to maintaining, improving and adapting the buildings of an organisation in order to create an environment that strongly supports the primary objectives of that organisation'. It should be clear from the definition that key aspects of facilities management are taken to be an integrating role in which management issues predominate over technical matters; and a service justified and orientated towards making a positive contribution to the primary business.

How important educational facilities management? OECD (2001) explained "Excellence in educational facilities lies not only in the quality of conception and construction, but also in the quality of management. Facility management covers a number of related aspects, and PEB

(Programme on Educational Building) has focused its attention on four in the past five years: maintenance, the utilisation of space, financing, and health and safety."

We may conclude that educational facilities are all necessary facilities in teaching-learning process either moving or not moving, which directly or indirectly may affect the goals of education.

B. Educational Facility Procurement

Planning needs of educational facilities is a complex job, because it must be well integrated with national development plans, regional and local levels. Planning is a planning system integrated with the planning of such development. Educational facility planning needs depending on the type of educational programs and goals set.

Procurement of facilities is closely related to educational planning. After conducting the identification of facility needs, provision of facilities were carried out. The steps can be performed include: Conducting an analysis of which department that requires tools or equipment. From this analysis could be registered instrument or what equipment is needed. This can be done by the principal or vice principal.

Procurement of educational facilities can be done in various ways. Land acquisition can be done by way of purchase, receive grants, accept the right of use, exchange, and so on. In the procurement of the building can be done by build the new one, buy, lease, received grants and buildings exchange. Procurement of equipment or furniture can be done by way of purchase. Furniture can be purchased ready-made form, or who have not finished. Procurement of equipment can be done by making your own way or receive assistance from government agencies, private agencies, communities, individuals, etc.

Procurement of furniture and educational equipment should be planned and prepared in accordance with the needs of students. The

school must choose and have furnishings and equipment which appropriate to the curriculum and the students' age, interests and level of their physical and psychological development.

According to Endang Herawan and Sukarti Nasihin (2002: 118) there are requirements for furniture and equipment are made.

1. School Furniture Specification
   a. Physical size of the user/student to use a functional and effective.
   b. The basic form that meets the following requirements:
      1) In accordance with the activities of students in teaching and learning activities
      2) Powerful, easy maintenance, and easy to clean
      3) Having a simple basic pattern
      4) Flexible, so it is easy to use.
   c. Furniture construction should:
      1) Strong and durable
      2) Massive and easily made
      3) Materials are easily available in the market and adapted to local condition.
2. School Equipment Specification
   a. The raw materials must be strong, but lightweight, does not endanger the safety of students.
   b. Construction must comply with the conditions of students.
   c. Well selected and carefully planned, and truly adjusted for age, interests and level of development of learners.
   d. Procurement is set so that really works and useful for the development of students.

Thus, the facilities provided shall be in accordance with the values of education, physical and mental condition of the students, as well as a conducive environment.

C. Educational Facility Utilization and Maintenance

The use of educational facilities is the responsibility of the principal. To smooth these activities, for principals who have a representative field of educational facilities or personnel associated with handling facilities given the responsibility of preparing the schedule. Of particular interest in the use of the facility are:

1. The preparation of a schedule of use should be avoided concurrently with other groups.
2. Let the school principal activity is the main priority.
3. Time or schedule of use should be filed at the beginning of the school year.
4. Assignment of suitable personnel with expertise in the field, for example: laboratory assistants, librarians, computer operators, and so on.
5. Scheduling the use of the facility, to be clear curricular and extracurricular.

Facility is to support teaching and learning activities. Condition of these items will not be fixed, but over time will lead to destruction, and even extinction. Educational facilities were not easily damaged or destroyed businesses need good maintenance of the user.

Maintenance is an activity with the procurement costs are included in the overall school budget and is earmarked for the continuation of building, equipment, and furniture, including provision for the interest cost of repairs and restoration, and replacement. The need for good maintenance on buildings, furniture, and school supplies because the damage has actually started since the first day They received from the builders, sellers or buyers, followed by the process of extinction, despite good maintenance has been done to the facility during use.

D. Educational Facility Removal

Existing facilities at the school will not always be used for educational purposes. This because the severely damaged so it is not used anymore, the goods are not in accordance with needs, maintenance costs are high, the excessive amount of goods that can not be utilized, and the use value of goods does not need to be utilized. In such circumstances, then these items should be removed immediately. That

means removing the goods from the inventory in accordance with applicable regulations.

With the removal of this the articles are exempted from the cost of repairs and maintenance. In addition to the elimination of this inventory will lighten the workload and responsibility of schools to deliver the goods. For goods that have been eliminated in as follow-ups can be auctioned, or appropriated for social services.

International Perspective

Themes of OECD Programme on Educational Building
Work area A:
The school of the future
Category A1: Schools in the information society — *School facilities, including documentation and resource centres, whose design is adapted for the educational use of information and communication technology.*
Category A2: Facilities which provide for lifelong learning in the community *(including adult learning, training for business and industry, child care and pre-school provision, and other human services), and those which benefit from new partnerships and new funding arrangements.*
Category A3: Educational facilities and the environment — *Facilities which make use of choice materials, energy-saving systems, siting or management in a safe and environmentally friendly way, or school grounds which promote environmental education.*

Work area B:
Tertiary education: coping with demand
Category B1: Libraries and learning resource centres *for tertiary education which meet the evolving needs of staff and students in new ways, in response to the impact of technology on teaching and learning and the growth of distance learning.*
Category B2: Design of institutions for the early years of tertiary education — *Facilities appropriately designed to provide for increased numbers of students and growing diversity in course content and structure.*

Work area C:
Strategies for managing the educational infrastructure
Category C1: Maintenance — *Facilities which are effectively maintained or which have been brought up to the standard necessary for education in the twenty-first century.*
Category C2: Space management and use in large institutions
— Large secondary schools and tertiary institutions which demonstrate efficient management and use of space.
Category C3: Institutions which have used alternative ways of

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financing capital expenditure, including the use of private financing.
Category C4: Health, safety and security — Facilities which provide so far as possible for safety from natural disaster or accidental or deliberate acts of man, through the use of particular construction materials and attention to standards, design, building management and risk assessment (areas of concern include fire prevention, earthquake and disaster management, the quality of the indoor environment, traffic management, controlling hazardous substances, and personal and material security).

Source: OECD (2001).

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Evaluation

1. Explain the definition of educational facility management.
2. Describe the facility procurement.
3. Describe the facility maintenance.
4. Describe educational facility management in the international setting.

Chapter 9
Educational Finance Management

At the end of this part, students should be able to:

1. Explain the definition of educational finance management.
2. Describe the educational finance sources.
3. Identify the characteristics of educational budgeting.
4. Explain how to apply the educational financing in international setting.

A. Definition of Educational Finance Management

Referring to the theory of human capital, human resources are the most important asset in carrying out development in each country. Guided by Theodore W. Schultz (1961), later to win the Nobel Prize for Economic Science, economist and educators began to recognize the economic importance of the human being in the production process and to begin to seek ways to measure the magnitude of human capital. (Roe L. Johns, et al 1983:33)

Human resources are not merely regarded as the driving factor of production but the production system as a whole. Investment in human resources is critical to the pace of development of a country. Investment is implemented by conducting both formal and nonformal education. Therefore, the necessary budget or funding for education because the education budget is one important element for supporting the entire course of the implementation of education.

Educational finance management is all activities relating to the arrangement of the source, use, and accountability of education financing in schools or educational institutions. There are activities finance management, they are budgeting, accounting, and auditing. (Amirin, et al, 2011: 88).

Some principles in the budgeting which are used in education are as follows.

1. Ceiling principle, that the requested budget may not exceed the highest amount that has been determined.
2. Line item budget principle. Expenditure must be based on the budget that has been set.
3. The principle of indirect, namely a provision that each receives the money should not be used directly for something necessary expenditure.

B. Educational Finance Sources

According to Roe L. Johns, et al (1983) stated that "The dimensions of acceptance include a variety of sources, both from central and local government in the form of taxes derived from any level of government." The rest is more important is how to obtain adequate funds according to need, and how to increase community participation in its responsibility for education.

Financial resources as educational dimensions of acceptance may come from: 1) the results of general government revenue, 2) special government revenues for education, 3) school tuition, 4) voluntary contributions from the community.

C. Budgeting in Educational Institution

There are some things that are characteristic or characteristics of education financing.

1. Education costs are always rising. The calculation of the financing of education is expressed in unit cost as follows:
   a. Full unit cost, which based on all the facilities supporting the education process.

b. Half unit cost, only take into account the costs associated with material needs and the tools that running out, although the period is different.

c. Minimum unit cost, obtained only by taking into account only the direct costs associated with taking into account other costs associated with teaching and learning activities.

2. The biggest cost is the cost of education in the implementation of human factors. Education can be considered as human investment, which means that the largest cost is absorbed by the human resources.

3. Unit cost of education will rise commensurate with the level of the school.

4. Unit cost of education is influenced by the type of educational institution. Costs for vocational schools are greater than the cost to public schools.

5. Funded component in the education system is almost the same from year to year.

Steps in management education funding include, 1) school-based education financial planning. 2) the development plan of the school budget. 3) implementation and the allocation of school-based education funding.

D. Educational Finance Auditing

Auditing is the process of collecting and evaluating the evidence about the information that can be measured on an economic entity which conducted a competent and independent to be able to determine and report the suitability of the information referred to the criteria established. Thomas H. Jones (1985: 22) said that auditing may be defined as the review of financial transaction to assure their accuracy, completeness, legality, and comparability with general accepted practices.

To carry out the necessary audit information can be verified and a number of standards that can be used as a handle evaluating the information. To be verified, the information must be measurable. Information that can be measured has a variety of forms. There are several types of audit. They are financial report audit, operational audit, and obedience audit.

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International Perspective
<u>*OECD Draft Recommendations*</u>

The draft recommendations below are intended to assist those working in the field of financial education for students. They take account of the experience of those countries which have been surveyed as part of this study. They also draw on the OECD's earlier work on financial literacy, notably, its survey Improving Financial Literacy: Analysis of Issues and Policies and, in particular, its Recommendation on Principles and Good Practices for Financial Education and Awareness, adopted by OECD governments in 2005. One of the key Principles is that "Financial education should start at school.....People should be educated about financial matters as early as possible in their lives."

1. Financial education for students should be provided as part of an overall strategy to improve financial capability

A range of support needs to be provided – ideally, comprising education, information and advice – in order to meet the challenge of equipping people to manage their money well. Financial education programmes for students can play an important role. But in order to ensure that support is available for all groups within society, this should be within the context of an overall strategy – preferably at national level – to improve financial capability.

Leadership and coordination
2. Priority should be given to persuading policy and educational decision makers about the importance of providing financial education to students

In order for financial education to be provided to students, policy and educational decision-makers must be willing to provide room for it in the curriculum. It is essential, therefore, to identify the key decision-makers – whether at national, regional or local level – and to persuade them to incorporate financial education within the curriculum and to provide other necessary support for the delivery of effective financial education.
Among the factors which are likely to be taken into account by decision makers – and which those seeking to persuade them should therefore also take into account – are whether financial education would contribute to legislative or other requirements relating to the contents of school curricula; and whether high quality materials, together with training and

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other support for teachers, are readily available – and, if so, at what cost.

3. There needs to be clear leadership and coordination at national level and at other key levels, including in individual educational establishments

Without an overall strategy and a credible leader within a country, efforts to provide financial education are liable to be piecemeal and duplicative and to lack an effective focus for communication with decision-makers and other stakeholders. Leadership can be exercised by government, a government agency, a financial services regulator or the central bank. These organizations are usually also the main, or even the only, providers of the resources which are needed to develop and sustain financial education programmes. Effective leadership and coordination is particularly important given that, typically, a wide range of partners and stakeholders are involved in the development and delivery of financial education programmes.

For much the same reasons, there also needs to be clear leadership and coordination within individual educational establishments. Without this, educational provision within the establishment is liable either to fail to take place or, in so far as some sort of provision occurs, to be uncoordinated and ineffective.

4. A wide range of organisations have an interest in seeing improvements to current levels of financial capabilities: they should be encouraged to contribute to the provision of effective financial education

Governments, financial services regulators and the financial services sector, as well as individuals themselves, stand to benefit if people are better equipped to manage their money well. In addition, financial education can help to bring to life other educational subjects. There are therefore many organisations which potentially have an interest in contributing to financial education initiatives. Relevant organisations – which could include relevant government departments and non-governmental organisations, regulators and central banks, financial services firms, foundations connected with the financial services industry, utility companies and mobile phone providers – should be encouraged to get involved.

There need to be effective arrangements to give teachers confidence that materials and tools produced, or funded, by commercial organisations are free from commercial bias and marketing devices (such as excessive use of company logos). Arrangements to achieve this can be incorporated within accreditation arrangements (see Recommendation 12 below). Consideration should also be given to establishing arrangements to match trained volunteers with individual educational establishments.

Embedding financial education in the curriculum
5. Where possible, financial education should be included within the school curriculum as a compulsory element. It should either be

included as a standalone subject or should be incorporated within other subjects

There are many competing demands on schools' curricula. The surest way of securing a place for financial education is for it be included as a compulsory part of the curriculum. However, this may not always be achievable, particularly in countries where financial education has yet to build up a track record of successful delivery. In such instances, the case for making the subject compulsory should be kept under review.

The incorporation of financial education as a stand-alone subject ensures that there is a clear focus on the subject. On the other hand, unless financial education is made compulsory, this could reduce the number of students who receive financial education. A course focused on financial education could be seen by students as boring and not relevant to them. An alternative is for financial education to be incorporated into other subjects, such as mathematics, economics, citizenship, business studies and history. In such cases, it is important that it is not merely (say) good mathematics which is provided, but also good financial education.

6. *Financial education should be provided to schoolchildren from as early an age as possible and should continue to be provided as they progress through school*

As with other subjects, there is advantage in beginning financial education at an early age and continuing to provide financial education as the student progresses through school. In that way, schoolchildren can build an understanding over a period of years. For pupils of any age, the subject matters and materials used need to be selected so that they are suitable for the abilities and interests of the pupils concerned and so that any cultural or religious differences or sensitivities are respected.

7. *Students should receive a planned, coherent and comprehensive programme of financial education*

Financial education programmes need to be carefully planned so that students receive a coherent programme which covers a comprehensive range of subjects, rather than focusing only on a few issues.

8. *Financial education should be provided in ways which students will find relevant and engaging*

Students are much more likely to take an interest in financial education if it is presented in a compelling and appealing manner and if they can see that it is relevant and useful to them, either immediately or in the foreseeable future.

Conversely, materials or tools which are dull or of little apparent relevance are unlikely to be effective.

Among the characteristics of programmes which students seem to find engaging are that they are relevant to the lives of the students, interactive and experiential, tailored to the interests and abilities of the students and are well taught.

Financial education is likely to be most effective if students receive the

lessons over a period of time, from a variety of sources and in a variety of ways as part of a coordinated and coherent programme.

9. There should be a clear focus on developing financially capable behaviours and responsible attitudes, as well as on developing knowledge and skills

The purpose of financial education is to improve people's understanding and to develop their skills and confidence to manage their money well throughout their lives. It is important that financial education initiatives should include a clear focus on attitudes and behaviours and not merely on knowledge and skills. Little will have been achieved if people are equipped with the requisite knowledge and skills, but they fail to put these into practice.

Supporting teachers
10. Teachers should either deliver financial education programmes themselves or, if a programme is delivered by others, should be clearly engaged in the process

Outside experts can play a useful role in the delivery of financial education in the classroom. But while their technical knowledge and first-hand experience of dealing with the subject can be valuable, they may lack expertise in delivering financial education in a classroom context. Financial education is likely to be most effective if it is delivered by teachers or – where it is delivered by outsiders – if the teacher is present and is clearly engaged.

11. Effective arrangements should be made to provide training for teachers, both as part of initial teacher training and as part of existing teachers' continuing professional development

In order for financial education to be effective, teachers (or other providers) need to have the necessary competences and confidence to teach it well. Training should be included, for those teaching relevant subjects, in initial teacher training courses. But this is not sufficient on its own. Training needs to be provided also to existing teachers: many will not have covered financial education as part of their initial teacher training; and even those who had received relevant initial teacher training are likely to benefit from refresher courses from time to time, including to give them the opportunity to learn about new techniques and methods for delivering financial education. Teachers need to be comfortable in discussing issues money issues with students in circumstances where there are often no "right" answers.

12. Teachers need to have ready access to materials and tools which can help them to provide effective financial education

It would be unrealistic to expect that many teachers will have the time, expertise or inclination to search for the most effective materials and tools to support financial education initiatives. Instead, there should be a single source (or, if more than one, a small number of sources) of materials and

tools which teachers can be confident about drawing on. This source can act as a clearing house. The source (or sources) should be promoted to teachers so that they are aware how to access support. The source should be well organised, and contain clear signposting, so that it is easy for teachers to identify materials and tools which are suitable for the teacher's intended purpose (for example, the age group which will be receiving the financial education)

Teachers need to have confidence that materials and tools are of high quality, effective and free from commercial or other bias. Arrangements should be made – possibly through a well publicised accreditation scheme – to enable teachers to identify those materials and tools which are of high quality.

13. Organisations which are considering developing materials or tools should first assess the scope for using, or adapting, materials and tools which have already been developed, either in their own country or overseas

There are many examples which can be drawn on of high quality materials and tools. Those wishing to contribute to financial education initiatives are often motivated to develop new materials. But unless a careful assessment is made of what is already available, there is a risk that they will merely develop what is in effect a different – and perhaps inferior – version of materials or tools which are already available. A proliferation of materials and tools designed to provide essentially the same solutions can be confusing to teachers and others working in the field, rather than helpful to them.

Those organisations which are considering developing new materials or tools should therefore first consult national experts to understand where any gaps in existing provision may lie. In addition, national experts should look to see what has been developed in other countries and whether – subject to securing any necessary permissions – it would be more effective and efficient to adapt or adopt one or more of these, rather than to commission new materials or tools.

Recognising achievement
14. Learning outcomes should be established; and student progress should be measured

Learning outcomes should be established, so that there is clarity about what the financial education programme is seeking to achieve. Students' progress should be measured, both so that the success of different parts of the programme can be assessed and adjustments made if necessary and also to motivate students.

15. Consideration should be given to instituting awards, or other forms of recognition (such as qualifications), both for individual achievement and for high quality financial education schemes
It is often motivating – for students, teachers and educational

establishments – to receive awards, or other forms of recognition, to mark high achievements. For students, this can include qualifications or certificates of achievement. For teachers or schools, this can include awards (including those which reflect a comparison with other schools) and certificates, which may be based on self-assessment.

The opportunity to work towards a qualification can encourage students – and their parents and teachers – to opt for financial education courses, since they will be able to receive tangible recognition of achievements.

Universities and colleges

16. Universities and colleges should be encouraged both to offer financial education courses and to provide financial education support for students taking other courses

The provision by universities and colleges of financial education courses can contribute to the development of people with good skills and knowledge. By their nature, however, such courses are likely to appeal most to those who have it in mind to pursue a career connected with financial services.

Universities and colleges should therefore also be encouraged to offer to their students, regardless of the subjects they are studying, planned and coherent financial education programmes, led by student support services, which might include short courses.

Rigorous evaluation

17. Financial education initiatives should be rigorously evaluated in order to build understanding of the most effective ways to deliver financial education in different contexts. There should be a focus on the impact of initiatives on attitudes and behaviours, as well as on improvements in knowledge, understanding and skills

Financial education programmes need to be evaluated so that effective programmes can be built on and replicated elsewhere and unsuccessful programmes can be modified or discontinued and to help provide evidence to convince policy and educational decision-makers of the case for delivering financial education in schools. The way in which a programme is evaluated is likely to depend in part on what is affordable and practicable. For example, it will not always be possible to undertake a longitudinal assessment. One promising way forward is the development of a standard framework, which can be tailored to be either a simple, cheap approach or a more sophisticated exercise, depending on the circumstances20.

Given that the purpose of financial education is to improve people's understanding and to develop their skills and confidence to manage their money well, evaluations should encompass the impact of programmes on attitudes and behaviours, as well as on knowledge, understanding and skills.

International cooperation

18. International cooperation should be promoted, including the use

> ***of the OECD as an international forum to exchange information and research on national experiences and to identify and exchange international best practices and guidelines***
>
> *In many countries, the provision of financial education for students is in its infancy. There is much which experts in these countries can learn from the experience of those in countries which have made greater progress. Moreover, experts in countries which have made good progress can benefit from learning about developments elsewhere.*
>
> *The OECD is ideally placed, in the context of its Financial Education Project, to facilitate the exchange of information and experience, including through its recently launched International Gateway for Financial Education, the development of international principles and good practices, publications and conferences.*
>
> Shaun Mundy. (2008*). Financial Education Programmes in Schools Analysis of Selected Current Programmes and Literature Draft Recommendations for Best Practices.* OECD JOURNAL: GENERAL PAPERS, VOLUME 2008/3 – ISSN 1995-2821 © OECD 2008

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Evaluation

1. Explain the definition of educational finance management.
2. Describe the educational finance sources.
3. Identify the characteristics of educational budgeting.
4. Explain how to apply the educational financing in international setting.

Chapter 10
Educational Public Relations

At the end of this part, students should be able to:

1. Explain the definition of educational public relations.
2. Describe the types of educational public relations.
3. Explain how to apply the school-community cooperation.

A. Definition of Educational Public Relations

Public relations is a function of strategic management in the conduct of communication to create understanding and acceptance from the public. In the process of this public acceptance, organizations need to pay attention to a harmonious relationship with society, such as open, honest, fair, consistent and do not isolate themselves. (Kasali, 2005: 15)

The excellence theory of public relation explained by James E. Grunig (2011: 1) the value of public relations to organizations and society based on the social responsibility of managerial decisions and the quality of relationships with stakeholder publics. For an organization to be effective, according to the theory, it must behave in ways that solve the problems and satisfy the goals of stakeholders as well as of management.

The reason for developing and implementing a public relations program in schools, especially public school, becomes apparent when one realizes there is a public character to schools; public schools are publicly held democratic institutions. In other words; the community has a right to know and participate in the governance of public organizations, because the citizens fund public schools. (Lee Stewart, 2007: 2).

I believe, a strong public relations policy will emphasize building strong relationships and partnerships with the community. Schools are could be successful when they have strong relationships between

themselves and the community. So, there must be a constant collaboration and communication among teachers, parents and the community.

Community is the little part of public. But, it is the nearest people of the school. Kirk Hallahan (2003: 5) said that despite the ubiquity of the public construct, a strong argument can be made for positioning community as the conceptual centerpiece for examining and practicing public relations. Indeed, the field might be better called community relations. But, to make that case requires going beyond limited conceptualizations to examine the *community* construct broadly.

Educational Administration Department of State University of Yogyakarta (2011) describe that there are several steps to implement educational public relations. They are preparing, executing, checking, evaluating and suggesting. First step, we are must preparing the main information material (messages) that will be presented to the public. We also set the formulation of aims and objectives to be achieved in this activity, as well as the equipment that required, including time, place, and other supporting facilities.

Second step is executing the plan or preparation. At this stage we are carrying out public relations activities that have been prepared and sought can be accomplished. The message should be conveyed well whether it's using the media or not. Similarly, time, place, or supporting equipment are should be utilized effectively and efficiently.

Third step is checking the public or community responses. At this stage we are trying to ascertain whether the activities have been carried out and responses received positive response from the community. The response may take the form of moral support, aid workers and thought, or perhaps material support.

Fourth step is evaluating and controlling the result. At this stage we evaluate the achievement of the purpose and objectives of the newly implemented public relations activities. Standard used is formulated

objectives that have been made in the preparation stage. If there are no objectives deviations, activities can broadly be said to be successful. In other words, it will appear how much participation, understanding, support, assistance, and cooperation that brought people to the institution. Thus, through careful observation of public relations officers can control the activity.

Fifth step is suggesting to our leaders. Based on the conclusions drawn from the fourth stage, public relations officer shall report all activities carried out to the leaders. The report comes with a suggestion, recommendation, appeal, or follow-up recommendations to be made leaders of institutions with respect to the issue at hand.

B. Type of Educational Public Relations

Department of Educational Administration State University of Yogyakarta (2011) explained that public relations activities can generally be distinguished on the external public relations activities and internal public relations activities. Here are some types of public relations activities at school.

1. External Public Relations

   This activity is always connected and addressed to the public or the community outside the school. There are two activities that can be done, namely indirect and direct activities or face to face. Indirect activities are activities that relate to the public through the mediation of certain media, such as through television, radio, newspaper, exhibitions, and magazine publishing. Activities directly or face to face is the work being carried out directly, for example, the School Committee meeting with board members, consulting with community leaders, and serve the guests visit.

   a. Dissemination of Information through Television.

      Success of the dissemination of information via television as a medium of publicity schools rely on programs that have been prepared. The program has been arranged things or the issues

to be presented to the viewers. Therefore, delivery of information through television requires a thorough preparation for the appearance and behavior of the speaker can be viewed publicly. Tone and speech was noteworthy. Additionally, clothing should be matched as well as motion and attitude must be polite.

From the process of dissemination of information via television will be obtain the several advantages.

1) Broadcasting programs of interest is the suggestion that the potential for causing public interest to always follow the activities of the school.

2) In general, parents and community activities that do not know the school. Therefore, through television is expected of all school activities program can understand the parents and the community. Thus, parents and the community willing to support and participate in the moral and material. Submission of information through the medium of television can be implemented in various ways, for example: regular lectures, interviews, lectures with visual aids, discussions, plays, agile intelligent, artistic activity.

b. Information Dissemination through Radio

Radio is a medium that is very important because of its broadcasting capable of reaching the wider community. Therefore, schools can utilize the radio for the sake of publicity. Some important things, like when a new student enrollment, educational activities carried out, or school data, you can inform the outside community through the radio. Some good dissemination of information via radio, for example: the text to be broadcast can be prepared well before the time of broadcasting; not influenced by communicators, such as attitudes and behavior; may be assisted by background music; be through limits of space, time, and a wide range.

c. Information Dissemination through Printing Media

Printing media are newspapers, magazines, newsletters, and so on. Sometimes they are called the press. In connection with the activities of public relations or publicity, the press said to be a disseminator of useful information. The advantage of information dissemination through the press, such as: it can reach a very broad public; can suddenly be studied by the public concerned; can expect feedback from the public more.

d. Magazine Publishing

Publication of a magazine or newsletter intention is for all school work and school activities can be shown to the general public outside of school. Magazine or newsletter can be filled with news articles school or school community works.

2. Internal Public Relations

This activity is an internal publicity. The goal is a school citizen. The goal is to citizens of the school, i.e. teachers, administrative personnel, and the students. In principle, internal publicity activities aim to: provide an explanation of policy implementation and development of the school; accommodate suggestions and opinions of citizens of the school relating to coaching and development of the school; maintain harmonious relations so as to create cooperation between citizens of the school.

Internal publicity activities can be distinguished on activities directly, i.e. face to face, and indirect activities.

Direct activities, such as: board meeting teachers; ceremony school; work or leisure travel together; oral explanations on various occasions, e.g. at the gathering.

Indirect activities, such as: delivery of information through circulars; use school bulletin boards; organizing bulletin board; publishing newsletters for distribution to citizens of the school; advertising or special notices via the mass media; implementation of non-face routine, such as performing arts and the close of the event.

Based on the above, it can be said that public relations activities in schools, both external and internal, should receive special attention from the principal.

Besides public relations activities can be run well and increased if it is supported by several factors, such as: the existence of a systematic program and planning; availability of complete documentation base; available skilled labor, equipment, facilities, and adequate funding; conditions of a healthy school organization. Without the support of those factors, public relations activities in schools may not be implemented properly and thoroughly.

C. Type of Educational Institution-Public Cooperation

Department of Educational Administration State University of Yogyakarta (2011) explained that one of the main objectives of public relations activities is to build a harmonious cooperation between the two sides.

Meaningful harmonious has mutual support, mutual help, mutual giving and receiving each other and complement deficiencies or weaknesses of each. Discussion of this cooperation includes three things, namely: the basis and purpose of the cooperation; areas of cooperation, techniques of cooperation.

1. Basis and Purpose School-Community Cooperation
a) Basic Cooperation with the Community School
   1) The Similarity of Responsibility
      Education is a shared responsibility between government, parents, and community. Communities consist of groups and individuals who seek help provide education or education efforts. In society there are various providers of education organizations, social organizations, sports organizations, or arts organizations engaged in education pliers. In society there are also individuals or individuals who are sympathetic to education in schools.

2) The Similarity of Purpose

School requires that students would become the moral human builders. Society also requires that all citizens become a man who built the nation. Unscrupulous individuals are expected to come from school. Therefore, between the school and the community must have the common purposes.

b) School-Community Cooperation Purposes

1) Helping and Charging Each Other

Student learning time in school is very limited, which is seven hours. Free time can be utilized for various activities or organizations, such as scouting activities, sports, arts and religion. In addition, communities can also provide education that is specialized, such as vocational education.

2) Finance, Buildings and Goods Helping

A good education requires learning space, tools, and sufficient funds. Funds are limited so that the school usually requires a source of funds derived from other sources, including from the community with a variety of forms.

2. Areas of School-Community Cooperation

Areas of cooperation with public schools covering many aspects, including: moral education; physical education, arts education, education for children with special needs; educational skills.

3. Techniques of School-Community Cooperation

a. Through the School Committee, in which there are elements of society, government, business and industry.

b. Through consultation, the school may hold a consultation with an expert in the community, for example, about students who experience barriers. Consultations can be done by a doctor, psychologist, or other competent parties.

c. Through correspondence, these activities can be done with the other schools that are considered relevant so as to provide appropriate solutions.

d. Through the joint meeting, the school may invite organizations or individuals who are sympathetic to education for the joint meeting to discuss a problem.

e. Through the school bazaar, open house, etc.

f. Through joint programming.

g. Through scientific activities, such as lectures by experts.

h. Through the medium of radio, television, and internet media.

In Slovenia, Šoštanj Primary School Collaborates with Its Community
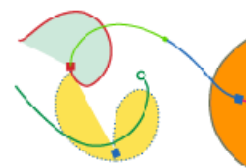
By Emmanuel Čerček, Ministry of Education and Sport, Slovenia

Šoštanj Primary School offers a learning process which can enrich traditional forms of schooling. It demonstrates how a school, including its infrastructure, can influence family life and the environment, creating new social patterns and a local identity. Pupils and teachers are involved in different thematic projects and programmes, together with parents and the wider community.

Slovenia's primary schools

At the beginning of the 2005/06 school year, the number of primary schools in Slovenia reached almost 800 (242 independent, 205 government-run and 350 subsidiary schools).

Financing for public preschool and primary school infrastructure is shared between local communities (municipalities) and the Ministry of Education and Sport, with government funding ranging from 10 to 70%. Local communities own both the buildings and equipment.

THE LEARNING PROCESS

One aim of Šoštanj Primary School's educational process is to teach pupils how to learn, thus providing them skills for lifelong learning. Moreover, Šoštanj Primary enhances pupils' awareness of individuals' integrity, their national identity, and general cultural and civic values. Pupils are educated in the spirit of equality, tolerance, and respect of personal differences and human rights. The school emphasises community and parental involvement in education, environmental protection, and personal health.

- **Learners:** Šoštanj Primary School has 731 pupils from age 6 to 15, all from middle income Slovene families.

- **Facilitators:** The staff includes kindergarten and primary teachers, a librarian and psychologists. Parents and local community representatives participate in different school bodies and educational activities.

- **Content:** The primary school follows the compulsory curriculum and proposes various additional projects, workshops and other extra-curricular activities. The neighbourhood, the larger community and the school's physical environment are integrated into the learning process. Parents can attend their children's classes and take part in workshops. Teachers sometimes also organise pupil-parent meetings to discuss issues such as better learning methods, violence among pupils, drug abuse and eating disorders.

ENVIRONMENTAL PROJECTS

Šoštanj Primary School organises projects to help teach pupils about the environment, at both global and local levels. In 2007/08, the following projects were undertaken:

1. Energy savings

This project, whose slogan is "Think globally, act locally", helps pupils understand the importance of energy and teaches them how to save it. To give meaning to the project, these measurements have been adopted:

- At the end of each day, the last class turns off the classroom lights.

- Water taps are checked daily to ensure they are closed.

- Pupils are instructed to inform the housekeeper of leaks or damage to equipment.

- Classrooms are properly heated and the air regularly freshened by opening windows.

- All electric and electronic equipment are turned off immediately after use.

2. Eco package project

This project focuses on building awareness of how different types of packaging and other waste pollute the earth. Pupils learn to use less packaging, to sort waste, etc. Once a week they give the sorted waste to the local company Saubermacher.
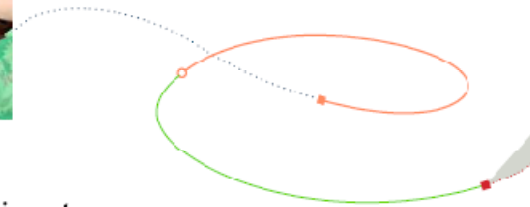
3. Collection of old electric and electronic equipment

In March 2008, Šoštanj Primary organised a competition among pupils to collect old and broken electric and electronic equipment such as ovens, refrigerators, washing machines, electric heaters, freezers, televisions and computers. The project was sponsored by Slovene manufacturers and waste management companies and was well received by the community.

The classroom that collected the most equipment received a financial reward. Pupils collected a total of 5 730 kg of waste electrical and electronic equipment.

4. Healthy School – Clean School project

The school has established some simple guidelines to encourage students to maintain a healthy and clean learning environment, and punishes violators.

ANNUAL WORK PLAN WITH EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

Teachers annually adopt a plan on which they base their work. The annual work plan specifies the content and schedule of extra-curricular activities, including those necessary for the healthy development of pupils. Parents and the local community participate in the extended curriculum and help contribute to a high standard of education. The school's facilities are used before and after school hours, when teachers offer activities such as additional lessons, study and homework time, and cultural, artistic and sports events.


The school places special emphasis on both arts and sports. It has four choirs and displays a permanent art exhibit called "Children's World of Art". Through the school's sports activities, teachers and pupils support the motto "It is important to participate and play fair".

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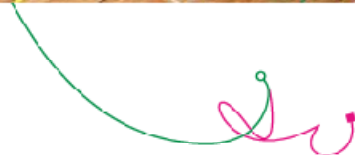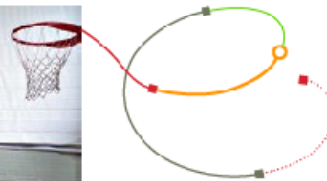Slovenia
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SCHOOL INFRASTRUCTURE
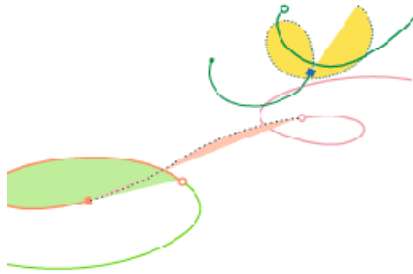
The Memorial Park in front of the school is dedicated to famous people who have lived or worked in the small town of Šoštanj (c. 8 000 inhabitants). Busts of visionaries, humanists, writers, poets, teachers, doctors and businessmen – all having shared affection for their town and a community spirit – remind the pupils of the town's history. The pupils, their older brothers and sisters, and the other community members respect the statues and have expressed pride in them. No vandalism has occurred since the school opened in 2005.

The school has quality infrastructure which includes multipurpose spaces, a gymnasium and an outdoors sports field. The elevator, restrooms and special access are available for people with physical disabilities. The disabled pupils participate in the majority of the school's extra-curricular activities.

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Evaluation

1. Explain the definition of educational public relations.
2. Describe the types of educational public relations.
3. Explain how to apply the school-community cooperation.

Chapter 11

Educational Office Administration and Management Information System

At the end of this chapter, the students should be able to:

1. Explain the definition of educational office administration.
2. Describe the educational office administration process.
3. Explain the definition of management information system.
4. Describe the management information system process.

A. Definition of Educational Office Administration

According to Education Ministry of Indonesia (Kemdiknas, 2010: 7), pengertian kantor dapat diuraikan berikut ini: The term of office can be interpreted as an obligation, duty or function; headquarters or spaces where a person and his staff run the main business activities; services; the job is done for a particular area, or place used as the administrative center of the workplace. Office is defined as a place or room to perform activities of data or information management. Data management is the process of collecting, recording, processing, and storage, distribution or presentation of data or information. According to Education Ministry of Indonesia (Kemdiknas, 2010: 7), understanding can be described following offices:

1. Place or space where the implementation of the activities through collecting, recording, processing, storage, and distribution or presentation of data or information.
2. The process of collecting, recording, processing, storage, and distribution or presentation of data or information.
3. Concentration of activities that are precisely and supportive administrative or managerial activities.

We may conclude that the office is a place in a static sense, the process in a dynamic sense, and facility in a functional sense. The main target is the data or information management activities of offices. Data or

information management is requiring the organizational resources, human resources and other resources such as buildings or rooms, tools and equipment, as well as labor costs and governance.

According to Education Ministry of Indonesia (Kemdiknas, 2010: 11) office administration is a series of activities to plan, organize, direct, supervise, and control activities in an orderly manner to achieve the targets in the affairs of office. Objectives to be achieved in the implementation of administrative affairs office are an office effectively and efficiently to support the core activities of the organization.

According to Suharsimi Arikunto and Lia Yuliana (2009: 341) office administration is often referred to the whole process of managing correspondence that started from collecting or receiving, recording, managing, reproducing, transmitting and storing all materials information which required by the organization. With this understanding, office administration not only includes the letters but all the material information or tangible information slips.

Soetrisno and Renaldi (2006: 7) quoted a few definitions of office management. Arthur Grager said that "Office management is the function of administering the communication and record service of an organization."

William Leffingwell & Edwin Robinson "Office management as a function, is the branch of the art and science of management which is concerned with the efficient performance of office work, whenever and wherever that work is to be done."

Hal Nourse said "It seems to me that office management in the broader sense might embrance, not only the generally accepted service functions, but also the arise of functional control administrative direction of most clerical and paperwork."

George Terry said "Office management can be defined as the planning, controlling, and organizing of office work, and actuating those performing is so as to achieve the predetermined objective. It deals with the life cycle of business information, and retention, if of permanent value, of destruction if obsolete."

We may conclude that the office management is an art and science of management as a series of planning, organizing, mobilizing, and monitoring and controlling of office jobs.

B. Functions of Educational Office Administration

Clerical jobs are involving a range of activities to collect, record, manage, reproduce, transmit and store the necessary information needed in every business cooperation. According to The Liang Gie (2000: 50) some administrative functions of the office are:

1. Collecting, seek and pursue the availability of any information that had not yet exist or were scattered everywhere, so ready to use when where necessary.
2. Writing, which is includes applying a variety of stationery on the proofs necessary so that the realization of writings can be read, sent or stored.
3. Processing, various activities to do proofs with the intention of presenting in a more useful or more obvious to use.
4. Multiplying, activities to multiply the data or information in various ways and medium as much as the amount required.
5. Sending, presenting the data or information in various ways and medium of the first party to another party.
6. Storing, the activities to put data or information in various ways and medium in particular a safe place.

There are eight general principles of effective implementation of the administrative office which is basically a very important factor for ensuring the work carried out productively. According to Education Ministry of

Indonesia (Kemdiknas, 2010: 16) eight principles are the job planning, work organizing, work coordinating, job controlling, employee empowerment, communication, office layout, and improving quality of service.

1. Principle of Work Planning

    Work should be well planned. Without a good plan, we will not achieve the results as expected. A good plan is answer the following five basic questions: what to do, what the purpose, why it should do, how to do it, whose will do it, and when and where conducted.

2. Principle of Work Organizing

    The second principle states that the implementation of the work has been well laid. That is already clear division of tasks and the implementation schedule has been well prepared. Current work has been clearly specified so that the critical nodes have been identified and work implementation is completion guaranteed.

3. Principle of Work Coordinating

    The third principle is to ensure that the implementation of the work will be well coordinated. All activities are coordinated and efficiently use of resources to ensure its implementation in the most productive. Coordination is very important because this way we can ensure that all activities that seem separated actually lead to the same destination.

4. Principle of Work Controlling

    Well-controlled work implementation is needs an effective control. It can be guaranteed a well done job if the implementation of internal control within the work grow and develop properly. Excessive external control will only drain energy, time, and high emotion. That's why these four principles are very important.

5. Principle Employee Empowerment

The fifth principle is concerns with the empowerment of the work executing. Leader's office should be able to develop the subordinates willingness and ability to be internally motivated and able to accept the delegation of execution of work with good results. Here the important function of training and providing the opportunity to assume greater responsibility.

6. Principle of Communication

All of the principles outlined earlier will be very constrained in the absence of good communication. Leaders must be able to build an office setting that is conducive for the continuity of open communication, honest, and productive. Communication in the office should not be too formal and bureaucratic thus inhibiting innovation. However, nor too informal so that we can no longer distinguish between information that is gossip and what is not.

7. Principle Office Layout

Physical order of the office should ensure that implementation takes place in a productive office affairs. Office layout should be planned scientifically to avoid unnecessary movements or redundant, delay, and difficulty to reach work or materials. Utilization of the entire proposition or office equipment should take into account the principle of effective and efficient.

8. Principle of Services Quality Improvement

Office systems and procedures must be continually strived to more effective and efficient. Quality and quantity standards of office work should be used and constantly developed according to the needs. Office leadership must continually strive to increase the service quality by performing a variety of ways, so that eventually can be identified most advanced way to guaranteed results.

C. Procedures of Educational Office Administration

Mills, et al (1990) which also explained by Soetrisno and Renaldi (2006: 32) the purpose of an office is giving the recording and communications services. This broad definition can be clarified, so that the office functions as a center of information that carry out the work as described below.

1. Receiving Information

Examples of acceptable forms of information in such as letters, phone calls, messages, invoices, and reports for the various activities of the organization. In addition to receiving information that goes like that, the office was informed.

2. Recording Information

The goal is to make the recording information can be set up immediately if the management asked him. Some records requested to be kept under the law, but in addition, records should be kept only to meet the management needs in planning and controlling organizations. Some recordings may show the results of the negotiations, transactions, activities, correspondence, orders, invoices, financial statements, management, stock footage, and other analysis results.

3. Organizing Information

The information is collected by the office, rarely in the same form as in the time given. Data were collected from different sources, calculations must be made. Office is responsible for supplying information in the form that best serves the management, is a function of the most important and which should be run by well-trained staff. Example of information management is the preparation of various reports.

4. Giving Information

If the management request, the office distributed information from the tape. Some information that is regularly distributed, some are special, and information can be given orally or in writing, e.g. instructions, progress reports, budgets, etc.

5. Protecting Assets

Office tasks will not be fully realized if limited only to receive, record, organize and provide information only. Still there is an additional responsibility that is carefully observes and protects vital records, securing the cash that must be stored in safes or in the bank.

D. Definition of Educational Management Information System

Post and Anderson (2006: 4) said "A management information system (MIS), or computer information system (CIS), consists of five related components: hardware, software, people, procedures, and collections of data."

According to Hershner Cross (Soetrisno and Renaldi, 2006: 34) management information systems in the modern office is a combination of a very regular basis from employees, equipment and facilities that make storage, retrieval, processing, delivery and updating of data, all in response to the needs of the decision makers at all levels of the organization. Meanwhile, according to Sherman Bluemethal stated that such systems are related in the means to collect, store, update, and retrieve data as well as a variety of means to transform that data into information for human use.

Management Information Systems are planned and organised approaches to supplying executives with intelligence aids that facilitate the managerial process. Burt Scanlan dan J. Bernars Keys (1979) which also explained by Lembaga Administrasi Negara Republik Indonesia (*Public Administration Board of Indonesia, 2008: 75)* management Information

System is a formal reporting, classifying, and disseminating information to the appropriate stations in an organisation.

The Board also explained Burch and Strater's Information System, a systematic, formal asseblage of components that performs data processing operations to (a) meet legal and transactional data processing requirements, (b) provide information to management for support of planning, controlling, and decision making activities, and (c) provide a variety of reports, as required, to external constituents.

E. Procedures of Educational Management Information System

A management information system, whether manual or the information systems equipped with computer systems have the same basic components, namely the input of material information/data, data processing, instructions and procedures, outputs, and the records and archives. This information will be processed into the useful information for humans. Data processing is done in a working mechanism of management information system.

Murdick (Amirin, et al. 2009: 187) stated the components of management information system is divided into five sections, namely:

(1) data input,
(2) data processing,
(3) records and archives,
(4) instructions and procedures,
(5) output.

Mechanism of action of this license can be described in the following chart.

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                    ┌─────────────────┐
                    │ Instructions and│
                    │   procedures    │
                    └────────┬────────┘
                             │
                             ▼
┌──────────────┐    ┌─────────────────┐    ┌──────────────┐
│ Input Data   │──▶ │ Data Processing │──▶ │Output Report │
└──────────────┘    └────────┬────────┘    └──────────────┘
                             ▲
                             │
                             ▼
                    ┌─────────────────┐
                    │  Records and    │
                    │    archives     │
                    └─────────────────┘
```
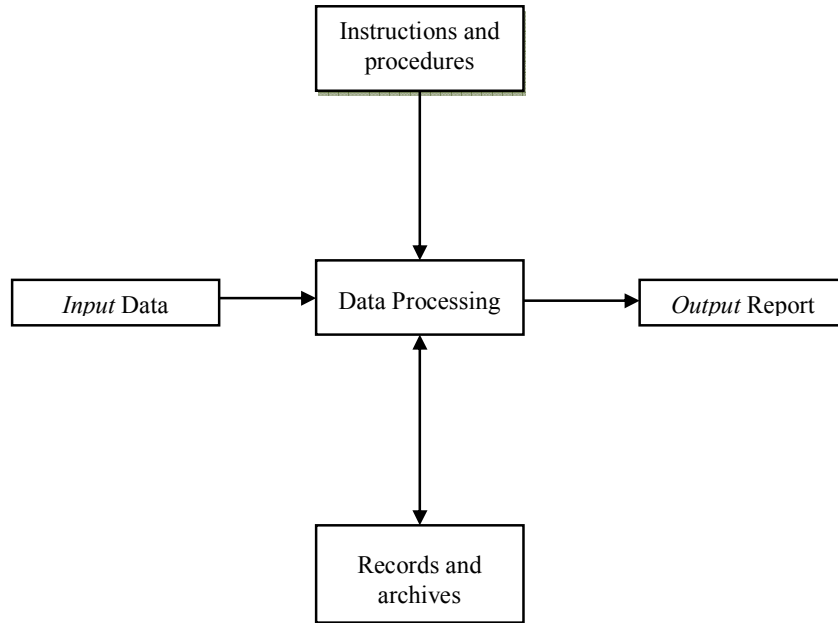
Figure 11.1
Component of Management Information System

As a working mechanism, the principal functions of the management information system can be illustrated as a workflow, that is: entering data into the system, then the data is processed by rearranging the input data and archival storage, the next step to develop procedures that will determine where the data that would be required, when and where data can be obtained, to what data was used, as well as providing instructions to be followed by processor, and the last step is setting up the output report.

In a company working mechanisms of management information system is a data flow in an integrated company, from the back office (the purchase of raw materials, hardware-hardware, equipment, warehousing, etc.), processing (planning, scheduling production processes, resource management, maintenance, etc.), and the front office (sales, analysis, etc.). System management information system to implement the presentation of information quickly and accurately

The implementation of computer-based management information system is required in the development of education. This can be seen from the many benefits and advantages to be derived from the implementation of computer-based management information system to support the development of education, such as speed, accuracy of information, an attractive appearance, ease of data tracking, and others. Implementation of computer-based driver's license can be: academic information systems, financial information systems in schools, utilizing a LAN, internet, and others. The role of the computer-based management information system in education as follows: (1) implementation of academic information systems; (2) implementation of financial information system; (3) implementation of personnel information system; (4) database system; (5) implementation of WAN and LAN, and (6) implementation library information system.

International Perspective

Innovation in Education

Innovation in education has attracted increasing attention. The US stimulus package has for example allocated USD 650 million of its USD 5 billion investment in school reform to a new Investing in Innovation Fund (i3). The fund supports local efforts to start or expand research-based innovative programmes to help close the achievement gap and improve outcomes for students.

In 2009, the Netherlands also published an explicit Social Innovation Agenda for Education, and Hungary is reviewing its educational innovation system. However, most countries still need to turn their implicit educational innovation strategies into explicit ones.

In recent years, greater emphasis has been placed on the development and use of evidence in teaching. Educational research based on methodologies for measuring causal impacts has grown and increased the body of available knowledge. New links with neuroscience are also promising as they allow better understanding and diagnosis of certain learning difficulties. The enhancement of educational research will remain a serious challenge in the years to come, and developing the necessary evidence will require further work.

New educational products, resources and teaching methods are another source of innovation in education. ICT has led to the development of resources, such as learning management systems and other information systems and diagnostic tools. While the impact of these resources on the

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quality or cost-efficiency of education is still to be assessed, the increasing involvement of businesses in the production of new educational resources or models opens new avenues. In many cases, however, this market is limited by insufficient demand from schools.

Some education systems are establishing a new generation of sophisticated information infrastructures, such as longitudinal information systems which give rapid feedback to teachers, parents and other stakeholders. In addition to potentially changing the culture of the teaching profession, these systems may remove a key barrier to educational innovation: the difficulty of demonstrating the positive value of educational innovations. As long as innovation cannot be clearly linked to better achievement of educational objectives (learning outcomes, equity, access, costefficiency), the innovation process will be slowed by a lack of demand or avoidance of what may simply appear to be another educational fad.

To develop new models of educational delivery, most governments encourage experimentation by the public school systems or fund access to private schools offering alternative schooling models. Innovation and experimentation funds, as well as innovation prizes and rewards, give stakeholders incentives to develop innovative methods. Some countries have used market mechanisms within their public education systems in order to facilitate innovation (e.g. charter schools). These mechanisms have generated organisational and marketing innovation. While it is less clear that they have led to innovation in the core business of education, they have contributed to the dissemination of alternative learning environments (collaborative learning, bilingual schools, computer schools, etc). New models of higher education institutions are also appearing in OECD countries, based on storytelling curricula, engineering projects or purely online learning.

User-driven innovation has also become more prominent in the past decade in education owing to the Internet. A number of higher education institutions now offer open educational resources. In addition, wikis and repositories of different types of educational resources are available to students and teachers worldwide.

Insufficient evidence that an educational innovation represents a significant improvement over traditional or mainstream practices hinders the demand for innovation: students, parents or teachers tend to prefer well-known methods rather than experiment with new ones. Potential innovators also lack incentives to innovate in view of the lack of a clear market for their new products or models. As a result, the use and development of innovations remains fragmented. This is why measurement and evaluation of educational change and innovation will be essential to unleash innovation in education. Source: OECD (2010), The OECD Innovation Strategy: Getting a Head Start on Tomorrow, OECD Publishing.

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Evaluation

1. Write down the definition of educational office administration.
2. Describe the educational office administration process.
3. Explain the definition of management information system.
4. Describe the management information system process.