

CHAPTER - II

"Evaluation is a process by which the values of an enterprise are ascertained. Evaluation should be conceived primarily in terms of educational purposes which the programme of supervision is intended to serve".

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CHAPTER II

FOUNDATIONS OF APPRAISAL

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CHAPTER II

FOUNDATIONS OF APPRAISAL

2.1. "Appraisal" as a Concept

The quality and effectiveness of education in a country depends upon the quality and effectiveness of each school, rather than national educational policy. The quality and effectiveness of each school would depend upon its own in-built scheme of evaluation and appraisal. Evaluation is the key to better education - that would help all concerned to judge the rightness of the concerned 'purpose' of education, the 'whole range of activities' and the 'tools and equipment' used in imparting it.

UNESCO notes on Emergent Needs (1970) runs thus: "Educational systems throughout the world have expanded phenominally over the past ten to fifteen years in response to an explosive increase in educational demand, but they have failed to make the necessary changes in themselves, required to adapt education to the rapidly changing needs and conditions of its students, society and economy. As a consequence, educational systems now find themselves in a serious crisis. To escape from this educational crisis, nations must abandon linear expansion and adopt a strategy

of educational change and innovations, calculated to make more efficient use of educational resources, and to adapt educational structures, content and methods to the dynamically changing needs and circumstances of the world around them. This new strategy must give major emphasis to the modernisation of educational management; the development and application of more adequate instruments for diagnosing, planning and evaluating performance of educational systems and sub-systems".

How might educational systems or institutions be stimulated, to make a striving for making improvement a way of life? By what means can schools acquire the capability of critical self scrutiny followed by reorganisation to overcome the shortcomings thereby identified? What processes of educational planning, management and evaluation have been most successful in creating a favourable climate for improvement within schools? What information flows and mechanisms of self analysis and self-evaluation procedures used, are needed to strengthen the urge for renewal and re-organisation of school systems? How can teachers and other school staff be oriented towards a continuing process of evaluation, and change? What role can in-service training and refresher courses play in stimulating evaluation practices and in motivating change?

To seek answers to these and similar other questions is the main objective of school Appraisal or evaluation. Appraisal is both for accountability and improvement. The demand for accountability in Indian education has been on the increase. The report of the Group II (Institutional Planning and Management) of the National Seminar on Education Policy: Planning and Management Issues (1985) states, "feasible mechanisms for accountability in respect of national goals, societal needs and proper use of resources will have to be developed".

The new National Policy on Education (1986) points out "establishing the principle of accountability in relation to given objectives and norms", as one of the means to improve the education system. Appraisal and evaluation are used synonymously.

2.2 Evaluation

Evaluation refers to either programme evaluation or institutional evaluation. The classical definition of educational evaluation in the words of Tyler (1949) is "The process of evaluation is essentially the process of determining to what extent the educational objectives are realised by curriculum and instruction". This refers to

evaluation as outcome-oriented. Popham (1975) defined educational evaluation as, "a formal effort to affix the worth of things in education such as programmes, products or goals." Similarly Tuckman (1979) reflected his views on programme evaluation as, "the purpose of programme evaluation is to provide the means of determining whether the programme is meeting its goals; that is whether the measured outcomes for a given set of instructional inputs match the intended or pre-specified outcomes". Borg and Gall (1983) hold similar views. To them educational evaluation means, "the process of making judgements about the merit, value or worth of education programmes, projects, materials and techniques". Extending the ideas of outcome oriented evaluation, the economists like Alkin (1970) defined educational evaluation as an, "attempt to find the value of alternative courses of action not only in terms of outcome dimensions or outputs of the treatment but also in terms of financial cost that are associated with each alternative".

There are other economists like Hallak (1981) who perceived the value of decision facilitation and emphasised the major purpose of educational evaluation as, "improving management and the co-operation of an ongoing programme, by introducing interactions in the use of resources and by

benefit from the experience gained, with due respect to its objective". To Mac Donald (1973), "Evaluation is the process of conceiving, obtaining and communicating information, for the guidance of educational decision making with regard to a specified programme".

The idea of process - oriented evaluation has been further clarified by Patton (1978) who defined programme evaluation as, "the systematic collection of information about the activities and outcomes of actual programme, in order, for interested person to make judgements, about specific aspects of what the programme is doing and affecting." A similar stand is taken by Stufflebeam and Webster (1980), to whom evaluation study, "is designed and conducted to assist some audience, to judge and improve the worth of the educational object".

Institution appraisal consists of the appraisal of the purpose, procedure and product thereof. It means the appraisal of all its programmes and activities in the light of its purpose judging through the outcome of its process.

2.2.1. A Historical Perspective of the Concept "Evaluation"

"Evaluation is the systematic assessment of the worth or merit of some objective". Evaluation has evolved with history.

The historical analysis is based on the seminal work of Ralph W. Tyler, who is often spoken of as 'the father of educational evaluation'. Using his initial contributions as the main reference point, the historical growth of evaluation can be identified into five major periods (Stufflebeam and Shinkfield, 1986).

- 1) The pre-Tyler period which includes development upto 1930.
- 2) The Tylerian age (1930-1945).
- 3) The age of Innocence (1946-1957).
- 4) The age of Realism (1958-1972).
- 5) The age of Professionalism (1973-the present).

i) The Pre-Tylerian Period:

Systematic evaluation was not unknown before 1930; and neither was it a recognisable movement. In 1845, in the United States, Herace Mann led an evaluation based on performance testing, to assess whether the Boston Schools

were succeeding in educating their students. Also in the late 1800's, the movement to accredit educational institutions and programmes in United States was begun. Since then the accreditation process has become one major means of evaluating educational services.

ii) The Tylerian Age: (1930-1945)

In the early 1930's Ralph Tyler coined the term education evaluation and published a broad and innovative view of both curriculum and evaluation. Over a period of about 15 years he developed his views until they constituted an approach that provided a clearcut alternative to other views. His approach focussed on clearly stated objectives. In fact, he defined evaluation as determining whether objectives have been achieved. Tyler was drawn into the Progressive Education Movement when he was commissioned to direct the research component of the now famous Eight Year Study (Smith & Tyler, 1942). This study was designed to examine the effectiveness of certain innovative curricular and teaching strategies being employed in 30 schools located throughout America. The study helped Tyler to expand, test and demonstrate his conception of educational evaluation.

iii) The Age of Innocence (1946-1957)

There was expansion of educational offerings, personnel and facilities. New kinds of institutions such as Community Colleges emerged. While there was great expansion of education, society had no particular interest in holding education accountable, in identifying and addressing the needs of the under privileged, or in identifying and solving problems in the educational system.

During this period, however there was considerable expansion of tools and strategies for applying the various approaches to evaluation and testing, the most popular of which being "Comparative experimentation" and "Congruence between outcomes and objectives". Educational evaluations were as they had been previously, primarily a purview of local school districts. Schools could do evaluation or not, depending on local interest and expertise.

iv) The Age of Realism (1958-72)

The National Defence Education Act of 1958 provided for new educational programmes in Mathematics, science and foreign languages, and expanded counselling and guidance

services and testing programmes in school districts; and funds were allocated to evaluate these programmes.

Four approaches to evaluation were represented in the evaluation done during this period. First the Tyler approach was used to define objectives for the new curriculum and to assess the degree to which the objectives were realised. Second, new nationally standardized Tests were developed to reflect better the objectives and content of the new curricula. Third, the professional judgement approach was used to rate proposals and to check periodically on the efforts of contractors. Fourth, many evaluators undertook to evaluate curriculum development efforts through the use of field experiments.

In the early 1960s, some leaders in educational evaluation realised that their work and their results were not practically helpful to curriculum developers. This negative assessment was best reflected in a land mark article by Cronbach (1963). As a result of growing disquiet with evaluation efforts and consistently negative findings, the Phi Delta Kappa set up a National Study Committee on Evaluation (Stufflebeam et al., 1971). After surveying the scene, this committee concluded that educational evaluation was "seized with a great illness", and called for the

development of new theories and methods of evaluation as well as for new training programmes for evaluators. At the same time many new conceptualizations of evaluation began to emerge. Provus (1971), Hammond (1967), Eisner (1967), Matfessel and Michael (1967) proposed reformation of the Tyler model. Glaser (1963), Tyler (1967) and Popham (1971) pointed to criterion referenced testing as an alternative to norm referenced testing. Cook (1966) called for the system-analysis approach to evaluate programmes. Scriven (1967), Stufflebeam (1967, 1971) and Stake (1967) introduced new models for evaluation that departed radically from prior approaches. These conceptualizations recognized the need to evaluate goals, look at inputs, examine implementation and delivery of services, as well as measure intended and unintended outcomes of the programme. They also emphasised the need to make judgements about the merit or worth of the object being evaluated. The late 1960s and 1970s were vibrant with descriptions, discussions and debates concerning how evaluations should be conceived.

v) The Age of Professionalism (1973-the Present)

Beginning in about 1973, the field of evaluation began to crystallize and emerge as a distinct profession related to, but quite distinct from its forebears of research and

testing. The field of evaluation has advanced considerably as a profession. A number of journals including Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, studies in Evaluation, CEDR Quarterly, Evaluation Review, New Directions for programme evaluation, Evaluation and Programmes planning, and Evaluation News, were begun, which proved to be excellent vehicles for recording and disseminating information about the various facets of educational evaluation.

Many Universities have begun to offer at least one course in evaluation methodology. Increasingly, the field has looked to evaluation (Scriven, 1975), Stufflebeam (1978), as a means of assuring and checking the quality of education. A Committee appointed by professional organizations issued a comprehensive set of standards for evaluating educational programmes, projects and materials, established a mechanism. - Joint Committee on Educational Standards (1981) to review and revise the 'standards' and assist the field workers in their use.

Thus Evaluation was considered to be a necessary step for accountability of the institutions and for accreditations based on specific, predetermined standards. These were done by professional men who offered their

services wherever required and requested. The appraisal of schools is closely connected with school surveys.

2.2.1.1 Historical Development of Appraisal Movement-Abroad.

Appraisal of Institutions, mostly - Abroad schools was commonly done by school surveys. The evaluations and school survey practice are known more in U.S.A. "As developed so far, a school survey is a research procedure applied to a school, or school system or to a group either in whole or in part, the purpose of which is to evaluate the service and its purpose and explain alterations or extensions by which the service may be improved. At the outset, the emphasis was on evaluation; this was promptly changed however, and the survey has been developed as an instrument for improving the schools" (Monroe, 1950).

In the U.S.A., the beginning of school survey movement dated back to approximately 1910. From 1910 - 1915 visiting experts were invited to make recommendations concerning such problems as buildings, teachers, curriculum, organizations, educational standards and achievement, financial management and community attitude towards the school (North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools Committee, 1936). In 1918, Bliss published his methods and standard

for local school surveys', and Sears his test: 'The school survey for the Progressive Improvement of schools' in 1925.

A plan for self survey of a state school system by the Research Division of the National Education Association added details to the literature on survey planning. The U.S. Office of Education also conducted research and surveys. From 1925 onwards, Research and Survey Division of certain State Universities made a large number of school surveys. Notable reports of this type of work are those by the North Central Association and by Corporate work of Regional Associations of college and secondary schools. These studies had direct value to the schools they covered, as well as a broad effect by way of clarified and revised educational standards for the country as a whole. A study by W.E. Mc Vey (1942) pointed out that the North Central Association of Schools and Colleges had been a powerful influence in the establishment of standard for secondary schools at the various stages.

The early surveys were limited in view point and values recognised, as well as in the methods and techniques (Monroe, 1956). There was little in the way of such instruments to work with, but they contributed much.

The comprehensive survey conducted in the U.S.A. (Cooper, 1970) covered the following aspects:

- Aims, outcomes, pupil's achievement, curriculum, method and instructional aids
- Administrative problems and procedures of the schools
- Financial policies and procedures
- Operation and maintenance of the physical plant
- Pupil transportations
- Staff and personnel
- School plant and related factors.

Another pioneer of school survey movement was The Indiana University (Church, 1953). It offered instructions on the survey as early as 1915. Based on the 55 surveys it conducted from 1949-1958, it made the following recommendations for making school surveys.

1. that school survey staff plan a periodic follow up study of all school surveys within three years following the survey.
2. that, in school surveys, greater emphasis and time be given to the study of the curriculum and improvement of learning.
3. that a school survey be conducted wherever the local school authorities have insufficient or unreliable data upon which to project their future plan.
4. that a survey be made of the administrative staff, its duties and responsibilities following a period of reorganisation or unusual growth.

5. that funds be reserved for research in education which can be periodically used for some form of school survey.

The most comprehensive attempt to draw up a guide^{for} the evaluation of schools was an outcome of the cooperative study of secondary school standards, which was first organised in 1933 by the representatives of six and major regional accrediting associations (Bells, 1939).

The study provided a series of schedules for evaluating secondary schools in the different areas.

In recent times with school surveys accepted as part of the educational set up, evaluation studies of educational programmes have come into usage. The American model of evaluation has precisely defined behavioural objectives, measurable outcomes, standardized tests and elaborate statistical analysis. More recently published evaluations have included case studies, transcripts, specimens of pupils work while leaving out statistics. There is a trend not to adhere to pre-fabricated models and designs of study, but to make the methodology fit the problem (Weiss, 1972)

2.2.1.2 School Appraisal movement in India

The movement of evaluating the system of secondary school began in the 1950s. Prof. H.B. Wood, member of the U.S.A. Team of Educationists, under the auspices of the U.S. Educational Foundation in India made a commendable attempt towards evaluation. He directed four workshops at Patna, Jabalpur, Baroda and Mysore. The evaluative criteria prepared in 1940, were revised in 1950.

The Evaluative Criteria for Indian Secondary Schools run to over 100 pages. These criteria have been revised by Mukherjee in 1959. He adapted the nomenclature to Indian schools and introduced terminology current in the Indian set up. He also condensed the criteria to a considerable extent (Mukherjee, 1959).

Desai (1966) tried out these criteria in the form of an open and close-ended questionnaire evaluation scale. Desai constructed the basic scale in India in a scientific basis in 1960 and supplemented them by some fact-finding questions to gauge the qualitative and quantitative progress of schools in Gujarat. Thus, he conditioned Evaluative Criteria for a fairly complete picture of the secondary schools of any area chosen for investigation. He had selected to

appraise the schools on an evaluation tool covering five aspects : Physical facilities in the school, teaching - learning programmes, co-curricular programmes, organizational design and evaluation programmes.

As far as surveys are concerned, in India, the NCERT set up the Educational Survey Unit in 1965. The first All India Survey was already conducted in 1957-59 by the Directorate of Extension Programmes in Secondary Education. The second was in 1964-1969. These fact-finding comparative evaluative and bench mark surveys were conducted by National, State and Local level authorities. The third All India Survey, 1973-78, is a comprehensive one - including all levels of the educational system : school, higher education, special and professional. 17 different educational surveys have been conducted, at National level. At state level too, surveys have been conducted. These include a questionnaire with items on the areas of information of the aspects giving a total picture of education. The state of Maharashtra, by 1964 had conducted 5 surveys of Secondary and Higher Education in the State.

Rodrigues (1982) basing on Desai's study prepared an Appraisal tool to evaluate the Jesus and Mary schools covering 13 aspects; Awareness of the purpose, Institutional

Planning, Leadership, Organization, Curricular programmes, Co-curricular activities, Pupil welfare services, School Community Relations, Religious and Moral Education, system Maintenance, System Renewal, Investment and Innovations.

Keeping in mind the specific philosophy, aims and objectives of the schools, she covered all the aspects of school, aim, planning, process and product. Case studies also were conducted of selected schools. The study had special reference to Innovations and Investment to decide the efficiency of the schools surveyed. Thus a comprehensive evaluative survey is used to make critical study or appraisal of schools.

2.3 Approaches to Institutional Appraisal

Institutional evaluation or appraisal in education has tended to be on the basis of one or other or both of the following possible motives: concern for institutional performance in order that the quality of this performance may be improved; a concern for accountability, the need for reporting to those outside the organisation who control the resources and are in a position to require the institution to account for the way in which these resources are being expended.

Of the various approaches to institutional appraisal, the following are in vogue according to Watson,(1981).

(i) The "Market-Forces" Strategy

Fundamental to this strategy is the assumption that the market itself differentiates demand for educational services on the basis of an evaluation conducted by those who need it. By this, the strongest institutions flourish and the weakest or least effective give away: 'the good drives out the bad!' This assumes a free market where reasonable expectation can be met, and that people have sufficient information about institutions to be able to make rational decisions.

(ii) The Direct - Governance Strategy

This involves laymen directly involved in the governance of the institution so that those who evaluate the school are able to do so from a position of the knowledge of the situation. Here much executive power lies in the governing body and the principal has only a restricted role. It also conflicts with the need for professional development of the staff of the educational institution, restricts delegation and the exercise of discretion and judgement

(Watson, 1980a). The setting up of governors does not fit into the modern education system.

(iii) The Inspection Strategy

This is a common strategy for school evaluation. Most school systems make considerable use of external evaluation by inspectors employed by the school systems concerned, and this is certainly so in India (Nair, 1981). The assumptions are, that the system is governed in the light of fairly general rules, the inspector uses a clear criteria for inspection (Watson, 1980a), and that there is a hierarchy of responsibility so that the external inspection can legitimately require the school to conform to the rules or policies; that the expert inspectors can infact evaluate validly and reliably from the outside with minimal day-to-day contact with the schools concerned.

Despite its popularity this strategy has significant disadvantages. It is not easy for the inspectors to know what exactly is happening in a school. The school may present a suitable appearance to the outsider. Because of pressure of time, there is a danger that oversimplistic evaluative criteria may be used. Inspectors from outside with minimal involvement of teachers of the school can

reinforce the rule orientation of teachers (Watson, 1980a) and can alienate them. The on-site inspection was often found to be superficial and the final written report to be vague, inaccurate and of little use as a document upon which to base decisions to improve school programmes (Angney, 1982).

(iv) The Advisory Strategy

This strategy centres around a supply of officials able to identify problems and advise the staff of institutions as to how those might be clarified and solved - a consultancy/support role. This has limitations in the sense that if the advisor has little formal authority within the administrative structure of the school system, his help may not be very practical, nor he be able to represent the interests of the institutions to the administrative hierarchy. If he belongs to administrative hierarchy, this creates role conflicts, problems of creating trust, of confidentiality etc.

(v) The Self-Evaluation Strategy

Because of the difficulties inherent in external evaluation of schools, there has been an argument that it is

the responsibility of the staff of the institution itself, who are professionally responsible for the evaluation of their effectiveness, and that it is through self-evaluation procedures, can the energy and commitment of the staff be generated and harnessed for improvement. By self evaluation, the disadvantages of external evaluation such as, lack of commitment arising from non-involvement of staff in evaluation, distrust of outsiders, and the application of blanket diagnosis and solutions, that do not fit particular circumstances - can be overcome. School self evaluation has always taken place to the extent, that teachers and principals have evaluated their work in order to improve their performance. In the USA, Australia, Canada and the United Kingdom, however, these informal movements have been moving towards much more formal expectations that school will, infact work systematically to review their performance on a regular basis (Smith 1980, Ryan 1979).

This strategy also is not perfect in itself. Colleagues may not be honest with each other. If there is a problem with the principal, it is rather difficult for the staff to reveal it. Unaided self evaluation of the poor school might lead to the reinforcement of mediocrity. For an evaluation which is to be made public, it is difficult to be completely honest. Hence without confidentiality there

is little scope for honesty. Follow up of the self evaluation also is not guaranteed.

(vi) The Supplemented Self Evaluation Strategy

This model involves - taking as the unit of evaluation an appropriate level of the institution, like the whole staff or some subsystem within it., the formal responsibility being on the institution for its own self evaluation, including the development of the criteria for that evaluation. There should be some system of reporting at regular intervals to the appropriate authorities and the follow up of the evaluation is also placed on the institution. The involvement of persons from outside the school, to define his role and manage his use effectively is also very important.

The advantage of this strategy is that it provides opportunity for all, to be involved in the development of the criteria, and other aspects of the evaluation, it provides a basis for structural changes and training programmes, provides some reconciliation of the tension between evaluation for improvement of quality, and for accountability. The limitations such as the meaning of evaluation not being clear to the participants, obtaining

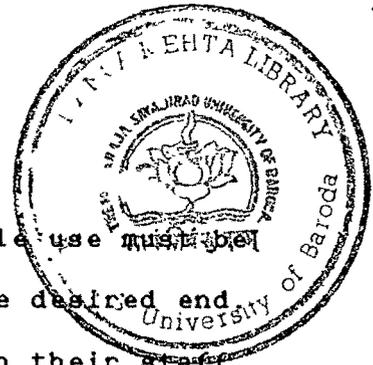
relevant services from outside experts, considerable training for evaluation, obtaining commitment and support of the staff, and the time etc. are still there.

Of the six categories, the one most suitable is the one which suits the circumstances and is effective in achieving the aims of institutional evaluation. There might well be a fairly direct relationship between the pace of development of an education system and the methods used for the evaluation of it and its personnel. Also the quality of the management of educational institutions is central to the effectiveness of the institution and so should be central to its evaluation.

2.4 School Effectiveness

Schools can and do make a difference is an accepted fact. Teachers and schools have very much control over the pupils' outcomes. They have the ability to change their present direction and become really efficient and effective agents of pupils' learning and development or do just the opposite.

Effectiveness means capable of producing desired results. School Effectiveness can be described in various



ways. 'To be effective means the best possible use made of what is available to achieve the desired end. Therefore effective schools must capitalise on their staff, resources and the pupils' abilities to achieve the required outcomes. It is the efficient organisation of curricular and staff resources to give a meaningful education which is balanced, has breadth and fits the children for life. Hence the school, utilising all its resources to the full, to develop the pupils' potential is an effective school. The ability of the school to be successful in achieving its aims and objectives and in preparing pupils, to reach their potential for the next stage of life makes it an effective school. School effectiveness means providing a system of schooling that meets the value of judgements of those directly engaged within the service as well as those whose value judgements are held to be of importance in the wider community. This includes meeting national needs, moral and economic requirements as well as the needs of a rapidly changing technological age. (Reid, 1987).

2.5. Frameworks of School Effectiveness

Frame Works of School effectiveness research has arisen in part as a reaction and challenge to the allegations that schools are not important determinants of pupil

characteristics. (Bernstein 1970, Cooper 1966) . But this view has changed to a great extent and the fact that schools have effects has been confirmed by much recent American researches (Rutter, 1983, Reynolds, 1982), and the British work of Gray et al. (1983) and Galloway et al. (1983). They show substantial school effects even after controlling for the effects of intake variables.

The orientations of research on the effects of schools can be classified under the following frame works:

- i) The input-output frame work.
- ii) The Organizational frame work.
- iii) The institutional frame work.
- iv) The exemplary schools frame work.

Cuttance (1984) outlines the frameworks which the existing body of research has utilised. Early work utilized an input/output model whereby attention was focussed upon the resource inputs available to the school attended by pupils together with the social background of the pupils, as determinants of 'outcome'. The organizational model which became of later popularity saw the social actions of individuals as being constrained by the organizational structure of the school, which was increasingly seen as a

set of nested administrative levels. The institutional model, by contrast, looks at variables which cut across individual schools such as streaming systems, curriculum placements, age differentiation or denominational differentiation for example. The exemplary schools model is used to identify unusually effective schools. It is a combination of the input-output model together with case study or other exploratory methods to study selected schools in greater detail. An important aspect of these studies is their focus on comparisons between schools, in particular, schools were described as 'effective' if their pupils perform at a higher average level than the average school, and 'ineffective' if their pupils perform at a lower average level than the average school. The 'average' school is usually taken to refer to schools in the system which perform at about the mean average level, in a statistical sense, for all schools in the school system under consideration.

2.5.1 The Input - Output Frame Work

The early focus in school effects was on differential effects between schools. The studies typically attempted to account for differences in between school outcomes using economic and policy oriented resource variables, such as

average level of teacher training, average expenditure on text books etc. Economic resources which were found to have little influence on pupil outcomes included those associated with teacher - pupil ratios, teacher education, teacher experience, teacher salaries, average expenditure per pupil, quality of facilities and quality of administrators - (Hanushek, 1981).

The large differences in schooling outcomes between individual pupils were attributed casually to prior home background influences, with a maximum of one quarter of the variation being attributable to differences between schools (Coleman, 1976). Later this view was given up due to two significant developments in research on school effects: first, schooling was not a uniform experience for all, and secondly, there was the emergence of new frame works which viewed schools not as production units, but as organizations or institutions which are linked closely into the wider educational system and other social institutions.

Over the last decade, the main thrust behind school effects research, has shifted away from economic and direct policy related variables, to social processes and educational practices which take place in the process of schooling, giving a shift from input-output frame work. The

new frame -works count institutional variables and social psychological inputs such as pupil motivation, attitudes and behaviours, among resource inputs to schooling and more emphasis is placed on the social, organizational and historical context of schools (Rutter et al, 1979), Gray, Mc Pherson & Raffe, 1983, Mortimore et al. 1985).

These frame works view schools not as autonomously managed production unit, but as a unit which is constrained by the organizational and instructional structure in which it is set, and by its own internal social organisation and structure.

2.5.2. The Organizational Frame Work

Schools consist of a set of administrative levels of organization (Barr and Dreeben, 1983; Dreeben, 1983 Bidwell and Kasarda, 1975, 1980, Bidwell 1983). The description of this model given by Bidwell and Kasarda (1975) also includes level of organization which are beyond that of the school. For Bidwell and Kasarda the main features of the organization of schools are those relating to the production processes of schooling, such as: materials and technology and their configuration, decision making structures and administrative processes of production management. School

effects are thus attributable to the effect of the form, and operation of the organizational structure of schools on individual outcomes.

Each school is seen as having an organizational structure of its own. Hence such structures may vary across schools. If we are to compare schools, the main features of organization of schools which are effective within particular schools are to be spotted. In the organizational model of schooling, resource stocks comprise:

- i) the instructional and managerial resources of teachers and school administrators,
- ii) materials and
- iii) time.

Resource distribution decisions are made at all levels of the organizations of schools and the school system. But at school level, decisions about the allocation of resources are made with respect to such inputs as teaching skills to be allotted to different classes or subject areas, curriculum resources in relation to the time allocated to each subject, material resources in the form of teaching aids and curriculum materials, and the assignment of pupils to classes and curriculum tracks. Even in the class room also the learning which takes place is dependent on the

interaction of teacher and pupil inputs within an emergent frame work conditioned by the social context (climate, ethos) and organization of the school and classroom.

An analytical model needs to include variables which measure the organizational properties of schools, which influence pupils' access to or use of resources, both directly and through the structure of interpersonal interactions within instructional units. Properties of organizations which may affect the process of schooling are those relating to policies and administrative actions with respect to the distribution of resources (Reynolds, 1985). Researches by Rutter et al., (1979) and Reynolds, (1985) have taken seriously the idea that organizational and managerial processes within the schools are significant determinants of pupil outcomes and thus effectiveness.

2.5.3. The Institutional Frame Work

The institutional model of schooling takes the social institutions which cut across schools to be the principal units between which the effects of schooling are to be found, for example, each grade level of schooling, different stages in schooling, different curriculum tracks. The development of this model of schooling has been principally

associated with Meyer (1970, 1977, 1980), Meyer and Rowan (1977, 1978). Meyer argues that schooling is essentially the institutional process by which individuals from particular institutional, social categories are sponsored to take up particular adult institutional positions. The Elementary system and Secondary systems are institutional categories.

Institutional model constraints pupils' actions by organizing learning and participation in a sequenced set of institutional categories and by making success in each of these categories vital to future prospects. It recognises the qualitative nature of differences within the school system, although quantitative differences within the school system, are also important in determining the variation in pupil responses. Qualitative differences are to be found in the different institutions across schools but quantitative variation may occur in pupils' responses within each institution.

2.5.4. The Exemplary Schools Framework

This framework is used to identify effective schools. These studies have employed the analytical model of the input-output approach to locate exceptional schools.

Schools which have high or low adjusted outcomes are described as being particularly effective or ineffective schools, respectively. A measure of the (in) effectiveness of schools is usually calculated as the difference between the actual and the predicted outcome of pupils in a school. This framework is found to be inappropriate methodologically. The pupil outcome is not the only criteria, and also not a reliable criteria to measure school effectiveness. Studies which have employed case study methods to explore the characteristics of schools which had high effectiveness scores (on the basis of the above methodology), have suggested that an effective school is one which has strong instructional leadership, high degree of control or discipline, and high staff expectations for pupil performance.

Recent research by Rutter et al. (1979) Madaus et al. (1979), Steedman (1983), and Gray, McPherson and Raffe (1983) has explored the relationship between the effectiveness of schools and aspects of school organization of schools Cuttance (1985). Rutter et al. focussed on social organizations of schools and investigated the way in which school ethos was related to schooling outcomes. Gray, McPherson and Raffe investigated the influence of schools organizational histories on pupil outcomes. These studies

show to some extent the features of the organizational and institutional frame work in their discussions on the effects of schools.

The Organizational and institutional models provide a suitable conceptual frame work for research on the effectiveness of schools (Cuttance, 1984). They suggest that school effects may be most evident for particular sub groups of pupils between different levels of organization within and between schools and, between different institutions (Meyer, 1980) which cut across schools in an education system.

2.6 School Effectiveness - School Outcomes

Schools make a difference for children. This difference is seen mainly in the outcomes. Outcomes refer to any effects which schooling may have or be assumed to have, on children's development. Outcome measures are not ends in themselves, but rather one of the means necessary to achieve a wider and, a better understanding of the influence on children's progress at school, and the extent to which schooling is achieving its desired aims (Ouston and Maughan, 1985). Among the British researchers, Douglas (1964) studied childrens' performance in the context of family

attitudes and circumstances, while Hargreaves (1967) and Ford (1969) considered the interrelationships between social class, school organization and pupils attitudes and attainments.

At a time when majority of children attend similar types of school, and for a similar period, there has inevitably been a resurgence of interest in the quality of schooling they experience. Studies such as those of Reynolds et al. (1976) and Rutter et al. (1979) have moved away from a focus on social class and expenditure, and turned instead to examine variations in outcome between individual schools. In these studies, measures which in earlier research might principally have been viewed as indicators of pupils progress are seen also as reflecting the effects and effectiveness of schools.

Educational outcome measures have become a central feature in the monitoring and evaluation of educational progress. Outcomes are used in many ways. They can be used as measures of individuals, of groups of single schools, of several schools within and across a school system. In evaluating individual schools, outcomes are not the only way. It is important that schools also attempt to evaluate their own practices. It is necessary to have a critical

appraisal of school process and outcomes. Much of what has been called in school evaluation may actually be descriptions of current practice, useful to the school as a way of highlighting areas of strength and weakness. The ILEA, in 'Keeping the school under Review' (ILEA, 1977), suggest focussing on areas such as the formal curriculum, the informal or hidden curriculum which is revealed in styles of interaction between teachers, students, parents, the use of resources and the organization of class room teaching etc. Shipman (1979) was also concerned with in school evaluation. HMI, in their descriptions of Ten Successful Schools (DES, 1977), used a similar, qualitative approach to delineating good practice.

In order to make a school effective, some experienced teachers opined that they should have knowledge of self and school assessment programmes, setting high personal standards at all times, being a good team player, maintaining the school's and a department's aims and objectives. It is also necessary to have school based in-service and staff development programmes; appropriate educational expertise and knowledge. The school should be able to identify its own needs, weaknesses and strengths and implement programmes accordingly, (Reid et al. 1987). Hence the school has to be aware of its aims and objectives, plan

for its achievement by its various curricular, co-curricular activities, welfare services, ethos and organise the school and its personnel in such a way to achieve, maintain and improve it. For it, a periodic and regular appraisal is necessary to know the needs, weaknesses and strengths and to plan ahead for developmental and improvement activities.

School effectiveness is not instructional effectiveness alone. Rowan, Bossert and Dwyer (1983) contend that the trend in the US has been for research which "has defined school effectiveness narrowly as instructional effectiveness and has measured this construct using standardised achievement tests. The approach ignores the variety of school goals and yields messages of school effectiveness that are invalid and unreliable". Cuban (1984) is also of the same opinion. He reviews the literature of the effective schools which emphasises goal-setting, targetting, academic aims, establishing and maintaining high expectations and frequent monitoring etc., and concludes that not only is it 'conceptually simple' but it leads to policies which 'promote tighter coupling between organisational goals and formal structure, while relying on a traditional top down pattern of implementation'.

Many of the researchers have encouraged the schools to become institutions for learning, linking with the local community and having a climate conducive to growth. Hoyle's (1975) concept of the creative school also influenced this thought. The importance of consultation, team work, participation, power-sharing and delegation are stressed.

2.7. School Effectiveness and Change

Schools to be effective should bring about change. Change is a process and not an event, and hence the schools should improve their understanding of the dynamics of change. The goal is the effective implementation of innovations, it is the effecting of change. 'Policy is effectively "made" by the people who implement it' (Pressman and Wildarsky, 1979). Fullan (1985) makes much the same point when he maintains that teachers, administrators and support agents should 'share the considerable burden of development required by long term improvement'.

Purkey and Smith (1985) have recommended the introduction of an in-service approach in which: "instead of a few teachers receiving in-service credit for attending a class at a local college, the entire school's staff would be

offered credit for in-school workshops or for participating in collaborative improvement efforts."

Purkey and Smith (1985) and Holly (ed. 1986) stress the importance of evaluation within, and on behalf of the development process. They are of the opinion that 'some means of measuring change is necessary as evidence that schools have indeed advanced or to show where further improvement must take place. A base line must be established to which schools can be periodically compared'. They recommend that each school's progress being reviewed against its own baseline. An effective school will consider 'successful', 'good' schooling both as a product and a process. The Schmucks (1974) pointed out the importance of 'humanised' process of schooling. The process is educative for all learners, students and teachers. Relationships engender learning. This will have an 'effect', impact or make lasting impression in the doing of teaching and learning. The medium is the message; the effective school is an affective one, and effects change (develops) effectively. It establishes a development culture, it is ready both for change and the release of creative energy.

2.8. School Effectiveness and School Improvement

Effective schools and school improvement are complementary. Effective school literature is concerned to develop the criteria that characterise the effective schools; to provide a model for effective school. The schools improvement studies are more action and developmentally oriented. They embody the long-term goal of moving towards the vision of the 'problem-solving' or 'relatively autonomous' schools and are more concerned to promote and evaluate school improvement strategies. The international school improvement project is a good example of work in this area (Van Velzen et al. 1985; Hopkins 1987). The current OECD/CERI International School Improvement Project (ISIP) defines school improvement as:

"the change of teaching-learning process and/or the internal conditions in one or more schools with the ultimate aim to accomplish the educational goals by the school(s) more effectively".

The International School Improvement Project (ISIP) has identified six areas of focus which emphasises on school improvement. They are:

- School Based Review for school improvement;
- Principals and internal change agents in the school improvement process;

- the role of external support in school improvement;
- research and evaluation in school improvement.
- School improvement policy.
- Conceptual mapping of school improvement. (Hopkins, Holly, Reid, 1987).

They constitute a set of activities such as school based in-service, school self evaluation, organisation development, school-based curriculum development, participatory decision-making etc. The effective school brings about school improvement. The eight organisation factors identified as characteristics of effective schools by the above authors are:

- Curriculum focussed school leadership,
- Supportive climate within the school,
- Emphasis on curriculum and instruction, (eg. maximising academic learning);
- Clear goals and high expectations for students;
- A system for monitoring performance and achievement,
- On-going staff development and inservice;
- Parental involvement and support;
- LEA support.

These organisation factors according to Fullan (1985) do not include any process factors. He includes four

process factors which are fundamental for successful processes. They are:

1. A feel for the process on the part of leadership.
2. A guiding value system.
3. Intense interaction and communication.
4. Collaborative planning and implementation.

The leadership or the management is to sense the need for change process and lead the entire organisation towards it. A guiding value system refers to a consensus on high expectations, clear and explicit goals, clear rules, a genuine caring about individuals etc. Intense interaction and communication refers to simultaneous support and pressure at both horizontal and vertical levels within the school. Collaborative planning and implementation needs to occur both within and outside the school.

2.9. Research Findings from Industries

Thomas Peters and Robert Waterman (1982) as a result of their study of America's best-run companies characterised excellent companies by the following. The good schools could also be characterised similarly:

1. Commitment: The school's mission that is collectively arrived at, set of behaviours and outcomes that are sufficiently specific which would acculturate new organisational members and control the behaviour of veteran members.
2. Expectations: of confident people who expect others to perform to their personal level of quality. The administrators, teachers, students all expecting each to do their part.
3. Action: They do things. They have a bias for action, proclivity for success and a sense of opportunism. They plan, decide, try out, drop bad trials and play within their strengths.
4. Leadership: Leaders and innovators who create an environment of trial and tolerance for failure are essential.
5. Focus: Student achievement as a result of teaching learning in classrooms, staff development programmes concentrate on classrooms oriented skills and understandings.
6. Climate: Good schools work for all people in the building, and they are good places to live in and work for every body creating an orderly and safe environment for students and teachers.
7. Slack: Good schools have a reasonable level of human resources and slack time. Time for teachers to participate in staff development activity and to incorporate new practices is necessary. Tolerance for failure, encouragement for experimentations and the capacity to invent and adapt innovations are

not achievable in organisational settings when effectiveness is regularly traded off for efficiency.

The school ethos or school climate which are generated by schools (Sarason, 1982) reflects the internal capacity of the school to change.

2.10. A Model for School Improvement

How does a school become more effective? Fullan (1985) illustrates the interaction between the organization factors and process factors mentioned earlier.

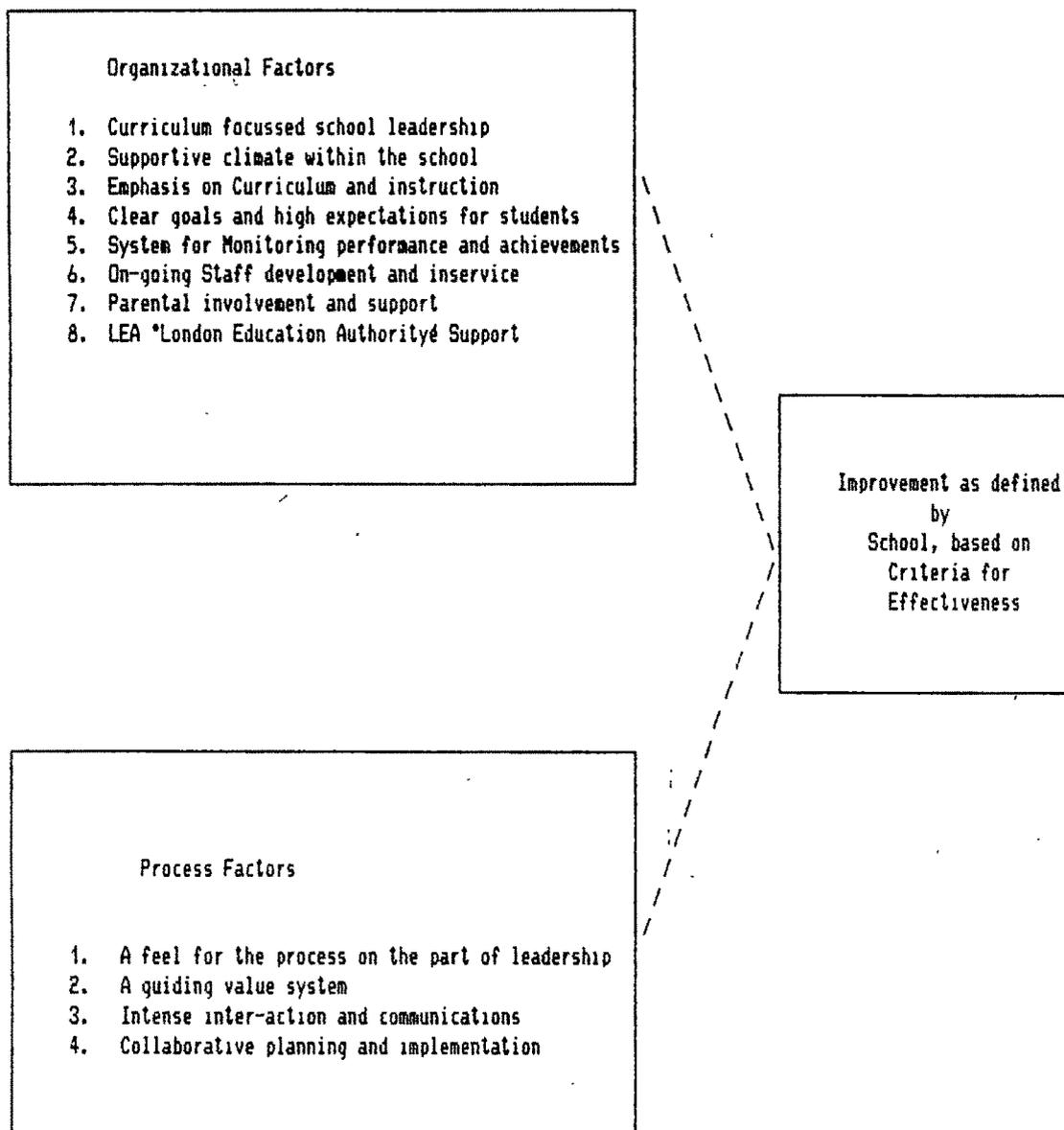


Fig. 2.1 School Improvement Process (Fullan, 1985)

According to Fullan, (1985) the improvement is the result of interaction between the organizations factors and process factors.

The process factors provide the means for achieving organizational change. They lubricate the system and 'fuel the dynamics of interaction', resulting in improvement, based on the criteria for effectiveness. But there is no simple combination of variables that will produce an effective school (Brookover et al. 1979. Bryan and Digsby (1983) caution that a balanced appraisal of the effectiveness of school and school's system is essential. Only when schools maximise the chance of efficient learning taking place in every class room for every pupil, will they be judged effective.

In order to make and keep a school effective the following factors play an important role; School leadership, school management, school ethos, discipline, teachers and teaching, curriculum, student learning, pupil welfare and care; and the physical facilities and its maintenance. The tool one uses to evaluate must be appropriate to the tasks that confront one. As Carmel Leavey (1971) insists, "the whole evaluation procedure needs to match the richness and complexity of the whole educational situation".

2.11. Conclusion

School effectiveness can be measured by measuring the school outcomes. It will include achievement of the purpose of the institution or the process or means of achieving it and the product or outcome of the means.

The achievement of the aim or purpose necessitates the awareness there of by the school, that is, the administrators, teachers, students, parents and community on the whole. The aim can be achieved through purposeful and efficient planning. This is done through a proper and participatory institutional plan, where in the activities are planned for the achievement of the long term and short term goals involving all the concerned persons. This can be initiated and oriented when there is proper and efficient leadership for any institution, because the success of the activities depends upon practical and timely plans which are executed by the right persons in the right time depending upon the human and material resources. The Organisation of the entire school system according to its aim and plans for different activities is the practical measure for its success. Most of the time and energy in the school by teachers and students are spent in curricular activities and there is a tendency to measure the effectiveness^{of} the school₁

based merely on its academic achievement. An appraisal of these makes it very necessary to evaluate the school. Co-curricular activities are very necessary to bring about the allround development of the students and the school effectiveness is not only instructional effectiveness. The school is second home for the students and a good school is concerned about the welfare of its pupils. Hence the Pupil-Welfare Services are an index of the effectiveness of any school. The education of the youth is the joint responsibility of the school and society. Hence there should be cordial relationship between the school and the community and it promotes school effectiveness. The spiritual and moral life of the students is nurtured and developed through the regular and well planned religious and moral educational classes which is also one of the special aspects of a good school. The school plant is to be maintained well and its upkeep should be regular for the maximisation of its benefit to all concerned. The teachers, students, parents and the community should keep renewing themselves, changing with the need of the society and making growth and maximum development possible for all. There should be enough of financial resources and these should be invested in the right way, for the right cause and at the right time. Growth is possible when there is possibility of experimentation, trial and error and risk taking to try new

projects and techniques and institutionalise innovations based on its practical values.

Hence the effectiveness of the school in general can be measured through a comprehensive study of these different aspects: Awareness of the aim, Institutional planning, Leadership, Organisation, Curricular programmes, Co-curricular activities, pupil welfare services, school-community relationships, religious and moral education, system maintenance, system renewal, investment and innovations - which make up the entire life and activities of any school and very specially a J.M.J. school. Therefore the investigator intends to make a study of these aspects in every JMJ school for its appraisal.