EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT AND POLICY ANALYSIS:

Application of Basic Concepts in Administration of Higher Education



Bakwaph Peter Kanyip (PhD.)

EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT AND POLICY ANALYSIS:

An Application of Basic Concepts in Administration of Higher Education

Bakwaph Peter Kanyip (PhD)

EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT AND POLICY ANALYSIS:
An Application of Basic Concepts in Administration of Higher Education

Copyright © 2024

Bakwaph Peter Kanyip (PhD)
First Published, 2024

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system, or transmitted, in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording, or otherwise, without the prior written permission of the publisher. Printed in the Federal Republic of Nigeria.

E-mail: bakwaph@yahoo.com
Phone No: +2348039398830

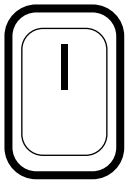
ISBN: 978-978-60783-3-5

Printed in Nigeria by:

Augustinian Digital Press
Opposite St Monica's Catholic Church
State low-cost Jos Plateau state
Tel:08134395413, 08058914777

Table of contents

Table of Contents:..... i
Dedication:..... iii
Foreword:..... iv
Introduction:..... 1
CHAPTER ONE:
Concept of Education:..... 5
CHAPTER TWO:
Administration and Management:..... 37
CHAPTER THREE:
Administrative Behavior:..... 85
CHAPTER FOUR:
Decision Making in Administration:..... 113
CHAPTER FIVE:
Motivation in Administration:..... 136
CHAPTER SIX:
Communication in Management:..... 154
CHAPTER SEVEN:
Leadership in Educational System:..... 167
CHAPTER EIGHT:
Change and Innovation in An Organization:..... 203
CHAPTER NINE:
Educational Planning:..... 225
CHAPTER TEN:
The School Plant:..... 301
CHAPTER ELEVEN:
Planning: Management Students' Activities:..... 315
CHAPTER TWELVE:
Planning: Teacher Demand, Support, and Utilization:..... 324



CHAPTER THIRTEEN:
School Community Relations:..... 338
CHAPTER FOURTEEN:
School Community Relations:..... 354
CHAPTER FIFTEEN:
Supervision and Inspection:..... 409
CHAPTER SIXTEEN:
School Records:..... 430
CHAPTER SEVENTEEN:
The School Timetable:..... 446
CHAPTER EIGHTEEN:
Policy Planning in Education:..... 455
CHAPTER NINETEEN:
Education Finance:..... 540
CHAPTER TWENTY:
School Budget:..... 571
CHAPTER TWENTY ONE:
School Discipline:..... 586
CHAPTER TWENTY TWO:
Patristic Education:..... 591

Dedication

This work is dedicated to my late parents and siblings, who are always there for me. My sister-in-law, Honorable Justice Rosemary Dodo Kanyip (my sweet Honey Din!), My Archbishop, Most Rev. Dr. Matthew Man'Oso Ndagoso And Professor Barbara Strobert (USA), my mentor in the academics. I appreciate these people for their love and support in my life.

Foreword

I consider writing this foreword beyond mere honor done me, for two broad reasons; firstly, having spent twenty-five (25) years in the university system, Professing for over a decade now and still counting, I was tempted to rationalize that very little is left unstudied in the field of Educational Management and Policy. This text titled **EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT AND POLICY ANALYSIS; APPLICATION OF BASIC CONCEPTS IN ADMINISTRATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION** has proven this axiom that I considered germane by default very dogmatic and otherwise. The advent of this creative approach in this new addition to the subject, authored by Very Rev. Fr. Dr. Bakwaph Peter Kanyip, an Associate Professor in Educational Management, has not only educated me and my co-travelers, who hold the same shade of opinion on the subject, but has equally through this humbled effort made us comprehend in lucid language through its logical analysis that much is yet to be covered and indeed studied in the discipline that has today

become very sophisticated at a higher level of scholarship, and even much subscribed, at postgraduate level. Secondly, this in itself has exemplified the beauty of knowledge generation that cannot be pidgin-held or compartmentalized.

The Text Educational Management and Policy Analysis; Application of Basic Concepts in Administration of Higher Education is segmented into twenty-two (22) chapters and each deals with a fundamental aspect of Educational Management that is tangential to the administration of higher education. The book further dissects its anatomy in simple and comprehensive language for the reader's delight. What is of scientific interest is the gamut of relevant evidence of minute details and eyes for mechanical accuracy in the presentation of facts within the discipline under review, which is very commendable. More so, the combination of the author's ecclesiastical background further shaped the direction of thoughts with Christian charity, and ethics in the promotion of effective administration of higher education which was hitherto a deficient component now made available. This blend of background reflective on the text has shown the capacity of creating a Womuo Universale and proactive menials, men of virtue with unpolluted integrity in the management of educational enterprise rather than a cacophony of neophytes in the field who merely exhibited gaps and distortions in knowledge for which this current effort aspired and has corrected.

From a collection of the twenty two (22) chapters x-rayed and painstakingly written, the scholar addressed the conventional and innovative educational management approaches from both national and international perspectives. The thinking of this publication is to arrive at a position common to varied stakeholders whose interests on the subject are affected, a movement towards systematic planning from the angle of participatory planning, a basic step in policy design and formulation.

Generally, the text has charted a cause of action in a new educational management trajectory. It is convincing that this humble effort has provided a leeway as a policy guide to overcoming the frontal issues that are today exacerbated by leadership crises in some less developed countries of the world, as noted by the erudite scholar, Very Rev. Fr. Dr. Bakwaph Peter Kanyip in his text.

The evidence adduced in this edition on Educational Management is very adequate to market the contents as a credible product itself. Accordingly, I am strongly recommending this text to government bureaucrats, parents, proprietors of schools, education administrators, lecturers and students, particularly, at the tertiary level to share in the lessons therefrom, to bring about an informed and improved educational management architecture for the globe, for which Nigeria is not an exception.

Prof. John A. Undie (KSM)
Former Director of Academic Planning
University of Calabar & National President,
Association of Educational Management and Policy Practitioners
(A'EMAPP)

INTRODUCTION

Application of basic concepts in administration of higher education is the tool to tackle the 21st Century educational challenges such as quality, inclusivity, identity, mission, relativism, secularism, materialism, sexual imperialism, over-glorification of ICT and social media which are detrimental to true education. Educational management is one of a trilogy of overlapping concepts, along with educational administration and educational leadership. These three concepts are treated in this book as they related but possessed definitional differences depending on where the terms are applied. Educational management refers to the administration of the education system in which a group combines human and material resources to supervise, plan, strategize, and implement structures to execute an education system. Education on the other hand impacts knowledge,

skills, values, beliefs, habits, and attitudes with learning experiences. The education system is an ecosystem of professionals in educational institutions, such as government ministries, unions, statutory boards, agencies, and schools. The education system consists of political heads, principals, teaching staff, non-teaching staff, administrative personnel, and other educational professionals working together to enrich and enhance the education system. At all levels of the educational ecosystem, management is required; management involves the planning, organizing, implementation, review, evaluation, and integration of an institution. The overall purpose of educational management is to effectively and efficiently create and maintain environments within educational institutions that promote, support, and sustain effective teaching and learning.

Policy is a fundamental process through which an institution attains stability and undertakes order changes as part of its ultimate goal. Policies are written or unwritten statement that guides the present and future thinking initiatives and also directs the decisions of management. A nation's policy on education is the government's way of realizing national goals which can be achieved using education as a tool. Before policies are made there are expectations for positive changes in the system. This can only be achieved through adequate funding. This book examined policy analysis and implementation alongside the challenges confronting policy implementation in Nigeria. It identified some challenges in funding education policies and programs which

include educational funding problems associated with policy implementation inconsistency in educational policies and programs. Since education policies are necessary, it stressed the need to give sufficient time for the implementation. Some strategies that can help to correct the problems in the system were also suggested.

In striving to accomplish educational goals, educational managers and policy makers through thoughtful practical application of management principles and policies, can enlist and organize a society's available resources to attain the educational goals that have been set by that society's political leaders. Educational management must be responsive to unplanned, disruptive change created by rapid changes in both social structures and cultures as well as advances in digital technologies. This is where the element of educational leadership that directs and guides the entire process of educational management and administration takes on particular importance. Leadership includes both manager and teacher professional ethics and is expressed within a variety of theories of ethical leadership in education that respond to cultural imperatives in differing societies.

Educational management must be responsive to both global and local changes due to technological developments that directly impact teaching and learning through changes in curriculum in terms of pedagogical and assessment practices. It is how educational management as a discipline evolves to effectively meet the needs of

educational systems contingent upon the challenges derived from technological, social, cultural, and economic changes sweeping the globe in this 21st century that will determine the effectiveness and efficacy of management practices going forward. Effectively and innovatively managing change is the primary challenge facing educational management locally, regionally, and globally in the decades ahead. This resource material is a compendium meant to assist administrators, educationists, and policy makers to enhance the educational system in this 21st Century.

Chapter One

CONCEPT OF EDUCATION

The concept of education is not as simple as we generally assume. Etymologically, education derives its meaning from the two Latin words 'educare' and 'educere', respectively. The word 'educare' is interpreted to mean *"to train, form, or mold"*. In other words, education implies that society trains, forms, or molds the individual to achieve societal needs and aspirations. This perspective on education has little to do with the natural potential of the individual child. The Latin word "educare" also means to bring out," to bring out the hidden potentials, capabilities, abilities, and powers in a person, then nurture them by inculcating or impacting knowledge, skills, values, morale, norms, and cultural beliefs in order to better the person, and the person in turn develops society to make it a better place. So, education is all about changing a person to be humble and serviceable to society. The word 'education' is exclusively used for the development of human beings in the cognitive, affective, psychomotor, and psycho-productive domains. There is a general agreement among educationists and educators that education involves a desirable change in human behavior through the process of teaching and learning. This means that a human

being who exhibits undesirable behaviors from the point of view of acceptable societal norms cannot be adjudged an educated person, despite the fact that he has passed through the four walls of an educational institution.

Society generally expects a kind of change from an educated person. Education, as a process of initiating the child into cherished norms and skills, is designed and implemented by the more mature or adult members of society to effect the desirable changes in the younger ones, from one generation to the next. On the contrary, the word 'educere' is interpreted to mean: "*to build, to lead, or to develop*". This perspective of the concept is mostly favored by humanists, who insist that the function of education is to develop the natural potentialities of the child to enable him to function in society according to his abilities, interests, and needs. This perspective of the concept of education is child-centered, whereas the former is society-centered or subject-matter-centered.

From the ongoing discussion, therefore, education could be understood to mean the total development of the individual child through acceptable methods and techniques, according to his abilities and interests, as well as the needs of society, to take his rightful place and contribute adequately to the advancement of his society.

Education has been defined as what each generation gives to its younger ones, which makes them to develop attitudes, abilities, skills,

and other behaviors that are of positive value to the society in which they live. This position reflects the sociological perspective.

Education is a social service, provided world-wide with multiple objectives in mind. The objectives vary from the acquisition of basic skills required for a more rapid growth of the economy and the basic knowledge for the individual to function effectively in society.

But in spite of the difficulties, it is now generally agreed that education implies development in the child what the society believes to be valuable. Education is as old as man on earth, and there is no society without one form of education or the other, because, without education, socialization within the society cannot be possible. The term education is elusive. It is simply difficult to say what education is, but rather, a simpler definition has been given by UNESCO. They viewed education as "Organized and sustained instruction designed to communicate a combination of knowledge, skills and understanding valuable for all the activities of life". Education is viewed as "a cultural process in itself and the way a new-born individual is transformed into a full member of a given society." In addition, education is generally aimed at making an individual socially, mentally, emotionally, and morally sound so as to be able to contribute his quarter to the development of his society in general. Education, as it is today known, is a triune concept with at least three connotations. It is a process, a product, and a discipline. But this is only lexically so, for the three concepts are in turn interlaced. Thus, we

can say that education is a means through which an individual "develops his abilities, skills, capabilities, and all forms of behavior patterns that are of positive value in the society in which he lives". In this definition, the "means" are the process, while the skills and all forms of behavior patterns acquired, which constitute the aggregate of all the processes, are the products. In our study of both the process and the products, we ask such questions as, why do we educate? And how do we educate? This constitutes the discipline.

I. Education as a Process

Education is a process whereby the immature members of a group or society are brought to maturity through the influence of the environment. An individual is said to be mature when he has been conditioned to the habits, attitudes, values, and customs of the group to which he belongs. An individual's environment includes those forces that direct his actions. They may be physical or non-physical, near in time and space, or extensively remote. They may include animate objects like men and other living things, as well as inanimate objects or nonliving things. The environment may be social or psychological.

The social environment consists of all the activities of fellow beings that are bound up in the carrying on of the activities of any of its members. The psychological environment, on the other hand, consists of all those things "around us" that stimulate us to action and make us behave the way we do. Education is a social process that begins at birth. As a social being, the child interacts with the people and things around

him, at first completely dependent on them. From birth through childhood to adulthood, he passes through different stages of life. At each stage, he has distinct needs and varying capacities. Through the responses that others make to his own behavior, he comes to understand and evaluate his surroundings and to distinguish good from bad. At each stage of his growth, he is expected to behave according to the norms of each group to which he belongs; the roles and parts he plays in each sub-culture and at each level are quite distinct. Education is therefore a process through which the individual passes from birth to death.

II. Education as a Product

Education, as a product, is the sum total of a man's experiences. Through the process of education, we learn, and this learning may be simply cognitive, as when we acquire ordinary knowledge; that is, when we simply know. It may be the acquisition of a motor skill, as when we learn to eat, write, or drive. It could also be simply effective, as when there is a formation or change of attitude in us. In other words, the knowledge we have of things around us, the things we can do today, and our attitudes, interests, tastes, and values are the products of education.

III. Education as a Discipline

Education as a discipline is an organized body of knowledge, multipartite in nature, that deals with issues of what, why, how, who, and even when in the educational process. The questions often asked here are: Why do

we educate? How do we educate? Who do we educate? What do we educate with? When do we educate? In other words, education as a discipline deals with such pathogenic questions as context, reasons, methods, and timing in the process of education, as well as the background of the individual to be educated. These questions are usually treated under different specializations within the broader field of education. For example, the questions of "who" and "when" we educate take us to the fields of educational psychology, "why", educational philosophy, "who", to educational methodology, while the issue of "what" comes under the focus of educational curriculum. The nature of education can also be viewed from the perspectives of formal, informal, and non-formal education. A large part of education can be acquired from outside the classroom. Such sources include the home, peer groups, and other non-classroom situations. Formal education means any form of teaching-learning process that has a generally accepted and regular set of rules, organization, and pattern. It may generally be referred to as schooling. The following characteristics make formal education unique:

1. It is strictly controlled.
2. It is curriculum-oriented.
3. It is evaluative and/or examination-oriented.
4. It requires regular financing.
5. It involves professionally qualified staff.

Simply put, formal education is a consciously planned form of education. In modern times, formal education is exemplified by the

training presently given in our schools and colleges. The informal form of education is the process of acquiring knowledge about the world around us through living with others. It takes place everywhere: at home, in playgrounds, among peer groups, between club members, college cliques, workshop gangs, in the market, in business circles, etc. The nature of education has been the subject of a considerable amount of analysis by philosophers of education. It is regarded as the greatest asset a society can boast of and a great legacy that parents can leave for their children. All this is due to the fact that education is the most powerful instrument of social change, economic, political, and cultural development, as well as scientific and technological development.

Education also serves the functions of developing social, psychological, mental, emotional and intellectual development of an individual. Furthermore, education can be formal, non-formal, or informal, each with its own unique characteristics that differentiate it from another. For instance, while formal education is systematic and at the same time costly, non-formal education is flexible in its curriculum and generally cost-effective, while informal education, on the other hand, is acquired either through interaction in society or through distinct personal experience. Yet others may see education as the quality of being able to read, write, perform skills, and become morally acceptable to one's society.

It is important to note that education serves both the needs of the

individual and the needs of society. For the individual, education means the provision of opportunities for him to realize his potential goals and abilities in life. The realization of such abilities and goals will, in turn, make the individual a useful and happy citizen in society. The above explanation shows that education goes beyond literacy alone. It also includes the acquisition of functional skills, moral identity, and the ambition to succeed in life and to improve society. At the national level, education can be defined as a tool for building a united, independent, and wealthy egalitarian society that is capable of maintaining its traditions and values.

IV. Types of Education

a) Traditional

Traditional education is the indigenous, ancient, or old education in any society, which is as old as the society itself. Through this system of education, the attitudes, beliefs, morals, customs, traditions, etc. of society are passed from one generation to the next. The aims and objectives of such a type of education are to produce people or citizens who are honest, respectable, skilled, intelligent, cooperative, and culturally groomed. The curriculum, methodology, general organization, and administrative structure of traditional education are patterned in accordance with the opinions, beliefs, customs, principles, experiences, and practices of the community in which the education is taking place.

Traditional education in Nigeria was highly developed long before the advent of western education. The curriculum of traditional education consists mainly of the learning of functional skills and morals, which are necessary to live in peace and protect the community from external aggression by neighboring ethnic groups. Most of the teaching and learning were conducted informally through socialization processes. Literacy was not given much attention, so most of the learning and teaching were done through oral work and memorization. The period of graduation required for the mastery of any skill depended on when the learner could show enough practical evidence of competence during the entire period of the apprenticeship. The learners are usually grouped according to their age, grade, sex, or kinship.

In traditional education, the staffing system is not regular or specific. The teacher of a particular skill or moral must be versed in the field he or she is supposed to teach. Today, such practices have changed. One single staff member in the traditional system of education may perform the roles of a teacher, an elder, a craftsman, a moralist, a disciplinarian, a judge, a priest, etc. The learning experiences in traditional education in Nigeria include various types of skills such as pottery, weaving, agriculture, mother-craft, cooking, trading, wrestling, oratory, fortune-telling, traditional healing, fishing, respect for elders, taboos and cultural norms, hunting, warfare tactics, blacksmithing, and many other drafts and services.

b. Muslim Education

The history of Muslim education in Nigeria dates back to the early 13th century; during this period, there were Islamic centres all over the West African states. Wherever the Islamic religion spread, Islamic education was also introduced. The Quran, which is the holy book of Islamic religion, is the basis for all Islamic education and tradition. Mosques were also built as places of worship. Islamic schools were introduced into various parts of the country. The system of education that was popularized can be divided into three phases. The first begins at about five, when young Muslim children are sent to the Quranic schools, where they are taught to memorize the Quran in well-drawn-out stages. Here, children are taught stories about the prophet and some elementary history of the religion. They also learn how to conduct a service. Thus learning to be godly Muslims by acquiring the habits of prayer and worship. During the second phase, students begin a more meaningful study of the Quran. They learn to read and write Arabic, and as they become more competent, they learn grammar, literature, poetry, Islamic law, etc. The third stage is really a continuation of the second phase, with a wider curriculum content to incorporate grammatical inflexion, syntax, algebra, jurisprudence, scholastic theology, and the interpretation of the laws. During this stage, students decide on areas of specialization. They often travel to the major centres such as Ilorin, Kano, Fez, Cairo, Sankore, Timbuktu, Sudan, and many others. The Muslim education system comprises the Quranic schools, which are aimed at

exposing the learner (man or woman) to the divine words of God to enable him or her to recite portions of the Quran during regular prayers and other religious duties of Islam and to prepare the learner for useful living as a committed and practicing Muslim in later life to achieve moral and spiritual excellence in life.

c. Western Education

Any discussion on western education will be incomplete without mentioning the activities of the missionaries in the areas that would later be called Nigeria, whose sole aim was to propagate the religion of Christianity. With the introduction of Christianity, western types of education naturally followed, as it was a common strategy that as soon as a station was established, one of the first facilities to be provided was a school. Since the motive of the missionaries was solemnly to spread Christianity, the purpose of education for them was ultimately directed at training the converts and their followers to become teachers, catechists, interpreters, cooks, and servants.

The school curriculum, organization, control, and general management of the type of education received were heavily Christian-biased. For nearly forty years, the organization, control, and general management of western education were left exclusively in the hands of the Christian missions that brought education into the country. With the amalgamation of the southern and northern protectorates in 1914 to form a single country now known as Nigeria, the British colonial government became more involved in establishing educational

institutions in various parts of the country. Various commissions were set up by the colonial government to look into the types, finances, and organizational structure of the existing schools with a view to giving recommendations for improvement. Notable among such commissions were the famous Phelps Stroke Commission (1920) and the Asquith and Elliot Commission of 1959. The report and recommendations of these commissions brought improved western education to Nigeria. Grant-in-aid advisory and inspectorate services, educational administration and infrastructure, staffing conditions, methodology, and the curriculum were all upgraded.

In 1960, when Nigeria got independence, the trend of events in the education sector automatically changed, and today, the business of western education is both in the hands of the government and private concerns that run schools to suit modern development in the spheres of science and technology. Western education has contributed immensely to the political, cultural, and economic progress in Nigeria. The English language, which is now one of the official languages of the country, was brought into the country through western education as a medium of instruction.

Most countries in the world, such as the United States of America and the Commonwealth countries, use the English language as their medium of instruction. Nigeria, therefore, benefits from this communal advantage through international trade, diplomacy, and the acquisition

of advanced technology. Today, Nigeria still depends on Britain, the United States of America, and other European countries for further studies and the transfer of technology, despite the establishment of many educational institutions in Nigeria itself. Western education also introduced improved education to Nigeria. Most of the institutions established were patterned after those in Europe. The introduction of western culture, such as western art, music, dresses, architecture, and other ways of life, is all the product of western education. Literacy and numeracy were highly improved by western education.

V. Forms of Education

Education can generally be classified into three forms, namely: formal, informal, and non-formal. Through these various forms, some people might be receiving education without knowing it. But there are limits to what each form of education can do for the receiver. The type of society in which one finds oneself and the type of person one is determine by what form of education is most appropriate for one. It is also important to observe that so many people have passed through all three forms of education without knowing it.

a. Formal Education

This is the type of education that is received in the regular formal school setting, for instance, in primary, secondary, and tertiary institutions. Formal education has a well-determined setting where well-trained and equipped personnel (teachers) interact on a regular basis with the learner(s) through planned educational processes. The curriculum, the

learning environment, instructional materials, testing and evaluation, human resources, and others are planned ahead of time to achieve specific objectives within the time frame. Everything is patterned from the entry point to the exit point. The books, the classroom, the pupils, teachers, curriculum, etc. are selected and formalized.

b. Informal Education

This process of education includes all other agencies of learning outside the formal learning system. These agencies include the home (family), church or mosque, peer group, and mass media. Informal education can also be received in the market, on the farm, along the road, and so on. Though not deliberately planned like formal education, informal education provides learning opportunities for the child to develop his natural potential within a given limit. It enlarges the child's scope of learning and helps to build up the comprehensive experience of the formal education system.

What the child learns from his his/her mother, father, elderly relatives, peer groups, associations, etc. falls under informal education. In this form of education, the child or the adult can learn from one another or from society, consciously or unconsciously. Informal education is still relevant today. It can also provide some raw data to the child, which could be refined in the formal school system. But he should be guided so that what he or she learns through this form of education is not negative.

c. Non-Formal

This form of education has some basic characteristics of formal education, like a planned program of action, contact persons, programmed assignments or examinations, and others, but it is not formal. It is non-formal. It is not within the regular school system. Non-formal education is mainly received through workshops, seminars, correspondences, television and radio media. In the case of workshops and seminars, non-formal education is used to equip the individual with some basic skills, attitudes, and intelligence required for human and societal growth at one particular time or another. The learning process has spread over the years, but it lacks regular person-to-person interaction. However, it is a complementary form of education. It helps to update knowledge, as in the case of workshops and seminars, and to take care of the education of a particular class, as in the case of the correspondence program. Each of these three forms of education is important to human and societal growth and survival and should be encouraged. An average person must pass through all of them, consciously and/or unconsciously.

VI. Educational Trends: Levels of Education

a. Pre-Primary

This is the first level of education. The third national development plan ignores the whole question of preschool education; the action was attributed to an inadequate understanding of the whole concept of

preschool education. But the National Policy on Education has been explicit on this issue, not only by itemizing what it considers the functions of pre-primary education but also by providing policy guidelines on the establishment of such institutions. The fundamental aim of this is to prepare under-primary school-going-age children from the ages of 3-6 for primary school and, at the same time, to inculcate a culture of attendance.

b. Primary School Level

The second level through which education flows is the primary level. In this category, children who are up to six years of age are enrolled to undergo primary school education, which will last the period of six years during which pupils are thoroughly prepared, among other things, to sit for a standard examination that will take them to the higher level—the post-primary school level.

c. Post-Primary School Level

This level which is generally regarded as secondary school level is aimed at:

(i) Preparation for useful living within the society; and
(ii) Preparation for higher education.

An examination of the structure and content of the school will be necessary in order to know the extent of its contribution to the present system. The policy prescribes a two-tier secondary education for a duration of six years. The first three years would be devoted to the intensification of the general education already begun in primary school.

It is also noteworthy that the junior secondary school level would be devoted to pre-vocational education. Apart from its comprehensive nature, the senior secondary school will be for those who have shown education, thus replacing the sixth form.

d. Higher Education

Education as incorporated in the National Policy on Education encompasses the post-secondary section of the national educational system, which is given in universities, polytechnics, and colleges of technology, including such courses as are given by the colleges of education, the advanced teacher training colleges, correspondence colleges, and such other institutions as may be allied to them. You have, in this unit, been exposed to the different levels of education in Nigeria, starting from the pre-primary school level to the higher education level. This is to provide you with the structural patterns that a child in Nigerian society has to follow to attain a higher education level. This unit encompasses the different levels of education in Nigeria, the duration of each level, the aims and objectives of each level, and the reasons for categorizing education into the levels.

VII. Foundations of Education

a. Defining Foundations of Education

Foundations of Education refers to a broadly conceived field of educational study that derives its character and methods from a number of academic disciplines, combinations of disciplines, and area studies,

including history, philosophy, sociology, anthropology, religion, political science, economics, psychology, cultural studies, gender studies, comparative and international education, educational studies, and educational policy studies. As distinct from the psychological foundations of education, which rely on the behavioral sciences, these standards address the social foundations of education, which rely heavily on the disciplines and methodologies of the humanities, particularly history and philosophy, and the social sciences, such as sociology and political science. The purpose of the foundations study is to bring these disciplinary resources to bear in developing interpretive, normative, and critical perspectives on education, both inside and outside of schools. The interpretive perspectives use concepts and theories developed within the humanities and the social sciences to assist students in examining, understanding, and explaining education within different contexts. Foundational studies promote analysis of the intent, meaning, and effects of educational institutions, including schools. Such studies attend particularly to the diverse contexts within which educational phenomena occur and how interpretation can vary with different historical, philosophical, and cultural perspectives. The normative perspectives assist students in examining and explaining education in light of value orientations. Foundational studies promote understanding of normative and ethical behavior in educational development and recognition of the inevitable presence of normative influences in educational thought and practice. Foundational studies

probe the nature of assumptions about education and schooling. They examine the relation of policy analysis to values and the extent to which educational policymaking reflects values. Finally, they encourage students to develop their own value positions regarding education on the basis of critical study and their own reflections. The critical perspectives employ normative interpretations to assist students in developing inquiry skills, questioning educational assumptions and arrangements, and identifying contradictions and inconsistencies among social and educational values, policies, and practices. In particular, the critical perspectives engage students in employing democratic values to assess educational beliefs, policies, and practices in light of their origins, influences, and consequences. Particular disciplinary studies in, e.g., the history, philosophy, or sociology of education shall be considered as studies in the Foundations of Education, provided the above perspectives are addressed and promoted. The objective of such a study is to sharpen students' abilities to examine, understand, and explain educational proposals, arrangements, and practices and to develop a disciplined sense of policy-oriented educational responsibility. Such study develops an awareness of education and schooling in light of their complex relations to the surrounding culture.

VIII. National Education Aspirations

Education in Nigeria has been taken to be an instrument for facilitating national development. It is an instrument through which

national goals and aspirations can be achieved. In its national policy on education, the country has clearly identified a guiding philosophy from which her goals and aspirations are derived. For education to effectively ensure the achievement of national aspirations, it has to be well reformed and structured. In addition, there should be a commitment to educational policy implementation.

All over the world, education is considered to be a key element of the developmental process. Investment in education (formal, informal, and training) will provide and enhance the necessary skills, knowledge, attitudes, and motivation required for the social, economic, and technological development of any nation. In line with this universal belief that education will provide the magic wand to national prosperity and social re-awakening, the Nigerian national educational goals and aspirations as derived from the philosophy of education are clearly spelled out in the National Policy on Education as follows:

a. the inculcation of national consciousness and national unity;
b. the inculcation of the right type of values and attitudes for the survival of the individual and Nigerian society;
c. the training of the mind in the understanding of the world around; and
d. the acquisition of appropriate skills and the development of mental, physical, and social abilities and competencies as equipment for the individual to live and contribute to the development of society

(Federal Republic of Nigeria 2004:7–8).

These educational goals are meant to serve as weapons for achieving the overall national goals and aspirations, which are also encapsulated in the National Policy on Education, FRN (2004:6), as follows:

a. a free and democratic society;
b. a just and egalitarian society;
c. a united, strong, and self-reliant nation;
d. a great and dynamic economy; and
e. a land full of bright opportunities for all citizens.

From the above discourse, we can deduce that the Nigerian national educational aspirations cover the following:

- democratization of education
- human resource development
- utilization of trained manpower
- rural transformation
- technological development.

In order to achieve these goals, aspirations, and values, the national policy on education, FRN (2004:8), mandated the government to take various measures to implement educational policy provisions.

IX. Democratization of Education

Democratization of education is a policy of ensuring equality of education opportunities provided to all citizens in order to achieve universal education. It is a policy that advocates for the right of all

citizens to education. It is meant to go against the policy of privatization and commercialization of education, or what is termed in some quarters "corporationization" of education.

Under the policy, there should be decentralization of management, funding, and decision-making. The entire educational system is to be democratized. UNICEF (1986) suggested that democratization of education should cover full equality of education opportunities for all citizens and also promote legislative, educational, social, and financial measures that would enable the disadvantaged members of society to obtain education.

Realizing the need to achieve national aspirations by democratizing education, Nigeria's philosophy of education (FRN2004, Section 1, Sub-Section 4(a) and 5(c)), inter alia, provides as follows:

Section 4(a): "Every Nigerian child shall have a right to equal educational opportunities irrespective of any real or imagined disabilities, each according to his or her ability."

Section 5(c): "the provision of equal access to educational opportunities for all citizens of the country at the primary, secondary, and tertiary levels, both inside and outside the formal school system." Expanding access to education seems to be mandatory.

The matters arising from the above are:

· How far have we gone in realizing this aspiration of democratizing education?

- What are the strategies required to achieve this aspiration?
- What are the challenges and problems inhibiting the realization of this aspiration?

These and many others will be addressed in the subsequent units in this module.

X. Manpower Development

It is believed that the training of skilled personnel is *sine qua non* to national development, rather than money and physical infrastructure. This is because it is well-trained and knowledgeable personnel that can exploit and manipulate other resources for the purposes of national development.

However, the creation of human capital, as we call the training of skilled personnel, requires a serious effort on the part of all stakeholders, especially the government, to invest in the educational infrastructure and other inputs to provide the required manpower to cover all sectors of national life. A shortage of manpower in critical areas of the economy will negatively impact national development aspirations.

All levels and types of education are relevant to human resources development in general. However, tertiary education's major goals, as contained in the national policy on education (FRN, 2004; Section 8),

Subsections 59(a), (c), and (d) are: Sub-Section 59(a): "contribute to national development through high-level relevant manpower training."

Sub-Section 59(c): "develop the intellectual capability of individuals to

understand and appreciate their local and external environment."
Sub-Section 59(d): "acquire both physical and intellectual skills, which will enable individuals to be self-reliant and useful members of society."
For these goals to be achieved, a lot of resources are required for effective, qualitative teaching and research. Adequate funding, quality instructional facilities and equipment, and quality students' and well-trained and motivated teachers are to be put in place and also sustained. There must also be quality support services put in place for effective policy implementation.
The issues to be addressed in the subsequent units are:

- funding of manpower development efforts
- quality of the manpower development process
- problems and challenges of the manpower development process
- the issue of the relevance of training to the achievement of national aspirations
- the strategies required to reinforce and enhance effective manpower development by our institutions.

XI. Foundation of Education: Philosophy

Curriculum decisions involve the consideration of several issues in education, such as the purpose of learning, sources of subject matter, characteristics of the learner, the nature of the teaching and learning process, and others. These decisions are based on fundamental beliefs that arise from one's philosophy of education. This made philosophy to be considered and recognized as one of the major foundation areas in the curriculum.

1. Different Shades of Philosophical Thoughts

The various schools of philosophical thought that have influenced the field of education are: idealism, realism, pragmatics, and existentialism. Educational theories that have been seen to affect curriculum design are essentialism and reconstructionism. These two were regarded thusly because each of them starts with ideas about education rather than human nature and truth. It is obvious that what we do in education is often guided by what we believe is important and appropriate for learning and learners. Knowledge of the various schools of philosophy assists in decision-making to clarify issues in curriculum planning.

(a) Idealism

If we believe that children are inherently good and that they have within them a tendency to do what is good and right, and these ideas are applied to education, the purpose of education would be to put the learner on the path to a good and satisfying life in which he lives according to values. When considering the organization of the school curriculum plans, therefore, it is important to note that even though children are born with inherent goodness, they must be assisted in bringing that goodness to the surface. This set of beliefs about education is based on the traditional philosophy of idealism.

(b) Realism

If we view a child as an ignorant and rational person, he must be directed towards worthwhile knowledge. Left to herself, she would

probably remain ignorant. It is, therefore, the responsibility of the teacher to identify worthwhile knowledge for transmission to students. In teaching the learner, the teacher should employ the direct methods since the 'ignorant' child cannot be expected to understand subtle or indirect learning techniques. The school reflects the permanent and end values that have been inherited from history. If thinking and intellect are necessary to overcome ignorance, diligence and honesty must be learned by the child since they are valued in the real world from time immemorial. This set of beliefs about education is based on the philosophy of realism.

(c) Pragmatism

If we believe that when children are born, they are born with the physical and mental equipment that allows them full participation in their environment, whatever values and ideas people believed in would be regarded as tentative since future social development may refine or change them. As children grow up, we believe that what they know and how they behave are a result of interacting with the world around them. What children are taught here will not be some fixed bodies of knowledge, values, and eternal truth but experiences that would promote increasing interaction between the Principles of Curriculum Design and Development with their environment. This, according to this school of thought, will not only make them live a satisfying life now but will also ensure their enjoyment of a good life later. What should be designed for children here is not any fixed body of knowledge but what

will help them to understand more fully their interactions with their environment. This is more or less child-centered in nature. This set of beliefs about education is based on the philosophy of pragmatism. The philosophy of pragmatism, apart from promoting the idea of child-centered schools, has also promoted interest-centered education.

(d) Existentialism

The philosophy of existentialism, on the other hand, believes that people exist, and as they grow, they develop ideas and values that are highly personal and not necessarily connected with any organized social pattern. Individuals may be rational, but they use their individual values and behaviors. Here, people are free to choose their own values and behavior. Because they are free to choose their own, they are thus responsible for their own actions. The education that will be given to children must center on the perceptions and feelings of the individual, which will facilitate understanding of personal reactions or responses to life situations. Teachers here take on a non-directive role. They serve as resources, facilitating the individual's search for personal meaning rather than imposing some set of values or interests. Unlike other schools of philosophical thought, existentialism found a limited place in the real life of the school. We must remember that the school is a social institution maintained to provide a common education for young people. This conception is based on the ideas of group living and social values. By its very nature, therefore, the school as an institution is generally antithetical to existentialism.

(e) Essentialism

Essentialism and reconstructionism are two educational theories that have influenced the curriculum in recent times. Essentialism is of the view that education should prepare the learner to adjust to the present conditions in society. The school has a great role to play here. Teachers within the school, according to this theory, play a directive role. They mainly disseminate information to learners. Standards must be set for students in order to master enough knowledge and skills to prepare them for adulthood. To reflect the real world, essentialists observed that nothing succeeds like hard work." The curriculum might include vocational and special subjects since they are part of adulthood.

(f) Reconstructionism

Reconstructionism is of the view that democracy has a value that should be developed. The emphasis in school should be on participatory problem-solving, concern for social welfare, and the application of systematic planning techniques. The school should, therefore, be a microcosm of a truly democratic society. The central focus of Principles of Curriculum Design and Development The curriculum is subject matter from various fields that will be used as a vehicle for studying social problems. We can see that ideas about curriculum and teaching do not arise in a vacuum. Such ideas are based on views of human nature, sources of values, worthwhile knowledge, and the roles of the teacher and the school. Together, these view points constitute the ingredients of a philosophy of education. To formulate educational goals, therefore,

philosophy serves as a foundation area to be considered. Foundation of Curriculum: Sociology When a child is born, he is born into a family. The family, therefore, becomes the first agent for socializing him. As he grows up, it is noted that the school comes in as another agent of socialization. With time, it will be seen that the world of the child is larger than the home and the school, and that world influences both his interests and attitude. The society maintained the school partly to help the growing child adapt to and prepare for life in the larger society. For this, curriculum developers must take into consideration the characteristics of contemporary society as well as those of the future, in which the child of today will live most of his life as a mature adult. Children learn a lot out-of-school from sources like television, parents, friends, the community, mosques and churches, and print media like magazines, newspapers, etc. Children also learn from schools that are meant to help meet societal needs. Children of today and adults of the future have a lot to do with making society a place worth living in. Depending on the type of education the school provides, it becomes a major factor in the improvement of society. It helps young people develop the capacity to respond intelligently to social problems. In this way, the curriculum serves not only the needs of the learner but also those of society. Being a part of society, I see the purpose the school can serve. Curriculum developers, therefore, need to decide what kinds of skills, knowledge, and attitudes are needed by society. Whether they should plan what will conform to the existing social order and values,

encourage questioning of those values, and what issues and facts should be studied in schools should be their major concern when planning the school curriculum. Other social issues that curriculum planners should address are:

(i) Technology.
(ii) Family structure.
(iii) Working in the information society.
(iv) Changing sex roles.
(v) Cultural Diversity and Pluralism.
(vi) Changing Lifestyles values.
(vii) Futuristic transformation.

XII. Foundation of Curriculum: Psychology

The psychological foundations of the curriculum are concerned with the basic needs of children, which must be met if they will grow up and function well in the society in which they find themselves. What is being taught in schools should respond to the basic needs of youngsters at every stage of their growth and development. When planning any school curriculum, consideration should be given to the nature and level of the learner, materials, and learning experiences to be used. The nature of teaching-learning interaction has been found to be critical to learning. For teaching to be effective, the teacher has to keep in mind the activity's level of difficulty, the learner's prior experience and skill, and his own ability, understanding, and capacity to adapt the lesson to these variables.

Some of the basic human needs to be taken into consideration while developing a curriculum include:

(i) The need for love, belonging, affection, and security.
(ii) The need for new experiences.
(iii) The need for praise and recognition.
(iv) The need for responsibility.
(v) The need for achievement.
(vi) The need for self-actualization.

A look at the Needs theories of Louis Rath (1972), Abraham Maslow (1974), and Mia Kelmer Pringle (1974) will show you that they identified individually as the basic human needs that could be found in the list of human needs stated above. The end objective of these needs lies in the development of an environment in which learners feel genuinely secure. If what is developed as the school curriculum can be developed to take into account and help to resolve the emotional needs of children who will be the final recipients of what is developed, the school will become an emotionally secure environment.

REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Akinwumi, F., & Jayeoba, A. O. (2004). Principles and Practice of Educational Management. Ibadan: Bash-Moses Printing Co.

Cranston, N. C. (2002). School-based management, leaders and leadership: Change and challenges for principals. International Studies in Educational Administration, 30(1), 2-12.

Fadipe, J. O. (1990). Utilizing the teaching manpower in the secondary school system: A necessary administrative function for better productivity. In S. U. Udoh & G. O. Akpa (Eds.), Management for Quality Education in Nigeria (pp. --). Jos: Ehindero Nig. Ltd.

Federal Republic of Nigeria. (1998). National Policy on Education. Lagos: NERDC Press.

Nwankwo, J. I. (1991). Educational Administration: Applied concepts in school. In E. E. Ezewu (Ed.), Social Psychological Factors of Human Learning in Schools. Onitsha: Leadway Books Ltd.

Obeamata, J. (1984). Secondary school headship in Nigerian context. In S. Adesina & S. Ogunsaju (Eds.), Secondary Education in Nigeria. Ile-Ife: University of Ife Press Ltd.

Ogunsaju, S. (1988). Leadership theory and the administrative process. In S. Adesina & F. O. Fagbamiye (Eds.), Educational Administration. Ibadan: University Press Ltd.

Peretomode, V. F. (1991). Educational Administration: Applied Concepts and Theoretical Perspectives. Lagos: Joja Educational Research and Publishers Ltd.

Chapter Two

ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT

I. The Meaning of Management

Everyone manages something, even if it is just themselves and their personal finances. The essence of management is to achieve a goal as efficiently as possible. One can also plan for a holiday by carefully planning how to spend every day, make better time, and get more out of the holiday. Management is like investing. Managers have resources to plan with, including their own time and talent as well as human and material resources. The goal of management is to get the best return on those resources by getting things done efficiently and economically. The term management means many things to many people. In general, the term "management" refers to the process by which a cooperative group directs action toward its common goals. But to a modern industrialist, management means getting things done through other people. To the economist, management is just one of the factors of production; to the sociologist, management is a class or status system. However, in the modern organized context, management is viewed as a social process that is designed to ensure cooperation,

participation, and involvement in the effective achievement of a given objective.

Management has been defined as an organ of institutions—the organ that converts a mob into an organization and human efforts into performance. it can also be referred to as the performance of executive duties, the carrying out of policies or decisions to fulfill a purpose, and the controlling of the day-to-day running of an organization. Others have also conceived management as a process concerned with creating, maintaining, stimulating, controlling, and unifying (formally and informally) human and material energies with a unified system, designed to accomplish a predetermined objective of the organization. it has also been defined as the guidance, leadership, and control of the efforts of a group toward some common objectives. It is a social, social/interactional, and economic process involving a sequence of coordinated events planning, organizing, coordinating, and controlling or leading—in order to use available resources to achieve a desired outcome in the fastest and most efficient way. From the foregoing, management may be defined as a process of coordinating human and material resources in order to achieve an organization's objectives. It can also be said that management is a process of assessing and maintaining an environment in which individuals, working together in groups, can accomplish pre-selected missions and objectives effectively and efficiently.

The definition of management above has the following implications:

1. **Function:** Management implies that managers have functions to perform within organizations. Even though such functions may vary from one organization to another, the process involved is likely to be the same. Several authors, like Henri Fayol Fayol and Elton Mayo, identified the five basic functions performed by the management of all organizations as planning, organizing, directing, coordinating, and controlling. Some scholars have added budgeting, leading, communicating, and educating as other functions of the manager.

2. **Productivity:** The essence of management is to produce. It is interesting to note that most enterprises, whether private companies, government agencies, or educational institutions (either profit- or nonprofit-oriented), are set up to produce either goods, products, people, or services. The ultimate objective of a manager is to create surplus. In raw economic terms, this is referred to as profit maximization. Management, therefore, would want to use people and materials very efficiently to achieve this goal.

3. **General Application:** Management applies to all kinds of organizations owing to the wide distribution of the enterprise, which of course includes all kinds of organizations. Goals might

vary, materials used could be different, and people within the organization may differ in age, sex, and qualifications. Whatever the differences, the essence of management is to put them to efficient and effective use. Therefore, management as an organized body of knowledge provides clear insight as to how to apply management techniques to achieve organizational goals.

4. **Applicable To All Levels:** The management app lies at all levels of organizational life. It is pertinent to observe that within each organization, there is a mapped-out structure. The structure, so to speak, depicts the organizational hierarchy. Both the structure and the hierarchy therefore depend on individual responsibilities and authorities to perform. The performance of these, therefore, at any level, requires management. Interestingly, not all groups believe that they need management, but it is undeniable that management is essential in all organized cooperation as well as at all levels of organization in an enterprise.

II. Meaning of Administration

Administration is a social process concerned with identifying, maintaining, motivating, controlling, and unifying formally and informally organized human and material resources within an integrated system designed specifically to achieve predetermined objectives. Administration has to do with getting things done through the

accomplishment of defined objectives.

In prehistoric times, it was discussed that human beings came together for one activity or another. Such activities became useful and achieved some level of success due to the spirit of group work. For example, the construction of the Egyptian pyramid indicates that there was recognition for planning, organizing, and controlling group activities.

From this explanation, it should be clear to you that administration is a social process that can also happen at the level of the family, where the parents and children as a group together make things happen. At the village level, communal labor is often employed to get things done. For instance, community members build the community schools. Schools are carried out with the assistance of the community and, in some cases, with the assistance of the government. Whatever happens, the planning, organizing, and controlling of the various aspects of the project will spell out what administration is. That is the bringing together of people with a common purpose to achieve specific, recognized goals.

From a broader perspective, administration could be seen as an integral part of any organization. It is crucial for maintaining and expanding the relevance, effectiveness, and productivity of complex

institutions. Such as government departments, prisons, school systems, universities, etc. For example, the survival of all our organizations, like the survival of the administrative services available.

Administration therefore influences the results to be achieved, the direction to be pursued, and the priorities to be recognized within the organization.

Administration is a process by which goals are achieved through collective and cooperative human effort in a suitable environment. This definition specifies four important points:

- First, administration is a process that involves the manipulation of certain operations.
- Second, administration is goal-oriented.
- Thirdly, a collective and cooperative human effort is required in administration and in a suitable environment where participants can maximize performance.

Administration is the ability to mobilize human and material resources towards the achievement of organizational goals. Ogunsaju opines that administration is concerned with a variety of tasks. Nwankwo, in his own view, describes administration as the careful and systematic arrangement and use of human and material resources, situations, and opportunities for the achievement of specific objectives. However, Campbell, Bridges, and Nystrand said the main purpose of administration in any organization is that of coordinating the efforts of people towards the achievement of its goals. Peretomode defines

administration as the performance of executive duties, the carrying out of policies or decisions to fulfill a purpose, and the controlling of the day-to-day running of an organization. From all the above, administration is a process, and it is sometimes used synonymously with management. Beach corroborates the statement by saying that administration is an art of management that is concerned with the installation and carrying out of the procedures by which programs, plans, and targets are laid down and communicated, and the progress of activities regulated and checked against them. Administration may be defined as a process of coordinating human and material resources in order to achieve organizational goals.

III. The Development of Administration

Over the years, different schools of thought have viewed administration differently. Some viewed it as a practical exercise requiring no special study or effort. Others feel that administration as a discipline only exists in theory and in the minds of people. Others still regard administration as a technology that requires not only sound theory but also specialized principles and techniques. It is not feasible for us to pursue the arguments of the various camps here but the major camps shall be examined. The camps are those who view it as art and science, that is, the art administrators and the scientific administrators.

IV. Administration as an Art

Those who view administration as an art believe that administration, like art (painting, drawing, sculpture, etc.), belongs to those who have the natural gifts, traits, or abilities for it. This trait point of view holds that only those who have the in-born qualities and traits for the practice of the art of the art of administering succeed as administrators. Therefore, one becomes a good administrator not by training or mastering special techniques of administration but by possessing the mastery of an y special techniques of administration but by possessing the essential in-born traits of administration. As one prominent university administrator argues, argue the successful administrator has skills that have not been reduced to order and codified in textbooks. Administration is an unqualified art. Therefore, the only way to learn administration is to administer. This implies that good administrators are not trained in any educational institution; rather, they are born administrators. The problems of organizations, therefore, are how to identify and select good administrators rather than how to train them. However, recent developments and many studies on administration tend to show that successful administrators today need more than inborn personality traits to manage modern complex organizations. Obviously, those who have in-born capabilities for administration are blessed, but they also need appropriate training and techniques to properly utilize these natural traits in modern complex organizations and societies.

V. Administration as a Science

The view that administration is a science and not an art emanated from the conception of administration as a technology a matter of applying administrative principles and rules to the solution of management or organizational problems. Exponents of this view point characterize the administrative process by such terms as human or social engineering, human management, resource optimization, or just management. It was argued that, as a scientist, the administrators must know and apply the administrators must know and apply the rules the Dos and Don' ts of ad ministering. Scientists and administrators must know what action leads to what result and what rule fits what action. Those who view administration as a science believe that administrators are made through scientific selection and training, not through in-born traits or hereditary factors. Even the exponents of administration as a science contributed more to the development of administrative practice. It is clear that not all administrative issues and problems can be reduced to the rule of thumb. Hence, it is currently being argued that rather than talk of administration as a science, it may be better to talk of the science of administration.

VI. The Meaning of Educational Administration

Educational administration has been defined as a service, activity, or tool through which the fundamental objectives of the educational

process may be more fully and efficiently realized.

Educational administration is therefore concerned with the utilization of adequate resources and the harmonization of relationships and interactions in a suitable environment in order to foster the attainment of the goals of teaching and learning.

In addition, educational administration involves prudent management of resources and a high degree of accountability on the part of organizational members.

Finally, educational administration broadly means the running of educational institutions, which involves guidance, leadership, and controlling the efforts to achieve the goals of the institution

Educational administration also involves the management of resources (human and material) and the evaluation or appraisal of the results of educational efforts. In order to drive our discussions home, you will agree with me that administration in an educational organization, otherwise known as educational administration, which aim at directing all activities towards the attainment of the goals of teaching and learning. All the people working in an educational institution will have to contribute towards the accomplishment of these goals.

Teachers and other professional staff are involved, as are parents

and other lay members of the community. Also involved are members of school boards, local education authorities, inspectors, ministries of education, and so forth.

The concept of educational administration may not be totally different from what we are familiar with in the concept of administration. In Nigeria, education at different levels has its objectives, as stated in the National Policy on Education. The most important of the objectives that cut across all levels of education is teaching and learning. It is the function of the school to produce educated and enlightened human beings who will be able to contribute positively to the development of society. This formed the opinion of Olaniyi, who describes school as a social institution that does not exist in a vacuum. He said further that a school is a micro-community, existing within a macro-community to mold the habits, interests, attitudes, and feelings of children and transmit them from one generation to another. The school also comprises certain personnel, i.e., teaching and non-teaching staff, as well as the students. These human resources in the school work with some materials, such as instructional materials, equipment, and financial resources, in order to achieve the objectives of the school, as stated in the National Policy on Education (2004). Administration is very germane to the realization of the school's objectives; indeed, the success of the school system depends largely on how the administration of the school is handled. The teachers, students, non-teaching staff, and resources must

be efficiently arranged, monitored, and controlled so that they will work harmoniously according to the educational plan. Even the National Policy on Education (2004) emphasizes the success of the entire educational system on proper planning, efficient administration, and adequate funding. School administration is the process by which principles, methods, and practices of administration are applied in educational institutions to establish, maintain, and develop such institutions in line with the goals of the institutions. It is the scientific organization of human and material resources and programs available for education and using them systematically and meticulously to achieve educational goals.

Basically, educational administration involves the arrangement of the human and material resources and programs available for education and carefully using them systematically for the achievement of educational objectives. Thus, an educational administrator, whether in the ministry of education, the school board, or a school, is essentially the organizer and implementer of plans, policies, and programs meant for achieving specific educational objectives. The educational administrator may contribute, one way or another, to planning, policymaking, and program design, yet his major role rests with the effective and efficient implementation of such plans, policies, and programs for the benefit of education. Viewed from this angle, educational administration is concerned with organization and implementation; it may be categorized

under broad areas of

i) Planning and Policy

ii) Implementation

Although such a categorization is essentially arbitrary and broad and these aspects of management are closely tied, inseparable, and inductive, it is possible to separate the functions of administration from those of planning and policymaking in education. For example, the administrator at the Ministry of Education (essentially a planner and a policymaker) is concerned with formulating general lanes and policies for education.

VII. Who is an Administrator?

There can be no simple statement as to who an administrator is, because our idea of an administrator depends to some extent on our perception of him or her, especially the way he or she carries out the task or deals with problems facing him or her.

For instance, some people regard the administrator as a director because they give orders and complete tasks without hesitation. In a school situation, the administrator may be regarded as a disciplinarian and a manager because of the way discipline is handled and the affairs of the school being run.

The administrator may also be described as the executive head of an organization because of their ways of making decisions and implementing policies and programs. In addition, an administrator is a coordinator who has to organize activities in such a way that things must work smoothly, quickly, and efficiently. Other words used to describe the administrator include 'boss', 'lead', 'director', 'adviser', 'problem solver', 'manager', and so forth. All these terms mean different things to different people because of the complex activities that have to be carried out in different organizational settings.

However, in most of these settings, the administrator has to perform certain functions in coordinating the activities of the people in the organization. In achieving its primary goals, the administrator must demonstrate certain abilities in inspiring theft, understanding and analyzing problems, and finding solutions to them.

Indeed, anyone who carries out these and similar activities could rightly be regarded as an administrator. The administrator uses a body of knowledge as a basis for deriving answers or approaching specific situations. The administrator also seeks principles capable of guiding the application of general ideas to specific situations.

Administrators are not charged with random behavior; there is a definitive behavioral commitment to goal achievement.

Finally, an administrator is an individual who directs the affairs of an organization in such a way that the organization's primary goals are met efficiently. This will involve:

Planning: identify and decide on what to do and how to do it.
Organizing: to arrange what is to be done in order
Supervising: oversee the activities by rendering expertise.
Controlling: to see that things are done based on rules and regulations.
Evaluating: an assessment of the activities in relation to goals and objectives.

VIII. Types of School Administrators

In Nigeria, there are three main categories of educational administrators; they are, as mentioned and discussed below:

(1) Local School/Primary Administrators: This group consists of the heads of schools and their assistants at the primary, secondary, teacher training, and technical schools. They are appointed as the chief executives of their schools. At the primary school schools, they are known as the headmaster/mistress and assistant headmaster/mistress, while at the secondary school level, they are known as the principals and vice principals, as well

as at the teacher's training and technical colleges. Both the assistant head teacher/mistress and vice vice/deputy principal assist the school head in executing the enormous administrative tasks.

(2) State and Federal Ministry of Education Officials/Intermediary Level: This group comprises officials of the state and federal ministries of education. They are external bodies working for the ministry of education to ensure that schools comply with educational policy and curriculum set by the government. They are intermediaries between the government and the school. They are the Local Inspectorate of Education (LIE) and Education Officers who monitor the activities of teachers at both primary and Education The LIE who monitor activities at the primary schools, while the IE monitors activities at secondary schools, teacher training, and technical colleges.

(3) Officials of Institutions of Higher Learning: This group comprises chief executives of institutions of higher learning, for example, colleges of education, polytechnics, and universities. They are known as provosts at the college of education, rectors at the polytechnic, and vice chancellors at the universities. These are the chief executives of their various institutions and are appointed by the owner (usually the government, except for private-owned institutions) of the institutions. They are also assisted by their deputies.

IX. Principalship: Tasks and Roles

The school head performs a wide variety of functions. The main tasks of the school head are interpreting policy, executing curriculum programs, seeing to students' welfare, equipment, physical facilities, and finances, inducting and retraining staff, and finally maintaining effective school community relations (Musaazi 1982). He has to keep the trust bestowed on him by his employers. As a teacher, the school head must be exemplary; he must be efficient and resourceful.

The school head (principal) has the responsibility of promoting effective teaching in the school. It is his duty to ensure that his employer appoints qualified and competent teachers to his school. The principal must be highly competent and skilled in such things as modern techniques of instruction, human relations, delegation of responsibilities, and communication. The principal is responsible for assigning tasks and duties to his staff. He or she has to ensure, through supervision, that each person is performing his or her duties satisfactorily. For instance, the principal might decide to inspect teachers' lesson plans to see whether teachers actually prepare lessons before going to teach. Sometimes the principals could sit in on some of the lessons to evaluate their teaching. To achieve the goals of improving the curriculum programs, the principal must have an understanding of the teacher's role and be prepared to work effectively with the teacher.

Principals must maintain discipline among the teaching staff, but this has to be done with facts, fairness, and firmness. A high degree of discipline may lead to good morale among the staff. The principal should know that the morale of teachers is affected by both material and human factors. The material factor includes such things as salary, sick leave, medical care, equipment, supplies, and facilities. In the area of human relations, the principal is in a key position to influence the human factor of morale. He or she can, for instance, select individual teachers for certain roles, change the attitudes of staff members, and change the nature of their relationships with him or her and with other staff members.

The principal can generate interpersonal interest, confidence, and trust. Most often, teachers approach the principal for a number of personal reasons. For instance, a teacher may request leave of absence for a few days to go and attend the wedding of his or her son, a ceremony highly valued by his culture. The principal has to respond to such a request with understanding. It is also part of the principal's duty to orient new staff members to school life as a whole. He or she has to provide them with information concerning the school so that they get to know how the school is organized and administered. Such information helps them adjust to their new place of work.

The principal should also seek ways to retain teachers once they are employed. He or she, as the head of administration in the school,

must continuously seek the welfare of staff members. He or she must promote them or recommend them for promotion, as this is a positive way of rewarding them for their services. The head must show genuinely that he has concern for teachers and that he respects their views; consequently, he or she must involve them in the making of decisions that affect the school. Even when good planning comes from the principal alone, he or she must, as a good leader, share it with others and let them feel like important contributors to what is going on in the school.

The principal, as the head, could initiate change in the school. Such changes should be brought about smoothly and with minimum opposition or resistance. The principal, most importantly, should be able to rally support for his or her program's plans and goals.

The principal has the responsibility of seeing to it that the establishment procedures and structures help the school achieve its objectives. He or she continually monitors the way things are done and coordinates and regulates the tasks of the entire school system. As the school principal, he or she is responsible for the school funds, although there will always be assistance from the school bursar or a financial clerk. Grounds and buildings are the responsibilities of the principal. He or she makes sure that all school property is maintained, properly repaired, and utilized.

As the Chief Public Relations Officer of the school, the principal maintains good public relations with the parents and the community as a whole. He/she maintains a close liaison with other educational institutions, 'like teacher training colleges, universities, and employment agencies. Finally, the principal can be described as somebody responsible for planning, organizing, coordinating, motivating the staff and students, and managing school buildings and facilities. For him or her to be able to carry out these tasks, there must be well-developed routines, policies, and procedures, which are actually the best techniques for efficient management.

X. Functions of School Administrators

Obemeata referred to a school head as an administrator who is responsible for running a school and is also responsible for policy decisions and determining the direction and objectives of the school. The function of a school head, according to Obemeata, is more than mere controlling the staff of the school, its finances, and its curriculum; it also includes the management of resources toward the achievement of educational goals. Fadipe , however, highlighted the major functions of the school head as: interpretation of policy, execution of instructional programs, and selection, induction, and retention of personnel. personnel, and in Cranston, the duties of the school administrators include: the demonstration of a variety of management and leadership

abilities; and making complex decisions in collaboration with other staff in the school.

The function of the school administrators could be summarized as follows:

(i) production and management of resources (human and material) needed to support organizations and their programs
(ii) supervision of instructional activities in the school system
(iii) obtaining and training personnel
(iv) providing leadership for the curriculum
(v) maintaining peaceful co-existence between the school, the community and the external agencies
(vi) Influencing staff behavior
(vii) discerning and influencing the development of goals and policies.
(viii) evaluating the effectiveness, efficiency, or otherwise of the school
(ix) initiating work activities
(x) grouping the tasks into activities
(xi) defining the task to be done
(xii) taking remedial action if the objectives are not being met.
(xiii) supplying incentives to stimulate productivity.

XI. Qualities of a School Administrator

After discussing the functions of the school administrator, there is also a need to discuss some of the imperative qualities that a school

administrator must possess in order to achieve efficient school administration. We all have an image of what the modern school head or principal should be. This image is characterized by certain important leadership qualities.

The following personal qualities are generally considered desirable qualifications for an effective school administrator:

i. Intelligence: This involves intelligence, mature and sound judgment, broad-mindedness, and the ability to foresee and examine problems or tasks and be able to provide appropriate solutions. The school head should at least be higher in intelligence than his or her teachers.

ii. Self-Confidence: The school principal deals with staff, students, school board members, parents, and the general public. It is therefore essential that he have confidence in himself or herself and in his or her ideas as he interacts with these people. Making mistakes should not make him or her lose confidence; instead, he or she should have determination and the will to succeed in his or her work.

iii. Sociability: The school head must interact with many individuals and groups of people. He or she must have the ability to deal with human beings; he or she must have human relations skills. The principal must be friendly, cheerful, and sociable. The

principal needs to be interested in the welfare and problems of his staff and students. Certainly, the school head must have a listening ear.

iv. Consideration for Others: People desire respect and consideration from their fellow human beings. Respect for human dignity requires consideration on the part of the school head. The principal must create a sense of respect and trust in every member of staff. Most important, he or she must be an example of courtesy, politeness, and trust towards the people with whom he works. A considerate school head will show sympathy and concern for teachers and students.

v. Professionally Minded: The principal must recognize the good of the profession. As a professional, the principal should always be prepared to safeguard his profession from those who might degrade public education. The school principal must also accept the responsibility throughout his or her career to master and contribute to the growing body of specialized knowledge, concepts, and skills that characterize the profession. Thus, he or she has the professional obligation to attend conferences, seminars, workshops, and other learning activities that can contribute to his or her professional growth and development. The principal must possess teaching skills; he or she should be a master teacher, and he or she should be a 'scholar' in his or her

own right.

vi. Moral integrity: The school principal must always uphold high ethical and moral standards. He or she should always stick to the truth. He or she must be honest in dealing with staff, students, and the public. He or she must practice what he or she says by showing a good example.

vii. Humility and modesty: The school head should avoid belittling his or her staff and declare himself the most intelligent, knowledgeable, and capable person in the school.

viii. Sound Health: Good physical and mental health are essential requisites for maximum effectiveness. Others are:

ix. He or she must be tactical: the school administrator needed some tactics to deal with the subordinates under his/her direct control in the school, e.g., the teaching and non-teaching staff, and the superior office at the ministry of education level for whom the school head is responsible. He must be tactical in dealing with the political office holders; he must not be confrontational in his approach at any time.

x. He or she Must be Capable of Making Decisions Quickly: the school administrators are confronted with many issues to decide on, some or many of which require urgent action. He

decides on personnel, circulars, students, and co-curricular matters on a daily basis. He must be versed in accurate facts and figures on issues relating to school enrollment, student-teacher ratio, drop-out rate, school facilities, etc., and he must also be able to cope with the daily tasks as the head of the school.

xi. He or she Must Delegate Responsibilities and Authorities: the school head has so many functions that he or she cannot single-handedly handle everything alone. To avoid a vacuum, there is a need to adequately involve every member of staff in the administrative machinery of the school by delegating various responsibilities backed by authorities to avoid unnecessary problems and avoidable delays. As a matter of fact, the democratization of school administration should be encouraged, as this is an avenue for training future leaders and heads of schools.

xii. He or She Must be Resourceful: the school head must at all times be looking for better ways of doing a particular job. He or she must be looking for new ways of working, tapping into new ideas and suggestions, and willing to assist others with their wealth of experience.

xiii. He or She Must have Good Human Relations: There is a need for the school head to maintain peace and good

relationships between the school and various groups in the school, as well as between the school and the host community. Other qualities expected of a school administrator are a high degree of enthusiasm and the ability to command respect and confidence.

XII. Motivation and Communication in Administration

It is in the nature and purpose of administration for people who have the duty to organize, plan, or control a group of others in order to satisfy those who look for them. Such heads will want to be sure they are passing down instructions as expected and that the subordinates are responding appropriately. When this happens, the administration is said to be motivating its workers as well as communicating with them. These are two important issues for administrators: motivation and communication.

a. Motivation

Motivation is a factor that closely affects the performance of work and the overall efficiency of an organization. Many distinguished scholars have written about motivation: Skinner, Maslow, Chris Argyris, Herbzerg, Vroom, Campfield, and Douglas Mcgregor. Our purpose is not to go into all that they have done. We are interested in how our administrators, especially those in schools, can motivate their workers and students to achieve more.

The school will not be able to realize its goals fully until students!, teachers, and administrators themselves are sufficiently motivated.

Motivation can thus be defined as the inner drive that prompts people to act in a certain way. Motivation is concerned more with intangible things such as leadership morale and so on.

From a management point of view, motivation is useful when it is applied to staff to discover what prompts people to behave in a certain way. When it is applied to schools, it means that certain learners are highly motivated, others moderately, and some are less motivated, even though the same incentives are available to all.

An outstanding feature of motivation is that if the staff are properly motivated, this can change an otherwise mediocre group into a highly productive team. Judged purely by the performance of students, schools that have teams of motivated teachers tend to be better than those schools in which the qualifications and experiences of staff may not be inferior, but they lack motivation.

Motivation is related to leadership, for good leadership sets an example, provides guidance, encouragement, and instruction,

and can be one of the greatest motivations of all. Schools with effective principals have motivated staff and students.

The famous Hawthorne experiments in America in 1920 proved that when staff are consulted about changes, they invariably produce more and better work than previously. In schools where staff meetings are democratic and there is also student involvement in school affairs, the teaching efficiency of staff and the learning experiences of students tend to be better.

A study of motivation means a study of the causes of human behavior rather than its effects. Many school disputes and problems could easily be avoided if there were better motivation among staff and students.

Knowledge of motivation can help every administrator understand his subordinates, and it can equally be of assistance to top management when framing policies. Let me summarize the issue of motivation in administration by saying that there are at least three major ways in which the school administrator can prepare the proper atmosphere that will motivate his or her staff.

The first is by providing immediate, attainable goals towards which the staff should work. The second way of facilitating motivation

among staff is to ensure that means are provided for attaining goals set for the staff, like high-quality teaching backed up with the provision of teaching and learning material, and lastly, motivation is provided through feedback, which is immediate and specific. The comments by an administrator or principal must be specific so that teachers have clear notions of what they need improvement on. Besides, teachers can be helped to develop self-evaluation skills. When teachers learn the qualities desired in a performance and gain experience judging their own work in terms of these criteria, they are better able to provide their own feedback.

b. Communication

Communication is intended for conveying information, instructions, advice, feelings, opinions, and facts correctly and accurately from one person to another person or group of people. The above description of communication explains precisely what an administrator does to his workers and therefore justifies the need for good

Good communications help to stimulate enthusiasm and raise the interest and motivation of those to whom they are directed, such as staff, students, parents, friends, and so on. Communication is not an inborn thing; every administrator has to learn how to communicate. For example, teachers are trained in various methods of transmitting skills

and knowledge to students. These methods include clear speaking, writing, etc.

Communication is a central concept in the study of educational administration because it offers an additional concept for examining the school as a social organization. The goals of the school become known and useful when they are communicated.

Thus, establishing communication is the first task of the administrator. Like authority, communication involves two people: a sender and a receiver. An administrator communicates not with himself alone but with the public, students, teachers, and other employees. Secondly, there must be meaning. Communication does not take place unless the receiver interprets exactly the information being transmitted.

The school administrator, for instance, wants such receivers as parents, teachers, and students to understand the information being transmitted.

As administrators, we are always looking for effective communication.
The basic requirements for good communication are as follows:

- Have something to say. For example, as a school

administrator, you might wish to interpret school policies and instructions and initiate new programs. programs, what is important in communication is knowing exactly what to say.

- Clarify all your ideas on the subject before seeking to communicate with others. For instance, if you, as a principal, are going to talk about the school regulations handed down to talk about the ministry, you must know those regulations thoroughly and be aware of their implications for the development of your school.

- Be prepared; prior preparations require full consideration of the purpose of communication, the audience, the scope of the subject, where, when, and how best to present it. the will need to decide whether your message will be presented orally, in a face-to-face meeting, or printed in a memo letter or newspaper. All these diversities of alternative means of communicating make planning essential.

- Develop a natural style of delivery for your communication.

- Use simple, straight-forward language whenever possible.

- Check and recheck whether your message or instruction

has been properly understood.

- Seek to be understood all the time and also to understand.

Communication is a two-way process. It is necessary to be a good listener too. Thus, communication is purposeful. Its primary administrative functions are informing, instructing, or directing someone; evaluating someone or something; and influencing another's thought or behavior (Musaazi 1982).

XIII. The Meaning of Organization

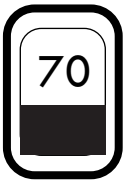
Every human being belongs to one organization or another. In Nigeria, government workers spend one-third of the day, i.e., 8 hours (except weekends), out of the 24 hours in the organization where they work for a living. All over the world, groups of people who share common interests tend to come together to plan and arrange for how they can actualize such interests. Any such group of people working together in a coordinated manner to accomplish group results is known as an organization. Organizations are not new creations. The Pharaohs used organizations to build the pyramids in Egypt; in the modern world, there are many organizations established to cater for the daily needs of society.

The word organization has as many definitions as there are perhaps writers in management. Scholars define the concept differently

depending on individual circumstances, experience, and/or background. Organizations are social constructs created by groups in society to achieve specific purposes by means of planned and coordinated activities. These activities involve using human resources and other inanimate resources in order to achieve the aims of the organization. Organizations are most often corporate, and they have definite purposes to achieve. They also have some types of structures that delimit and define the behavior of their members.

Organization it has also been defined as the rational coordination of the activities of a numb er of people for the achievement of some common explicit purpose or goal, through the division of labor and functions, and through a hierarchy of authority and responsibility. From the foregoing, an organization could be said to be a collection of human beings with a common goal. It is a network of relationships among individuals and activities; it involves a process of executive function aimed at ensuring that resources, activities, and authority relationships are coordinated to achieve a common goal. It can also be said that an organization is a collection of people who have united together to pursue and achieve a common aim through collective effort and the pooling of resources.

Organizations are essential to modern life for a number of cogent reasons:



- First, organizations enable us to accomplish things that we cannot achieve as individuals.
- Second, organizations help improve the continuity of knowledge through the keeping of records, and third, they provide jobs or careers.

Consequently, every modern man or woman, for most of his or her life, is obliged to belong to one organization or another, be it an age group, a town or ethnic union, a school or other educational institutions, a religious or civic society, or a branch of the armed forces.

We are constantly surrounded by organizations. They employ us, sell to us, provide for us, protect us, and give us, along with others, what we want, need, or are required to do. An organization may be small (like the mechanic's workshop) or large (like the Federal Ministry of Education). Large organizations, however, are usually complex as they have multiple goals and more people working on them.

One characteristic that all organizations share is that they are composed of people. These people have in common the fact that their activities are coordinated and that they, therefore, cooperate with each other directly or indirectly to achieve a goal. Cooperation in a venture that requires the efforts of a number of people means that actions must occur and jobs must be done.' In short, people must behave in certain

ways so that the organization fulfills its purposes.

In Nigeria, for instance, we have organizations like the Nigerian Union of Teachers (NUT), the Nigerian Science Teachers Association , the Nigerian University Students Association (NUSA), the National Association of Educational Administrators and Planners (NAEAP), the Nigerian Chambers of Commerce, the Nigerian Bar Association (NBA), the Taxi Drivers Association, schools, colleges, universities, hospitals, and so on.

Organizations are needed to provide a structural framework for communication, command, and coordination of activities and people's efforts. No enterprise, large or small, can operate successfully when duties are so vaguely defined that everybody can meddle in everything and nobody is responsible for anything. Therefore, to operate successfully, an enterprise, a school, or a government unit must have an organizational structure that provides for the clear allocation of inefficiency and indecision. But a good organization establishes clear lines of responsibility and communication and limits the span of authority and command so that no one takes responsibility for more than he can adequately supervise.

From the above explanations, it is clear that to describe an organization, one requires consideration of a number of properties it

possesses.

Eminent researchers have found it difficult to define organizations in general. Subsequently, Musaazi observed that organizations come into being because certain people have identified a common purpose, have been able to communicate with each other, and have shown a willingness to contribute action. An organization establishes conditions that will enhance the effectiveness of the organization in attaining its goals. For example, in order to realize the educational goals of a school, we need suitable physical facilities, qualified, trained, and experienced teachers, motivated learners who have high aspirations, effective leadership, healthy human relations within the school and with the Ministry of Education, and the community at large.

XIV. Classification of Organizations

1. Formal Organization

This is a type of organization that has the rights and obligations of members, degrees of authority, mode of operations, and activities that are well defined and guided by laid-down rules and regulations that are often documented and known to members. Formal organizations in the education industry include the Federal and State Ministries of Education and their different parastatals. Others include all institutions of higher learning, e.g., colleges of education, polytechnics and universities, secondary schools, technical colleges, and primary schools. Formal

organizations comprise groups of people with a definite identity, rules, authority, and responsibility.

In essence, every formal organization is set up for the explicit purpose of achieving specific goals and can therefore be distinguished by its task, position, and authority relationships.

Each formal organization is characterized by:

(i) a specific task or mission for which it is established,

(ii) a single executive head,

(iii) a mechanism for planning and coordinating the human and material resources available to it.

(iv) a rational decision-making mechanism,

(v) the institution of documented rules and regulations for facilitating and enhancing discipline and a common organizational behavioral standard,

(vi) the practice of stimulating and motivating members for optimal performance, and

(vii) a structure with well-defined positions, authority relationships, and jobs.

2. Informal Organization

An informal organization is a set of evolving relationships and patterns of human interactions within a formal organization that are not officially prescribed. These are informal groups that emerge within the

formal organization with a desire to protect the interests of members within the formal organization. Factors that led to the formation of informal groups are the nature of the work, the location of the staff, the poor condition of the service, the government or management insensitivity to workers' need, etc. Examples of informal organizations are trade unions and pressure groups within the formal group. To be a member of an informal organization, one needs to first be a member of a formal organization. Unlike formal organizations, informal organizations are usually flexible in that they rarely have clearly stipulated and documented rules and regulations to control their activities and operations. Since the emergence of informal organizations within formal organizations is inevitable, they constitute an integral part of every organization. They are therefore important in that they could both be beneficial and harmful to the host organization. For example, since they grow out of the informal relationships and interactions among members across the structure of the formal organization, they can also assist in:

(I) promoting cooperation among departments that have indirect points of official contact,
(ii) providing an additional channel of communication and communicating through the grapevine
(iii) removing or correcting a weakness in the formal structure,
(iv) getting work done,
(v) helping members satisfy their social needs and

(vi) providing emotional support for organization members.

It should be noted that informal organizations could have negative influences on formal organizations by:

(i) pursuing goals which are contrary to the goal of the formal organization,
(ii) participating in acts that can increase the time required to complete formal organizational work, and
(iii) operating as a protective shield against the management of the formal organization

3. Social Organization

This group arises out of spontaneous feelings without any hard or fast rules of behavior, and there are no clear-cut objectives or goals. This group comprises groups of people with the same social interests. Examples of social organizations are groups of friends, landlord associations in a community, social clubs, etc.

XV. Characteristics of Organizations

The following are some of the characteristics shared by organizations:

i. Purpose, Objective, or Goal: Organizations are set up to

pursue certain objectives, goals, or purposes. This serves as a rallying point for all the activities of its members. Apart from serving as a common bond for unity, goals /objectives are means of ensuring organizational performance.

ii. Task or Activity: There are jobs or tasks to be performed or carried out. Every organization carries out a major task of one kind or another that has a relationship to it and is directed toward the realization of its objectives or goals.

iii. Resources: Organizations make use of human and natural resources to transform raw materials into finished products to achieve their set goals. Human materials in an organization include both skilled and non-skilled workers, and teaching and non-teaching staff, in educational industries, while material resources include physical facilities, school plants, instructional facilities, lab oratories, libraries, etc.

iv. Division of Labor: There is a structure within which various tasks are to be executed by these interacting individuals or groups based on the concept of division of labor. For the achievement of desired goals, the division of labor can be vertical or horizontal. It is vertical when somebody, preferably a superior staff member, is appointed by the organization to coordinate the group's work. It

is horizontal if at least two people work together to achieve the same objectives.

v. Dependence on Environment and Community: No organization can survive without the community. All organizations depend largely on the external environment, both for the resources to use and for the consumers that would consume the products and services rendered. Any organization that does not live in harmony with the host environment or community will find it very difficult, if not impossible, to survive.

vi. Sub-units: There must be sub-units in the form of departments, divisions, or units that are responsible for specific objectives and tasks. The activities of various sub-units within the organization are well coordinated towards a predetermined goal.

XVI. Principles of Organization

There are some principles that are common to all organizations. They are highlighted and discussed below:

i. Unity of Objectives: Objective: To avoid conflict between the employers and management staff of any organization, the objectives of the organization must be clearly defined. Any organization that wants to remain relevant in society shall clearly define the objective, and the recognition of the chief objectives is

given serious attention in large and complex organizations because one of the functions of an organization is to coordinate activities, interests, and assignments.

ii. Stability in the policies and programs of an organization must not be a toy in the hands of chief executives. There is a need for the continuity of the organization's policies and programs for a reasonable length of time before they are assessed. An organization that changes its policies and programs frequently is an ineffective one.

iii. Flexibility There is a need to allow simplicity and flexibility in an organization. It should be simple to make it manageable, and it should be flexible to pave the way for quick decisions when there is a need to take urgent decisions. The organization's policies should be stated in broad enough terms to permit reasonable flexibility in management. This will also allow policies that have been in place for a long time to be assessed and for necessary amendments to be made.

iv. For efficiency and effectiveness, there is a need for all the members of the organization to cooperate with one another. This cooperation can be secured from organization members voluntarily or by force. If cooperation is lacking in any

organization, such an organization will fold up in a short time.

v. Division of Labor: The policy of work. If there is no appropriate division of labor, cooperation and coordination become very difficult. For a realistic division of the lab, attention must be given to individual competencies and interests.

vi. Evaluation: whether the policies of the organization are being achieved or not. If yes, there is a need for improvement, and if no, there is a need to adjust. An organization that does not evaluate its policies and programs frequently may not be able to meet the current challenges.

XVII. Organizational Conflict

Conflict is often regarded as the central problem of human society. Presently, it has been revealed that conflict is inevitable in human interaction because of the nature of man, and it is regarded as having positive, and not just disruptive aspects.

In schools, conflict often occurs, but some school managers are not fully equipped with the management of conflict. We mean efforts made by organizational conflict. Conflict is often regarded as the central problem of human society. Presently, it has been revealed that conflict is inevitable in human interaction because of the nature of man, and it is

regarded as having positive, and not just disruptive aspects.

In schools, conflict often occurs, but some school managers are not fully equipped with the management of conflict. We mean efforts made by administrators to establish conditions under which conflicts can lead to mutual exploration and new levels of consensus in problem solving.

Conflict is sometimes seen as a breakdown of the standard mechanism of decision-making or the process of operation of an organization so that the members experience difficulties in selecting an alternative action or performing their duties. This is based on the premise that for an organization to function well, there should be needs for the organization and its members. And when there is a difference between them, there is conflict.

Getzels & Guba, in their homothetic ideographic model, observed that there are two components of behavior in a social system; that is conceived of as arising from institutional goals and fulfilling goal expectations, and the other emanating from individual goals and fulfilling personality disposition. Both may be congruent or incongruent.

When the individual performs his role according to the needs of the organization, we get a congruent situation, but when the incumbent of a post does not behave according to the role expectations, there is conflict, which is due to the gap between personality needs and organizational needs.

XVIII. Types of Role Conflict

1. **Intra-Role Conflict:** occurs when the position of an incumbent has incompatible or competing role expectations by occupants of a complementary position. This means the behavior of the office holder conflicts with the expectations of people in complementary positions.
2. **Inter-Role Conflict**: occurs when a person occupies more than one focal role, and the expectations of the various roles conflict.
3. **Role Ambiguity**: occurs when there are wide variations among people about the expectations for an incumbent in a particular position.

XIX. Situations that can Cause Conflict in School

It is essential to note that most school conflicts occur when some groups feel that authority has been used to their disadvantage or is being misused; some groups feel powerless; some decision groups feel they are powerless; or a body in authority reduces the power they currently hold.

On cultural values and beliefs, different groups could have various divergent values and philosophies about the goals of education, what shall be taught, and how it should be taught, as well as what the behavior of students in the school should be.

In addition, there could be existing antagonism between

individuals, between ethnic groups, or between other groups, which makes people take sides.

It must also be recognized that some school conflicts occur in response to policies or changes promulgated by the school administration. When an individual or a group is in support of something new or is dissatisfied with an issue,

The above conflict situation, when addressed, will give the following feedback in the form of:

- The opportunity was granted to them to express their grievance.
- Promises to look into the issue within a short time.
- A sign or indication that their expression of feelings has been given deserving attention.

This suggests that in an organization, the administrator should be accessible, receptive, friendly, listen to the feelings of his subordinates, and be trustworthy. If the complainant receives negative feedback, the conflict could escalate. And this could be a result of the fact that the administrator is unfriendly, unreceptive, inaccessible, and hostile to the group. Such conflict could increase and affect the whole school.

XX. Conflict Management

We shall now round up our discussion of organizational conflicts

by teaching you how to manage conflicts.

i. Understand that conflict is inevitable in social interaction and that conflicts can have positive functions.
ii. Remember that members of the school, teachers, and students will actively try to participate and influence the administration's decision-making.
iii. Note that power, authority, and values and beliefs are areas that often cause conflicts in schools.
iv. Note that positive feedback from people with grievances could minimize the occurrence of conflict or reduce its intensity.
v. Remember that information and facts about conflicts need to be handled quickly and widely.
vi. Note that third-party intervention in helping to resolve school conflict is often helpful.

REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Argyris, C. (1960). Understanding Organizational Behaviour. Homewood, IL: Dorsey Press.

Ayanniyi, R. B. (1990). An Analysis of conflict resolutions in the School System: Seminar paper faculty of Education A.B.U. Zaria. School Review, XLV, 423-14.

Farham, D., & Horton. (1996). Managing the new public services (second Edition). Lagos: Macmillan.

Federal Republic of Nigeria. (2004). National Policy of Education. Lagos: NERDC.

Federal Republic of Nigeria. (2004). National Policy of Education. Lagos: NERDC.

Khan, R. L., & Boulding, E. (1964). Power and Conflict in Organization. New York: Basic Books.

Musaazi, J. C. S. (1982). The Theory and Practice of Educational Administration. London and Basingstoke: Macmillan Press Ltd.

Nwakwo, J. I. (1987). School administration and human learning in school. In E. E. Ezewu (Ed.), Social Psychological Factors of Human Learning in School. Onitsha: Lead Way Bks Ltd.

Nwadiani, M., & Sokefun, O. A. (1999). Towards greater efficiency in educational administration in the 21st century. In P. O. Adesemowo (Ed.), Basics of Education. Lagos: Triumph Books Publishers.

Ogunsaju, S. (1998). Leadership theory and the administrative process. In S. Adesina & F. O. Fagbamiye (Eds.), Educational Administration. Ibadan: University Press Ltd.

Peretomode, U. F. (1991). Educational Administration: Application, Concepts and Theoretical Perspectives. Lagos: Joja Educational Research and Publishers Limited.

Chapter Three

ADMINISTRATIVE BEHAVIOR

Concepts of Management and Scientific Management:

1. Classical Organizational Thought
2. Human Relations Approach
3. Behavioral Approach or Social Science Movement

I. SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT

The managers of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries did not properly understand management, so they resorted to using force to accomplish their goals. It is important to note that although they were vested with manufacturing techniques and skills, the aspect of management, which required judicious use and control of human and material resources to achieve organizational goals, was lacking. Management functions were usually improved to meet needs, resulting in various losses being incurred by businesses, but the complexities of these factories called for more. Based on this, some people took up the

task of venturing into more organized forms of management. This gave rise to scientific management thought, which is adequately represented in the following selected works:

1. The classical organizational thought (Efficiency movement 1920–30), whose major exponents were Frederick Wilson Taylor, Henri Fayol, H. T. Emerson, Lyridall Urwick, Luther Gulick, and Max Weber, to mention a few,.
2. The Human Relations School of thought (1930–50), whose chief exponents were Mary Parker Follet and Elton Mayo.
3. The behaviorist/contemporaries (1960–present) whose exponents were Chester Barnard and Herbert Simon.

A. CLASSICAL ORGANIZATIONAL THOUGHT

i) Scientific and Administrative Management Approach

Frederick Taylor (1856–1915), the father of the scientific management movement, sought ways to effectively use men in industrial organizations. Taylor's background and experience as a laborer, clerk, mechanist, foreman, chief craftsman, and finally chief engineer reinforced his belief that men could be programmed to be efficient machines. The key to the scientific management approach is the concept of man-as-machine. Taylor and his associates thought that workers motivated by economics and limited by physiology needed constant direction. In 1911, Taylor formalized his ideas on the principles of

scientific management as follows:

1. A large daily task: Each man in the establishment, high or low, should have a clearly defined duty task laid out before him. The carefully circumscribed task should require a full day's effort to complete.
2. Standard conditions: The workman should be given standardized conditions and appliances to accomplish the task with certainty.
3. High pay for success: High pay should be tied to successful completion.
4. Loss in case of failure: Failure should be penalized.
5. Expertise in large organizations: As organizations get more sophisticated, tasks should get harder and harder until only a top man can complete them.

Taylor and his associates —the human engineers focused on physical production, and their time and motion studies sought men's physical limits and described the fastest method for performing a given task:

1. The two hands should begin and end motions simultaneously.

2. Arm movements should be simultaneous and made in opposite and symmetrical directions.

3. Smooth, continuous hand motions are preferable to zigzag or straightening motions involving sudden changes in direction.

4. Tools, materials, and controls should be close to and in front of the operator.

5. Tools should be combined whenever possible.

Although Taylor's work had a narrow physiological focus and ignored psychological and sociological variables, he demonstrated that many jobs could be performed more efficiently. Moreover, Taylor helped the unskilled worker by improving productivity enough to raise the pay of unskilled labor nearly to that of skilled labor.

Taylor created the industrial engineer and generally emphasized that management should make adequate provision for workers through careful selection and training. He also asserts that financial benefits should be based on merit. Most of the principles advocated by him are applicable to school administration in that school administrators ensure that qualified candidates are selected for the teaching job and that teachers are offered proper in-service education to improve on their

performance. Schools also make provision for the supervision of staff. Although scientific management theory has formed the basis of modern management, it has been criticized for the following reasons:

- Over-emphasis on efficiency and productivity to the detriment of workers
- Man is equated with machines, thereby encouraging mechanical behavior.
- It utilized a carrot-and-stick model of motivation to motivate workers, i.e., more work, more
- It has neglected the psychological and motivational factors that are inherent to man at work.

ii) Administrative Management Approach or Universal Principle Movement

Traditional classical organization thought, often called administrative management theory or universal principle movement, was initiated by a French gentleman, Henri Fayol (1841–1925). He was a French mining engineer and successful executive who later taught administration. The movement developed concurrently with the scientific management movement. The two movements essentially belong to classical management theory. The scientific management movement concentrated on the operational level (workers), while the

administrative management approach concentrated on the top management (managers). Fayol developed some universal principles that characterized successful administration and management. These can be applied to any organization, be it industry, education, or government. These elements are:

P = Planning

O = organizing

D = Directing

C = Coordinating

C = controlling

a. Planning

This is the first step in any administrative function. It involves making arrangements for the future. It deals with how to use time, personnel, and equipment in the future. The future may begin with a day, a week, a month, or a year. Plans are made after objectives or goals are set. Planning is usually regarded as a search for the best method of achieving these goals.

b. Organizing

The manager decides what jobs have to be filled and the duties and responsibilities attached to each one. Effective organization implies that the right people are assigned to do the correct jobs at the appropriate times. Activities should be assigned to individuals on the basis of their ascertained qualifications, experience, and interests. On

the part of the manager, a lot of wisdom, maturity, and objectivity are required.

c. Directing

Directing involves giving staff details on how to go about their jobs. It is not a once-for-all activity but an on-going one. Officers have to be continually put on the right path.

d. Co-ordinating

This relates to the activities of different units in relation to one another to ensure that the different activities are met to achieve the set objectives. Coordination occurs when the organization's numerous activities are planned, organized, directed, and controlled.

e. Controlling

It is the measuring and correcting of the activities of subordinates to ensure that these activities are contributing to the achievement of planned goals. Ukeje pointed out that appraisal, evaluation, and supervision are the administrator's tools for controlling, directing, and leading.

Fayol's fourteen principles of management Fayol's principles of management prescribe certain strategies for structuring behaviors in organizational life in order to achieve efficiency and effectiveness. These elements of management could be seen as a cyclical event on which the soundness and good working order of an organization depend.

- Division of work
- Authority and responsibility
- Discipline
- Unity of command
- Unity of direction
- Subordination of individual interests to general interests
- Remuneration of personnel
- Centralization of Authority
- Chain of command
- Order
- Equity
- Stability of tenure for personnel
- Initiative
- Espirit de corps

Division of Work: Division of work or specialization increases productivity. The more skilled the labor and management, the higher the productivity, because one can work at activities in which he is most capable. Both technical and managerial skills are required for efficient

performance of organizational duties, and this can be achieved through specialization.

Authority and Responsibility: Authority connotes the right to give orders. Authority is therefore required to control the behaviors of organizational participants. Appropriate sanctions are required to encourage good performance and discourage poor performance. An organizational member has a responsibility to accomplish the organizational objectives of their position.

Discipline: There must be respect for and obedience to the rules and objectives of the organization. According to Hicks and Gullet (1976), this means and requires:

(1) Good superiors at all levels;
(2) agreements as clear and fair as possible;
(3) Sanctions (penalties) judiciously applied".

Unity of Command: To minimize confusion and conflicts, each subordinate should receive orders and be responsible to one superordinate.

Unity of Direction: This implies unity of purpose. An organization is more effective when everyone works towards the same objectives.

Subordination of Individual Interest: The interest of one employee or group should not prevail over the interest of

the organization. As a corollary, the interest of the whole supersedes the interest of the parts.

Remuneration: Pay according to performance. Pay should be fair and not exploitative. Different modes of payment and incentives should be used.

Centralization: There should be a balance between concentration and the distribution of authority in the organization. Implicit in this principle is the delegation of authority.

Scalar Chain: There is a scalar chain or hierarchy linking various levels and all members according to the unity of command. Considering the difficulty of communicating directly in large organizations based on unity of command, Fayol suggested the "Gang Plank" as a way out. In this respect, members occupying the same level in the organizational hierarchy can contact each other directly without necessarily going through their supervisors.

Order: Fayol suggested that there should be a systematic arrangement of functions for everyone in the organization.

Equity: fairness, cordiality, kindness, and justice, based on predetermined norms.

Stability of Tenure of Personnel: Time is required for an employee to get used to new work and succeed in doing it well. Job security should be used to reward good performance.

Esprit de Corps: "Unity is strength." Superior performances come

from a feeling of oneness, belongingness, pride, and loyalty.

iii) Bureaucratic Approach

Aderounmu views bureaucracy as creating a relationship between functional levels of an organizational hierarchy. It is a relationship between roles rather than between individuals. The organizational structure is a pyramid of relationships and authority. At a time when the workers were being influenced to a high degree by the whims and caprices of the authoritarian industrialists of scientific management, Max Weber, a German sociologist, saw hope in bureaucratic organizations. He hoped that a well-run bureaucracy would become fairer, more impartial, more predictable, and, in general, more rational. Bureaucracy apparatus would be very impersonal, minimizing irrational personal and emotional factors and leaving bureaucratic personal free work with a minimum of friction or confusion.

Weber developed some characteristics of a bureaucratic organization.

- a division of labor based on functional specialization.
- a well-defined hierarchy of authority.
- Rules and regulations govern the official decisions and conduct of employees.
- Officials assume a kind of impersonal relationship or attitude towards their clients and other officials.

- a system of procedures that guide the activities of people in that organization.
- Selection and promotion of staff are based on technical competence.

Bureaucratic organization was developed primarily to increase efficiency and minimize frustrations and irrationality that may arise from authoritarian leaders.

Other notable scholars in classical organizational thought are Luther Gulick and Lyridal Urwick. These two gentlemen synthesized the work of Taylor, Fayol, and Weber.

Taylor emphasized the principles that view administration as the coordination of many small tasks so as to accomplish the overall job as efficiently as possible. Fayol emphasized the broader preparation of administrators so that they would perform their unique functions more effectively. For Weber, bureaucracy was an attempt to minimize the frustrations and irrationality of large organizations in which the relationships between management and workers were based on traditions of class privilege.

Gulick and Urwick, in answer to the question "What is the work of the Chief Executive?" arrived at the acronym POSDCORB, in which each letter represents an activity essential to the proper functioning of the office;

Planning, Organization, Staffing, Directing, Coordinating, Reporting, and Budgeting.

This administrative process is widely used in school administration to deal with the day-to-day problems of the school. Despite the many good aspects of the classical school of management thoughts with emphasis on task, process, and structure, they have the greatest limitations of not giving consideration to the psychological state of men at work. Again, the rigid insistence with which many classical thinkers tend to apply some of the concepts in practice is most often attacked. These limitations gave rise to the wave of a new movement—the human relations movement.

B. HUMAN RELATIONS APPROACH

The human relations movement developed in reaction against the formal tradition of classical models. Mary Parker Follet, who wrote a series of brilliant papers dealing with the human side of administration, believed that the fundamental problem in all organizations was developing and maintaining dynamic and harmonious relationships. In addition, she thought that conflict was "not necessarily a wasteful outbreak of incompatibilities but a normal process by which socially valuable differences register themselves for the enrichment of all concerned."

In Follet's work, the breakthrough for the human relations

approach occurred at the Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company in Chicago. Three early experiments were conducted to study the "relationship between quality and quantity of illumination efficiency." The first illumination experiment was made in three departments. The level of illumination intensity in each department was increased at stated intervals. The results revealed that an increase in production rates did not correspond with increases in lightning; illumination remained constant. Both groups showed increases in production rites that were not only substated but also nearly identical. Finally, in a third experiment, when the lighting for the test group was decreased and that for the control group was held constant, the efficiency of both groups increased. Furthermore, the production rates increased in the test group until the light became so poor that the workers complained they could no longer see what they were doing. Two conclusions seemed justifiable: employee output was not primarily related to lighting conditions; too many variables had not been controlled in the experiments. The starting nature of the findings stimulated further research at the Harvard School of Business by Etton Mayo, an industrial psychologist, and Roethlisberger, a social psychologist, on the effect of physical conditions at work on productivity. It was suspected, however, that psychological as well as physiological factors were also involved.

Both the Hawthorne plant and the Harvard experiments revealed that:

- Economic incentives are not the only significant motivators. In fact, non-economic social sanctions limit the effectiveness of economic incentives.
- Workers respond to management as members of an informal group, not as individuals.
- The informal organization's social norms place more restrictions on production levels than do physiological limitations.
- Specialization does not necessarily create the most efficient organization of the work group.
- Workers use informal organizations to protect themselves against arbitrary management decisions.
- Informal social organizations will interact with management.
- A narrow span of control is not a prerequisite to effective supervision.
- Informal leaders are often as important as formal supervision.

- Individuals are active human beings, not passive cogs in machines.

The human relations approach has been criticized for being too soft on the workers, to the detriment of the organization. A great deal of attention was given to the informal aspects of the organization, and there was relatively little impact on the formal organization.

C. BEHAVIOURAL APPROACH OR THE SOCIAL SCIENCE MOVEMENT

Due to the fact that the classical and human relation approaches ignored the impact of social relations and formal structure, respectively, the behavioral perspective fused these approaches and added propositions drawn from psychology, sociology, political science, and economics. Such an approach differs from other behavioral sciences in its subject matter: worker behavior in formal organizations. The pioneer of the behavioral approach to management was Chester Bernard, who emphasized the need for a systematic approach and a conceptual scheme of administrative behavior. Herbert Simon extended the work of Bernard to talk about exchange theory in organizations. He viewed organizations as an exchanging system where people exchange what they have for what they want; he also saw administration as rational decision-making, which constitutes an important function of the administrator. Max Weber integrated his idea of bureaucracy into his

inclination towards the scientific movement.

Following the social science movement, a lot of administrative theories were advanced, among which are:

1. The Theory of Organizational Behavior

This theory of organizational behavior seeks to describe, understand, and predict human behavior in an environment of formal organization. A social system consists of individuals who act together and share a mutual relationship in the same physical condition or environment in an attempt to achieve an established common goal.

The dynamic interaction of people with varying personalities within an organizational set-up (as in the school system) is a domain of social process theory. Arinze and Nduka went further to buttress that people within an organization have definite roles to perform, and many factors that interact help to determine precisely what kind of performance each role will receive. Each individual must interpret his role, and this interpretation depends to some extent on what the individual brings to the role (which includes the individual's personality). Role performance is also affected by the expectations of the Chief Executive of the organization and others who have some powers to control the situation. Individuals function in an organization in order to fulfill the needs of the organization and their own personal needs. There is therefore a relationship between the fulfillment of both the

nomothetic and the idiographic needs. Owens viewed behavioral acts as a result of interactions within the social system. That is to say, social behavior results as the individual attempts to cope with an environment. The needs of an individual and the expectations of institutions may both be thought of as motives for organizational behavior.

- Organizational (nomothetic) Dimension
- Institution Role Expectation
- Social Observed
- System Behaviour
- Individual Personality Need-Disposition

i) Person (Idiographic) Dimension

It should be noted that as long as a state of equilibrium exists between the nomothetic and the idiographic needs, the relationship will be satisfactory, enduring, and relatively productive. To the contrary, conflicts, discontentment, and low productivity manifest themselves. Aderouunmu 1988 summarily stated that the school teacher comes to the school environment with professional skills to promote the achievement of school goals (nomothetic), and in return, he is compensated for the services rendered and he interacts with the different individuals (idiographic) involved in the organization. The individual worker shapes his personal behavior to meet the ascribed behavior of the organization. A school leader who can motivate his

subjects to achieve the goal of the institution is seen as satisfying both the nomothetic and idiographic dimensions of the school system. One of the greatest challenges facing school administrators is how to effectively motivate teachers towards improved productivity.

The motivational basis of people in organizations is based on understanding the nature of the needs that motivate the behavior of people in those organizations. Motivation is therefore seen as an intervening variable between human needs and behavior, as shown in Figure II.

2. The Theory of Human Management in Organizations

This was postulated by Douglas McGregor. This theory is also referred to as Theory X and Y, and the theory tries to identify two sets of assumptions about the nature of people. The theorist argued that the approach or way an administrator deals with his subordinates depends on his own perception of them. Administrative behavior that is typical of theory X is based on the following assumptions:

i. The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can.

ii. Because of this inherent dislike for work, most people must be forced, controlled, directed, and even threatened to do the work.

iii. The average human being prefers to be directed, as he avoids responsibility, has little ambition, and wants security. A human need motivation behavior administrator that is based on theory X will be characterized by no nonsense, strongly directive leadership, tight control, and very close supervision. Conversely, theory Y embraces some very different assumptions about human beings.

iv. Work is as natural as play if it is satisfying.

v. People will exercise self-direction and self-control towards an organizational goal if they are committed to those objectives.

vi. The commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with the achievement.

vii. The average human being learns under proper conditions not only to accept but to seek responsibility.

viii. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.

ix. Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potential of the average human being is only partially utilized.

Theory Y is optimistic, dynamic, and flexible, with an emphasis on

direction and the integration of individual needs with organizational demand. The administrative implication of theories X and Y is that managers who accept either or both theories will utilize the essential ideas of the theories in planning their organizational policy, formulating their decisions, and carrying out other facets of their administrative behavior.

3. McGregor's Theory

This theory on motivation has some basic assumptions regarding human behavior. An understanding of these assumptions is important for managers when directing human beings. These assumptions are classified into two categories: Theory X and Theory Y. Theory X The assumptions of this theory are:

(a) Work, if not downright distasteful, is an onerous chore to be performed in order to survive;

(b) The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can;

(c) Because of this human characteristic dislike of work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, or threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives;

(d) The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to

avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, and wants security above all.

Theory Y: The assumptions of this theory are:

(a) The expenditure of physical energy and mental effort at work is as natural as play or rest;

(b) External control and the threat of punishment are not only means for bringing about effort towards an organization's objectives. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed.

(c) Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement;

(d) The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but to seek responsibility;

(e) The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population;

Under the conditions of modern life, the intellectual potential of the average human being is only partially utilized. He further stated that behind every management action or decision are assumptions about human nature and human behavior. Those managers who subscribe to theory Y behave according to the postulates in theory Y. They believe that human beings like to take responsibility and that commitment to an

objective is a function of the rewards associated with it. These rewards are the needs that will motivate them to act. The rewards create tension in the individual that subsides when realized. How we act or react to other people is influenced by our assumptions about those people. If we believe that an employee has a special dislike for work and will avoid it if he can, or if we believe that he is at work because he needs money to satisfy his physiological needs, we will attempt to motivate him with money and threaten him with loss of employment (a security need) if he does not put in a measure of his effort.

A person's attitude towards work is not inherent; it is a learned behavior. Need appears to be universal; even people whose basic needs are satisfied still have the need for achievement, status, and acceptance. It is not surprising that people whose parents have amassed wealth for them and their entire lineage still struggle to achieve and gain individual recognition, status, and power. A motivated employee has adult characteristics. He enjoys independence and has a longer, deeper, and more consistent interest in what he does. But a frustrated employee is forced to act like a child.

Finally, from these theories of motivation, we can deduce the following as some of the general implications of these theories: These include:

1. i) It reveals different reasons why people go to work.

2. ii) There is a need for managers to periodically assess the levels of motivation in their organization. iii) Analysis of available records such as productivity, industrial unrest, rate of absenteeism, labor turnover, and rate of industrial incidents.
3. iv) Managers should therefore constantly engage in motivation analysis by means of an attitude survey, an effective appraisal system, etc.

4. The Modern Theory (1950–Present)

Modern theory gives weight to human relations theorists. The two theories coexist, interact, and, in most cases, are indistinguishable. The modern theorists' approach was aimed at studying the feelings and attitudes of workers as they relate to their various jobs in the organization. The behavioral theorists carried out a series of experiments, which made their theories popular. These theorists equally believed in social behavior as the basis for administrative processes. Their theory and research were seen as a means of enhancing administration. A very important aspect of this group is that their beliefs gave room for understanding the problems of organizations at different levels.

5. System Theory

One of the behavioral approaches to educational administration is

system theory. A system, can be referred as an entity composed of a number of parts, the relationships between these parts, and the attributes of both the parts and the relationship.

Ifedili , citing Baher, defined a system as a set or elements that are actively interrelated and that operate in some way as a bounded unit. In other words, a system could be seen as a set of interrelated and interdependent components designed to realize a set of goals. There are two types of systems: a closed system and an open system. A closed system does not interact with the outer environment. It depends entirely on itself. An open system, on the other hand, interacts with the outside environment. The system theory brings together the ideas propounded by scientific management, administrative science, human relations, and behavioral science. System theory insists that all scientific phenomena can be evaluated as systems. Modern theory perceives organization as a total system rather than focusing on a single aspect without regard for its relationship to the whole. The system theorists are of the opinion that before the implementation of any decision, at any level, or concerning any segment of the organization, there is a need to examine its ultimate impact on the objectives of the system. It is a deliberate attempt to analyze a problem from a global perspective and then determine a solution so as to maximize the system or organizational level of performance. Some of the theorists that are associated with system theory include H.J. Leavitt, Daniel Katz, Kahn Robert, Richard Johnson,

James Rosenzweigh, etc.

The school system can be termed a system because of the number of its parts, the relationship between these parts, and the interwoven nature of their functions. For instance, in the college, there are catering, academic, registry, and work departments. Whatever happens to one sub-system affects the whole system. A problem arising from the school system may be approached by first examining the relevant sub-systems. Also, a particular organizational behavior may result from the effects of one or more sub-systems of the school system. System theory helps administrators to be very alert, bearing in mind that a disruption of a sub-system can damage the entire system. This system has the advantage of dealing with cause and effect. It also puts us on guard against the strong tendency to attribute phenomena to a single causative factor.

6. Contingency Theory

The contingency theory relies on system theory. The theory is based on the fact that whatever one wants is dependent on the organizational setup, the environment, and the technology. The theorists are of the opinion that what works in one situation might not work in another. Contingency theory is said to be the most recent trend in understanding organizational behavior. It demands a diagnostic approach in an effort to isolate certain characteristics of the organizational environment and make if-then statements: if a given

characteristic is present, then a certain management practice will prevail. Some of the contingency theorists were Joan Woodward, Burns, and Stalker, to mention a few. We have devoted time to discussing theories of administration because of their centrality in educational administration. The knowledge of these theories is very essential for school administration. It helps an administrator solve different organizational problems either scientifically or systematically instead of relying on the impulse of the moment.

REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Aderounmu W.O. and Ehiametalor E.T. (1981), Introduction to the Administration of Schools in Nigeria, Ibadan: Evans Brothers (Nigeria Publishers) Ltd.

Adesina Segun (1990), Educational Management Enugu: Fourth Dimension Publishing Co. Ltd.

Arinze F.O.M. (1998), in Eneasator G.O. & Nduka G.C., Educational Administration and Supervision, Abuja: International Academy Publishers.

Bosah H.O. (1998) in Eneasator G.O. & Nduka G.C., Educational Administration and Supervision, Abuja: International Academy, Publishers.

Drucker, P.F. (1974), Management: Tasks and Responsibilities. New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc.

Eneasator G.O. (1990), Job Satisfaction among Post-Primary Teachers in

the Anambra State School System: Some Implications for School Principals, Business and Education Research 4(1).

Federal Republic of Nigeria (2004), National Policy on Education, Lagos: Federal Ministry of Education.

Gullick L. and Urwick L. (1937), Paper on the Science of Administration, New York: Colombia University Press.

Koontz, H.O., and Weihrich, H. (1980). Management Aukland: McGraw-Hill International Book Company.

Owens, R.G. (1981). Organizational Behavior in Education. Eaglewood Clifts, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc.

Chapter Four

DECISION MAKING IN ADMINISTRATION

I. The Concept of Decision-Making in Administration

There are different ways of looking at decision-making. According to Newman and Sumber, 'decision-making' is a synonym for planning. Dorsey views the decision-making process as an extension of a series of interrelated communication events. Similarly, Simon conceives of decision-making "as though it were synonymous with managing." Decision-making is a sequential process that culminates in a single decision or a series of choices that stimulate moves or actions. The result of our decision-making process is policies, rules, or regulations that guide the subsequent behavior of members of the organization. Decision-making is a major responsibility of all administrators. It is a process by which decisions are made and implemented.

An understanding of the decision-making process is important for all administrators because the school, like all formal organizations, is basically a decision-making structure. Decision-making is therefore seen as problem solving, or a sort of mental rehearsal.

Lastly, decision-making is an attempt to solve organizational problems. The leader needs to possess a good knowledge of problem-solving techniques in order to make sound and effective decisions. If only one person makes decisions, the organization is inefficient. If this happens, wise decisions would not be made all the time because human beings have their limitations.

II. Importance of Decision Making

Decision-making is considered to have a number of important attributes, including:

It has a tendency to perpetuate itself; it attempts to protect itself from disruption and destruction from within, and hence it is concerned with the morale and satisfaction of its employees; it seeks to survive, and it is therefore competitive with other behavior patterns; and finally, it seeks to progress and grow. Effective administration requires intelligent decision-making. Decisions are intelligent when they are appropriate for accomplishing specific goals. Administrative decisions, however, are often extremely complex, and as such, rationality is limited for a number of reasons.

III. Four Basic Strategies for Decision-Making

In the last decade, decision-making has become important in administration, and various studies have shown that. Below are the basic

strategies that can influence and enhance decision-making in organizations:

a. The Classical Model: This is an optimizing strategy. It assures that decisions should be completely rational; it employs an optimizing strategy by seeking the best possible alternative to maximize the achievement of goals and objectives. According to the classical model, the decision-making process is a series of sequential steps.

b. The Administrative Model: It is a satisfying strategy. The complexity of most organizational problems and the limited capacity of the human mind make it virtually impossible to use an optimizing strategy on any but the simplest problems. Herbert Simon was the first to introduce the strategy of satisfying (searching for satisfactory alternatives rather than optimal ones). This is a situation whereby there is a reliance on both theory and experience in decision-making.

c. The Incremental Model: is a strategy of successive limited comparisons. Occasionally, some situations require an incremental strategy. If the set of relevant alternatives is indefinable and the consequences of each alternative are unpredictable, for example, for what new activities should a school administrator allocate more resources? Charles Lindblom , Bray Brook and Lindblom, and Lindblom and Cohen first

introduced and formalized the incremental strategy. They characterize their decision-making method as "the science of muddling through" and argue that it may be the only feasible approach to systematic decision-making when the issues are complex and the uncertainty and conflict are high. The process is best described as a method of successive limited comparisons. It does not require an objective, exhaustive analysis of alternatives and consequences or a prior determination of either optimum or satisfactory outcomes. The strategy considers only alternatives that are very similar to the existing outcomes and ignores all outcomes that are outside the decision-makers narrow range of interest.

d. Mixed Scanning or Adaptive Decision-Making: The mixed scanning model of decision-making is proposed for complex decisions. Mixed scanning unites the best of both the administrative and incremental modes. Amitai et Liori, and have reintroduced a model of decision-making to cope with the increasing complexities and uncertainties faced by contemporary administrators. He calls his model "humble decision-making," but a more descriptive title is mixed scanning or adaptive decision-making. Mixed scanning involves two sets of judgments: first, choices about the organization's mission and basic policy, and then incremental decisions that move the organization in the

direction prescribed by the policy. Mixed scanning unites the rationalism and comprehensiveness of the administrative model with the flexibilities and utility involved. The rules for mixed scanning are straightforward. They include focused trial and error, tentativeness, procrastination, decision staggering, fractionalizing, hedging, and reversible decisions. Educational administrators can effectively use all of these adaptive techniques, and they all display adaptability, caution, and the ability to move forward with incomplete knowledge.

IV. Types of Decision Making

There are many types of decisions, among which we have the following types:

1. **Broad-Comprehensive and Tactical-Operational Decisions:** These types of decisions are fundamental to the organization; they cut across the basic mission of the organization, such as long-range objectives, tactical policies, and strategies.
2. **Organizational and Personal Decisions:** These types of decisions are taken formally in an organization. Such decisions can be delegated to lower echelons, who may take further decisions on them. Personal decisions are those that an employee makes while acting as an individual member of an organization. These decisions ordinarily cannot be delegated, and if subsequent

decisions must be made to implement them, the same employee makes those decisions as well.

3 **Decisions Made Under Certainty, Uncertainty, and Risk Conditions:**

a. **Certainty:** A decision is said to be made under conditions of certainty when a manager knows the available alternatives, benefits, and implications associated with such a decision. In this type of decision, there is perfect knowledge about the available alternatives and their consequences. No element of chance intervenes between an alternative and its outcome. The outcomes of this decision are known in advance with complete certainty. Under such conditions, a manager is simply faced with identifying the consequences of the available alternatives and selecting the outcome with the greatest benefit. Managers mostly make decisions under these conditions; an example of a decision made under certainty is the purchase of US savings bonds. If one invests $1,000 in a savings bond for one year at 10%, it will yield $100 in interest.

b. **Risk:** A decision is said to be made under conditions of risk when a manager knows the available alternatives, the likelihood of their occurrence, and the potential benefits associated with each. Decisions under conditions of risk

are perhaps most common. In this situation, alternatives are recognized, but their outcomes are in doubt. In practice, however, managers usually assess the likelihood of the outcomes based on past experience, research, and other information.

c. **Uncertainty:** A decision is said to be made under conditions of uncertainty when a manager does not know the available alternatives, the likelihood of their occurrence, or the potential outcomes. Decisions under conditions of uncertainty are the most difficult. In such situations, a manager has no knowledge of the likelihood of outcomes. Decisions under uncertainty generally occur in cases where no historical data is available or in instances that are so novel and complex that it is impossible to make comparative judgments. Furthermore, decisions can be classified as programmed or non-programmed.

4. **Programmed and non-programmed decisions**: A number of authors have made a distinction between two kinds of decisions. Simon (1976) identified the "programmed" and "non-programmed" decisions. He described the programmed decisions as those that are repetitive and have become routine as a result of frequent occurrences of the same situation. The distinction between "programmed" and "non-programmed"

decisions refers to the procedure that is adopted in the process of resolving the decision situation. Programmed decisions are seen as having a well-defined and recognizable structure, so that new occurrences of a well-known type of situation can be placed in a category and processed routinely. Non-programmed decisions are those where no routine procedure or structure is applied. Each non-programmable decision appears to those involved to have characteristics that do not fit into any of the structures that have been formulated for the routine treatment of decision situations. This emphasis on structure has resulted in the use of the terms well-structured and ill-structured,

V. Styles of Decision-Making

There are five styles of decision-making available to the Chief Executive. The Chief Executive may choose one he thinks appropriate as the best option or alternative to the identified problem. The styles of decision-making process overlap with one another. They are:

1. Solve the Problem Yourself.

This style of decision-making is based on the available information. In this approach, the Chief Executive does not believe in intensive discussion. This style of approach is common among autocratic chief executives. They believe in themselves, and their decisions are final. This style of decision-making is not common in the public service, where a

series of brainstorming sessions take place. A corporate organization may not want to share its problems with another organization; instead, they find ways and means of solving the problem themselves.

2. Obtain the Necessary Information.

In this approach, the Chief Executive seeks the opinions of his subordinates through intensive discussion or brainstorming sessions before making a final decision. The role of the subordinates here is to provide the necessary information needed to solve the problem. The subordinates may have better knowledge of the environment and understanding of the situation than the chief executive. Executives who are consultative or participative use this method of decision-making .

3. Share the Problem Individually.

In this approach, the Chief Executive may decide to share the problem first with relevant subordinates individually without bringing them together as a group for intensive discussion. The essence of this action is to enable the Chief Executive to have individual ideas and suggestions from his subordinates before the final decision. The major difference between this approach and the former is that the chief executive seeks the opinions of his subordinates for information before making the final decisions.

4. Share the Problem as a Group.

This style of decision-making is similar to the ones above; the only difference is that instead of sharing the problem individually, the Chief Executive shares information with groups of employees before taking a decision. These groups hold intensive discussions on the problems and apply the best alternative to the problem.

5. Share the Problem as a Group and look for a Solution Jointly.

This style of decision-making is more acceptable and is adopted in most organizations. This is where the Chief Executive and his subordinates share the problems as a group and look for joint solutions to the problems identified. The role of the Chief Executive here is to coordinate the ideas and evaluate the alternatives of the groups and attempt to reach an agreement (decision-making) on the solution to the problem identified.

VI. The Process of Decision-Making

Decision-making processes involve a series of complex interactions among events. These interactions will be discussed in detail below in the following stages:

Stage 1: Study carefully the existing situation. An intelligent administrator is always studying his environment to see what is going

wrong and what is being done right. He has to study his staff. The school head needs to be constantly aware of what is happening in the school. This requires him to know quite a lot about students' affairs, teachers activities and welfare, parents' opinions about the school, and so on. Specifically, he needs to know such things as students' performance in their studies, teachers performance in their teaching assignments, the availability of teaching aids, catering services in the school, school discipline, and school community relations. It is only when the administrator is acquainted with the situation himself that he can be in a position to detect problems or difficulties that require decisions to be made.

Stage 2: Recognize and define the problem. All decision-making begins with the identification of the problem in the organization. Once a difficulty or an undesirable situation in the system has been identified, we can start to think about rectifying the situation or solving the problem. Thus, an effective administrator is always sensitive to organizational actions or behaviors that do not measure up to the prescribed standards. This means that the administrator must constantly be alert to issues or situations that might become problems in order to adopt a course of action that will prevent the problems from developing. Recognition and understanding of the problem are therefore crucial to the process of decision-making. The way a problem is understood has immense importance for subsequent analysis and solution. For staff or society as a

whole. Therefore, the school administrator has to approach indiscipline with a clear understanding of the problem.

Stage 3: Examine the detailed make-up of the problem in the existing situation. Here, however, the administrator has to classify the problem. This means that he has to decide whether the problem is really unusual or whether it is a new development of a typical difficulty for which an action pattern has already been developed. More often than not, the organization normally establishes mechanisms and procedures for dealing with many problems, which can easily be found in the use of existing school regulations. Precisely, the administrator needs to know the jurisdiction of the problem, that is to say, is the problem within his ability or has it been left to the board of governors to solve? For instance, if a school administrator expels a student from the school, will he be willing to accept responsibility for the decision? If a decision is not within the jurisdiction or capacity of the administrator to take, it will be better not to take it at all.

Stage 4: Decide on the criteria for resolving the problem. When we have finished describing, analyzing, and specifying the problem, as decision-makers, we must decide on what constitutes an acceptable resolution. What are the criteria for the acceptability of a decision? In other words, on what variables or factors will you base your decisions? Are these variables acceptable to your staff members? What are the minimum objectives to be achieved? What is good enough? It is advisable

for the decision-makers to rank the criteria with their possible outcomes along a continuum from minimally satisfying to maximally satisfying. As a general rule, the criteria we use to judge the decision must be consistent with our organizational goals (i.e., school rules and regulations).

Stage 5: Develop a plan of action. This stage is to identify the alternative methods available for tackling the problem, evaluate the cost and consequences of each alternative, and select the one offering the most advantageous combination of cost and consequences. What are the different things that I can do? How much will each cost? What is likely to be the result? Which should I choose as the best? The administrator develops his plan of action based on a simplified picture of reality. That is., if he chooses the factors that he regards as most relevant and crucial, he is able to come to general conclusions and then take action.

Stage 6: Initiate the plan of action. Stage 6 is complementation, which is establishing an organization to carry out the policy, program, or decision chosen. Allocating resources to it and motivating people to carry it out. The other thing we do in the implementation stage is establish controls to monitor the performance of the plan, evaluate its degree of achievement, and determine the reasons for any deviation from expected consequences. Reasons for the success or failure have to be identified. If the decision has been a failure, then corrective action must be taken.

Decision-making is a process that involves a number of interwoven stages. Decision-making steps are closely linked to the problem-solving approach. The process of problem solving could be thought of as consisting of three phases, namely:

1. What is the problem?
2. What are the alternatives?
3. Which alternative is best?

Simon (1976) states that the process of decision-making consists of three stages.

a) **Intelligence:** The internal and external environments of the decision maker are searched for conditions requiring a decision, and information is gathered about these conditions.

b) **Design:** The courses of action available to the decision maker are determined and analyzed as possible solutions to the decision problems that have been detected and

c) **Choice:** One of the available courses of action is selected for implementation on the basis of an evaluation of their effectiveness relative to the achievement of objectives. However, Simon added a fourth phase, which he called the review. This review phase consists of a process of

assessment of past choices during which possible modifications to the approaches used are considered in preparation for further decision-making activity.

Drucker states that the decision-making process consists of four basic steps:

a. Defining the problem;
b. Defining expectations;
c. Developing alternative solutions and
d. Knowing what to do with the decision after it is reached (implementation).

Nwachukwu identifies five elements in the decision-making process:

i. Formulation of goals;
ii. Acquisition of knowledge of the problem;
iii. Analysis of the situation to determine alternatives;
iv. Selection of action; and
v. Implementation.

Method and Hodgetts and Aitman state that there are six essential elements in the decision-making process:

i. Develop a concise decision statement.
ii. Establish goals;
iii. Define the importance of each goal.
iv. Develop a list of options.

v. Determine the best option, and

vi. Implement the decision.

VII. Critical Steps in the Decision-Making Process

There are a number of steps involved in the decision-making process; these steps range from 4 to 6 and differ slightly among contemporary authors and management experts. However, these steps focus on crucial and central elements in the decision process, such as problem definition, setting or clarification of objectives and goals, generation of alternative options or courses of action, analysis or evaluation of various options, research or information gathering towards the analysis of alternative courses of action, choice of option, and implementation of the decision. The following are the critical steps in the decision-making process:.

1. Definition of the Problem

The intellectual process that culminates in making a decision is problem-solving. It is an activity that either an individual or a group engages in. No amount of care and effort in the subsequent steps of analysis and development will yield a decision capable of reaching the desired objectives unless the problem requiring a solution is properly defined. It is a common error to confuse obvious symptoms with the cause of the problem. For example, excessively high manufacturing costs may be attributed to too many people, yet an excess number of workers is a symptom, not a cause. The causes may be due to poor

product design, poor scheduling, or frequent breakdowns of equipment. Similarly, an unsatisfactory sales volume can be the result of excessively high sales prices, competition from other producers, and not the incompetence of salesmen. A good way of getting behind the symptom and the problem is to ask the following questions: Why are manufacturing costs too high? Why is the sales volume too low? Would the solution to the problem as diagnosed provide an effective means of achieving the desired goals and objectives? However, a summary of the foregoing revealed that there is a need for careful problem analysis before embarking on the decision-making process. To this effect, the decision-maker(s) should do the following:

(i) Recognize the issue: Deviations from predetermined or assumed standards serve as indicators of problems. (ii) Specify the problem: This is done by finding and recording what is and what is not, where it is and where it is not, when it did occur and when it was not there, how big the problem is, and how it changes with time.

(iii) Collect information and decide why the information is required, what information is required, where and how the information will be obtained, and how accurate or valid the information is in view of your own and other people's interests.

(iv) Identify the causes of the problem: decide what factors could have caused the problem by using your own and other people's experiences through brainstorming and critical factor analysis.

(v) Test causes: ascertain whether the cause or causes identified could have accounted for the whole problem.

2. Formulating Aims or Goals of Decision

Decision-makers must have aims and objectives they intend to achieve. The organization may decide what objectives are necessary to achieve. For example, the aim could be to minimize costs and maximize profit. In the case of a production manager, the aim of the decision at that level could be to reduce output by 20 percent or increase average output by 10 percent. Also, there is a need to identify both the desirable aims and the essential aims of the decision.

3. Search for Alternatives.

This involves the identification of alternative ways of meeting the aims of the decision. Courses of action available to the decision-maker are determined and analyzed as possible solutions to the decision problems that have been detected. The first thought of a solution may not be the most satisfactory. However, various possible alternatives should be identified, such as the following:

i) Brainstorming is a creativity technique that involves the spontaneous identification of alternatives by individuals interacting in an unrestrained setting.

ii) Synectics is a creativity technique that involves the identification of novel alternatives through the joining together of different and apparently irrelevant elements The term synectics means the fitting together of diverse elements. A basic feature of synectics is the use of analogies as a stimulus for creativity. Analogies have been used to solve a variety of problems. Radar resulted from studying the use of reflected sound waves by bats. Airplane cargo doors were designed to work much like how a clam shell opens. Synectics is highly dependent on group processes. However, a technical expert is ordinarily present to assist a synectics group in evaluating the feasibility of ideas.

4. Evaluation of Alternatives

There is the temptation to take the first suggested alternative solution as the right one. This may be dangerous because what may appear at first as the solution may turn out to be the weakest alternative. The only way to avoid this pitfall is to make a critical and objective evaluation of all the alternatives. Evaluation and choice are difficult to

clearly separate. Ordinarily, once an alternative that seems reasonably satisfactory comes along, it is accepted. Criteria for choice and their relative importance are not considered explicitly. In addition to assessing the potential new problems that each alternative is likely to cause, the idea is to take the consequences of implementing each alternative into account and estimate them.

Management experts have identified five constituents that can be conceptually distinguished in the process of overall evaluation and choice of options. First, there is an evaluation of the anticipated benefits and costs of the available alternatives. Benefits and costs in this regard are estimated for each alternative. A second constituent deals with estimates of the risks and uncertainties that the various competing alternatives will face if they succeed or fail to close the gap in the problem situation. The third constituent is closure, which is the commitment of one alternative to close the gap. The fourth constituent is concentration on justifying the choice of option. The fifth constituent is an evaluation of the outcomes resulting from implementing the chosen alternative.

In summary, the five ideal constituents are evaluation of alternatives, risk estimation, commitment, justification, and evaluation of outcomes. Each of the alternatives is qualitatively and quantitatively evaluated. This requires the use of such quantitative techniques as cost-

benefit analysis, decision trees, and probability analysis. Evaluation also involves time evaluation and feasibility evaluation through the use of bar charts and program evaluation and review techniques.

5. Choice

Once a number of alternatives have been developed, the decision-maker must choose one. Meeting objectives is the purpose of decision-making. Objectives are multiple, so the choice is made in light of multiple and often conflicting objectives. The decision-maker must survey the full range of objectives to be fulfilled and the values implied in each choice and carefully weigh the costs, risks, and benefits that could flow from each alternative. Both analytical and intuitive thinking are appropriate. The decision-maker must re-examine the positive and negative consequences of all known alternatives, including those originally regarded as unacceptable, before making a final choice. This is necessary in order to break away from past patterns. There is a strong tendency among decision-makers to become increasingly committed to past decisions. After all these considerations, the decision-maker takes a personal decision on the best course of action.

6. Implementation

Once a decision is made, effective managers communicate and assign resources for its implementation. The manager also designs a feedback system to ensure they are alerted through a control system

where the decision is not implemented and can respond if the desired results do not flow from the chosen alternative. The decision-maker should also make detailed provisions for implementing the chosen course of action, with special attention to contingency plans that might be required if various known risks were to materialize. In order for effective implementation of decisions, the manager must schedule what has to be done, by whom, and when. He could use such implementation concepts as Management by Objectives (MBO) and target setting. The managers can also achieve these implemented objectives by using such tools and techniques as networks, charts, and discussions, which ensure that the desired results are obtained. The manager should learn to change methods when necessary and change goals when appropriate.

REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Abari, A. O., & Mohammed, M. O. B. (2006). Fundamentals of Educational Management. Babs Olutunji Publisher, First Edition.

Dorsey, J. T. Jr. (1957). A communication model of administration. Administration Science.

Etzioni, A. (1964). Modern Organizations. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Herbert, A. Simon (1976). Approaches of Public Administration. Book of the Half Century, 4th Edition.

Jones, M. H. (1957). Executive Decision Making. Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin.

Lawal, A. A. (1993). Management in Focus. Abdul Industrial Enterprises, Lagos.

Mbieli Methods, K. (1997). Research Methods for Public Administration. London: Quorum Books.

Musaazi, J. C. S. (1982). The Theory and Practice of Educational Administration. London and Basingstoke: Macmillan.

Newman, W. H., & Sumber, C. E. Jr. (1961). The Progress of Management. Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice Hall.

Nwanchukwu, C. C. (1988). Management Theory and Practice. Lagos.

Patrick. (2006). Public Administration. A Broad View. Megavons (West Africa) Limited.

Peter Drucker (1979). People and Performance: The Best of Peter Drucker on Management. London: Heinemann.

Simon, H. A. (1960). The New Science of Management Decision. New York: Harper and Row.

Steiner, R. (1969). Theories Practices. Floris Books; Anthroposophic Press.

Chapter Five

MOTIVATION IN ADMINISTRATION

I. Meaning and Scope of Motivation

One of the major problems confronting management is that of motivating workers to perform assigned tasks to meet or surpass predetermined standards. It is not easy to motivate an individual, for the success of any motivational effort depends on the extent to which the motivator meets the needs of the individual employees for whom it is intended. To help learners comprehend and understand the concept, we will discuss motivation, its process, and the different types of motivation as put forth by various authorities in this unit. The classical theory of Taylor, Gantt, Gilbert, Emerson, et al. believed that workers are economic beings and must be utilized to provide services for maximum productivity by designing the work most efficiently and using a system of wages and incentives to motivate workers.

In essence, motivation is that energizing force that induces, compels, and maintains behavior. Motivation is the psychological

feature that arouses an organism to action toward a desired goal and elicits, controls, and sustains certain goal-directed behavior. Human behavior is motivated; it is goal-directed. It can also be defined as an internal psychological process whose presence or absence is inferred from observed performance. Motivated behavior has three basic characteristics, which are stated as follows:

- It is sustained—it is maintained for a long time until satisfied;
- It is goal-directed; it seeks to achieve an objective.
- It results from a felt need—an urge directed towards a need.

II. The Motivation Process

A need creates tension in the individual who moves in a certain direction in order to achieve the desired objective, which reduces the tension. A satisfied need does not motivate; conversely, an unsatisfied need motivates. The process starts with a perceived need, then a tension is created, which starts the motivating behavior, and then there is a move towards the realization of the need—a goal-oriented behavior. As soon as the need is satisfied, the tension relaxes. To motivate an employee, management must create a real or imagined need for the employee to aspire to. A real need could be a desire to achieve through promotion, an increase in wages, or the enjoyment of increased organizational favors, such as company cars with a chauffeur. Imagined needs of a staff could

be an aspiration to have coffee at 10 a.m., which is the entitlement of successful executives, to have a secretary, have someone to carry his briefcase upstairs, have someone to run the office at the sound of the bell, or have visitors fill out papers before they enter his office. For the purposes of this course, terms such as need, desire, aspiration, and drive are used interchangeably. Since every employee has needs, he is capable of being motivated.

III. Concepts of Motivation

The concepts of motivation mean the same as the types of motivation. Generally, there are two types or concepts of motivation. These are the intrinsic and extrusive types of motivation.

1. Intrinsic Motivation:

Intrinsic motivation is when a person's interest in or enjoyment of the task itself drives them, rather than relying on any external pressure. This motivation is based on taking pleasure in an activity rather than working towards an external reward. Intrinsic motivation has been studied since the early 1970s. Workers who are intrinsically motivated are more likely to engage in the task willingly as well as work to improve their skills, which will increase their capabilities. However, workers are likely to be intrinsically motivated because they believe they have the skills that will allow them to be effective agents in reaching desired goals. It is interesting to state that intrinsic motivation is the same as internal

motivation, and this motivation cannot be manipulated.

2. The Extrinsic Motivation

This type of motivation refers to the performance of an activity in order to attain an outcome, which then contradicts intrinsic motivation. It is widely believed that motivation performs two main functions. The first is often referred to as the energetic activation component of the motivation construct. The second is directed at a specific behavior and makes reference to the orientation-directional component. Extrinsic motivation comes from outside of the individual. Common extrinsic motivations are rewards like money and grades and the threat of punishment. Competition is, in general, extrinsic because it encourages the competitors to win and defeat others, not simply to enjoy the intrinsic rewards of the activity. However, Gbadamosi and Adebakin state that motivation has been variously linked with urges, instincts, purpose, goals, desires, wants, motives, drives, etc. Since organizations cannot achieve all their objectives and goals and individuals cannot fulfill all their needs, it is the responsibility of the manager 64 to direct individuals so that they can satisfy their needs as much as possible while they still strive to accomplish the organization's objectives and goals.

IV. Motivational Theories and Their Implications

The following are theories on motivations: Their implications for

practicing managers will also be examined. These theories on motivations and their implications are as follows:

1. ABRAHAM MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS (1962)

Abraham Maslow, a psychologist, states that man always has needs to satisfy and that these needs can be classified in a hierarchical order, starting from the basic needs to the higher-order needs. Once a particular need is satisfied, it ceases to be a motivator of behavior, and another need emerges. He mentioned that these needs can be classified into five, as shown below. These are physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem needs, and self-actualization needs.

Classification of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

(a) Physiological Need: This is the basic need of people—food, clothing, and shelter. These needs are the strongest in man's life and must be satisfied before other needs. This need can be satisfied with money. A man who is starting life needs money to obtain shelter, buy food, and buy clothing. His major preoccupation will be to ensure that these basic needs are substantially satisfied. It appears to have a greater influence than any other need at this stage of a person's career. At every stage of the organization, management must recognize that every kobo means a lot to the employee. He would trade some comfort for money.

(b) Safety Need: As soon as the physiological needs are satisfied, a safety need appears. An individual's safety becomes very important to him. Questions such as what happens to me when I get sick. How I am protected from organizational hazards becomes his major concern. A safety need is protection against bodily harm, danger, loss of employment, deprivation, or threat. An employee likes to know that his employment is permanent. The loss of his job could induce him to seek ways of satisfying his physiological needs. To encourage productivity, management may threaten him with the possibility of losing employment. The organization should help solve a person's dependency needs. The employee gets worried if he is not a confirmed staff member or is subjected to discrimination or arbitrary managerial action. Safety needs could indeed be very strong for an individual.

(c) Social Need: This need is often referred to as an acceptance need. The individual has satisfied his two basic needs: acceptance, love, and being loved. He values friendship, affection, and the sense of belonging. Affection, esteem, and self-actualization are secondary needs. They are seldom satisfied by money. At this stage, the individual belongs to small clubs or informal groups at the workplace.

(d) Esteem Need: This is the fourth need. At this stage, the individual has a need for recognition, accomplishment, achievement, and self-respect. He loves to take responsibility and prove himself. The esteem need is the

"ego" need. He wants management and coworkers to acknowledge and value his contributions. The feeling of independence, professionalism, and confidence is highest at this stage. It is important for management to recognize and reward him for his contribution to the organizational effort. When people who work with him and management appreciate him by helping to build up his ego, his self-esteem, confidence, power, and prestige needs are satisfied.

(e) Self-actualization Need: This is the last in Maslow's hierarchy of needs. This need is often called a fulfillment need. This is the need for an employee to reach his highest potential at the workplace or in conquering his environment. As Maslow succinctly puts it, "what a man can be, he must be." A man is actualized when he feels he has reached the highest he is capable of reaching in an organization or in life. The feeling of competency, being the best, or having achieved manifests itself. Maslow believes that an average citizen satisfies perhaps 85 percent of his physiological needs, 70 percent of his safety needs, 50 percent of his love needs, 40 percent of his esteem needs, and 10 percent of his self-actualization needs. This means that a majority of people do not satisfy their self-actualization needs. Implications of Maslow's Theory for Practicing Managers iv) Numerous needs influence motivation; v) The needs of individuals vary considerably; vi) Managers must determine the level of needs of subordinates and adopt appropriate.

2. McCLELLAND THEORY OF NEEDS

His theory on motivation is the 'need for achievement' and the 'need for power'—the'need to exert influence and control over others. An individual seeking a position of leadership has a high need for power. McClelland states that some people achieve more than others because they have a greater desire to achieve. McClelland and his colleagues discovered that those who had a greater need for achievement were neither high-risk takers nor low-risk takers. They appeared to be realistic about their goals and set moderate challenges for themselves. They were motivated by achievement and saw money as a measure of their progress; so were status and power, which were not their own needs but were socially accepted measures of success in the satisfaction of the need to achieve. A supervisor who has a need for recognition among his peers or colleagues will strive for status and recognition. All people who have achieved are constantly interested in feedback as to the extent to which they are realizing their objectives.

Implications of Mcclelland Theory for Practicing Managers

i. Managers should re-educate workers to seek greater accomplishment through job design to provide for positive reinforcement and reward.

ii. The manager should create a work group where achievement is valued, thus preventing individual negative feelings.

iii. A manager should help workers improve their self-image by encouraging them to seek responsibility and being supportive of their efforts.

3. FREDRICK HERZBERG'S TWO FACTOR THEORY OF MOTIVATION (1965)

Herzberg examined the impact of job conditions on workers-dissatisfaction and satisfaction and came up with the hygiene or maintenance factor and the motivator factor, respectively. Herzberg's two-dimensional theory of motivators and dissatisfiers has received enough publicity in the area of motivation. These two-factor theories have often been called motivation maintenance theory, motivation hygiene theory, or dual-factor theory. Herzberg believed that what motivates an individual are: achievements, recognition, responsibility, advancement, and work itself. He strongly believed that these factors would induce an individual to put forth adequate effort in the accomplishment of organizational goals.

Hygiene Factors or Dissatisfiers

The dissatisfiers are relationships with supervisors, working conditions, relationships with peers, personal life, and compensation (money). Herzberg et al. (66) observed that an improvement in the hygiene factors (company policies and administration, supervision, working conditions, interpersonal relations, personal life, money, status, and security) would serve to remove the impediments to positive work

attitudes. When these factors deteriorate to levels below those that the employee considers acceptable, job dissatisfaction ensues. However, the reverse does not hold true. When the job context can be characterized as optimal, we will not get dissatisfaction, but we will not get much in the way of positive attitudes. Herzberg did not advocate the elimination of hygiene factors; instead, he feels that they are "housekeeping chores" that must be done. If they are absent, motivators will not work, as employees will complain and find unnecessary faults. To encourage motivation, it is recommended that employers encourage job enrichment. This involves making the job meaningful to the jobholder so as to enable him to derive satisfaction from the work. Good job design helps the employee derive recognition, a sense of achievement, growth, and responsibility.

Implications of Herzberg's Theory for Practicing Managers

Managers must therefore identify the particular factors that will appropriately serve their specific purpose. For instance, to deal with problems of labor turnover, improving hygiene factors may be necessary, whereas in cases of low production, the provision of motivation will be deemed essential.

4. PATTON'S THEORY OF MOTIVATION (1960)

Patton's contribution to motivation was similar to that enumerated by Herzberg's. He, however, states the following as what

induces motivation:

I. Money may sometimes be a reflection of other motivators.

i. The urge to achieve leadership (i.e., the will to be a leader among one's peers)

iii. Status, which includes promotion, large offices, challenging jobs, company cars, club membership, etc.

iv. The challenges found in work. He further stated that motivation in the expectancy model is the strength of the drive toward action. For instance, a worker who wants a promotion or increase in salary has a valence to the promotion or increase in salary. He can only be motivated to work hard if he has a strong expectation that improvement in productivity will bring about a salary increase that will satisfy his personal needs. On the other hand, if the worker has no need for promotion, his valence is zero; he will not be motivated to do anything that can lead to promotion. Motivation in the expectancy model shows that a person's motivation towards an action at a certain time is determined by the anticipated values of the entire outcome (valence) of the action multiplied by the strength of the person's expectation that the action will lead to the outcomes.

5. ADAMS JACQUES THEORY

This theory is based on the fundamental assumption that a major factor in job motivation, performance, and satisfaction is the worker's evaluation of the equity and fairness of the reward he is receiving. Equity of forward or fairness of compensation will exist when the output/input ratio of a worker is equal to the skill, effort, time, and experience required by the job, while output refers to the compensation received by the workers, such as wages, salary, fringe benefits, incentives, promotion, recognition, etc. Inequality will result if a worker perceives underpayment. This will make workers complain about re-adjustment, high labor turnover, absenteeism, etc.

6. LAWYERS PAY SATISFACTION

The foundation of this theory is the idea that pay satisfaction—which depends on both the employee's perceived pay and the pay they actually receive—is a necessary condition for motivation. If the perceived amount of pay is equally received, the workers will experience pay satisfaction, which will lead to their motivation and subsequent improvement in production. If the perceived amount is equal to the pay actually received, the worker will experience pay dissatisfaction, leading to conflict. But where the perceived amount of pay is less than the actual amount received, there will be feelings of guilt and job disaffection. However, factors like:

(a) Personal Input of a Worker;
(b) job characteristics;
(c) Wages History;
(d) Organizational Compensation System; and
(e) Ability to Pay.

7. MANAGEMENT BY OBJECTIVES

Employees are also motivated when management integrates their goals into the organizational goals through MBO. Management by Objectives is one of the latest methods advocated by Peter Drucker et al. for achieving organizational objectives. The basic concept is that top executives and managers should all be involved in determining company objectives, define major areas of responsibility, and integrate into them the goals of the employees. However, Odiorne defines MBO as a process whereby superior and subordinate managers of an organization jointly identify its common goals, define each individual's major areas of responsibility in terms of the results expected of him, and use these measures as a guide for operating the unit and assessing the contribution of each of its members. Carroll sees MBO as a process by which managers and their subordinates participate jointly in setting goals, activities, and target dates, as well as the evaluation of performance as it relates to established objectives. Management by Objective is one of the most effective ways of integrating activities and balancing organizational objectives. Peter Drucker consistently postulates that company objectives should be set in all the major areas,

such as:

(a) Productivity;

(b) market standing;

(c) Innovation,

(d) physical and financial resources;

(e) Profitability;

(f) Manager performance and development;

(g) public relations or responsibility; and

(i) worker performance and attitude. MBO converts company objectives into individual goals, and as a result, it contributes to higher levels of job satisfaction. By integrating employee goals with company goals, there is goal congruency, which will help to elicit employee commitment and result in an increase in productivity. MBO is often called management by results. By using this approach, the manager and staff members are both evaluated on the outcomes.

8. PATH-GOAL THEORY

This theory states that an employee will behave in a way that will lead to the attainment of valued, desired goals that he believes are attainable. Need creates tension, which an employee tries to reduce through goal-oriented behavior. An employee in this circumstance assumes three major things, namely:

(a) Goal availability: The employee believes that his goal can be attained through the instrumentality of the organization.

(b) Goal Values: The enterprise's reward is one the employee wants or values; and (c) Perceived Effort.

Reward probability: It is believed that equity will prevail in the organization. It is hoped that the organization will consistently reward the behavior it values. As pointed out, it is left for management to activate or create needs—real or imaginary—to induce tension. A manager who identifies valued needs and rewards effort will motivate employees.

V. Motivation and Productivity in the Workplace

Most employees need motivation to feel good about their jobs and perform optimally. Some employees are money-motivated, while others find recognition and rewards personally motivating. Motivation level within the workplace has a direct impact on employee productivity. Workers who are motivated and excited about their job carry their responsibility to the best of their ability, and production profit increases as a result. The following are some examples of motivation and productivity in the workplace. These are:

1. Incentives

An incentive is a motivating influence that is designed to drive behavior and motivate employees to produce quality work. Employers

use several types of incentives to increase production numbers. Employee incentives come in a variety of forms, including paid time off, bonuses, cash, and travel perks. Incentives drive employee motivation because they offer workers more to strike for than a regular pay check.

2. Recognition

Many employees need recognition from their employer to produce quality work. Recognition and an employee reward system identify employees who perform their jobs well. Acknowledging a job well done makes employees feel good and encourages them to do good things. Employers recognize workers by tracking progress and prevailing feedback about how they have improved over time. Public recognition is also a motivating factor that drives worker productivity.

3. Self-Motivation

Some employees are motivated by feeling a sense of accomplishment and achievement while meeting personal and professional goals. Many workers are self-disciplined and self-motivated. Incentives and rewards have little effect on employees, who feel motivated only when they are confident in their abilities and personal identity within the organization. These individuals perform productively for the sake of the personal challenge their work provides. 3.5.4 Implementation Strategies There are several ways employers can motivate employees and drive worker productivity. Because different

factors influence workers in different ways, employers can utilize motivation strategies that encompass several techniques. For example, to influence workers who are money-motivated, an employer may implement a daily spiff that pays cash instantly to employees who meet short-term production goals. To achieve long-term production goals, an employer could implement a program that encourages friendly competition between workers to meet production profits. At the conclusion of the program, employers can publicly recognize the top performance of a job well done. On the basis of all of the above, twelve (12) ways to improve productivity at the workplace are as follows: accountability, follow-up, managing the workforce but avoiding micromanagement, encouraging, motivating, recognizing, reaching out to employees by seeking them out, demanding realistic targets, teamwork, ensuring that employees enjoy their work, breaking the monotony and rotating courses and implementing options, spending less time on meetings and more on action, and using tools and equipment to raise productivity.

REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Durojaiye, M.O.A. (1976). *A New Introduction to Educational Psychology.* London: Evans.

Oladele, J.O. (1984). *Fundamentals of Psychological Foundations of Education.*

Lagos: John -Lad Ent.

National Open University (2014). *Foundations of Education.* Abuja: National Open University.

National Open University (2014). *Concepts and Theories of Educational Administration and Planning.* Abuja: National Open University.

Chapter Six

COMMUNICATION IN MANAGEMENT

Communication is necessary in the management of an organization because when we communicate, we are trying to establish a commonness with someone, that is, sharing information, ideas, and attitudes. Conducting relationships implies communicating with people, and your work as a manager is filled with instances of communicating with others. Communication is a major activity in business organizations. The ability to communicate clearly and accurately is one of the most valued skills in business. This chapter shall take an analytical look at communication, introduce the idea of communication as a process, and then explore some of the barriers to effective communication. It shall also examine some of the ways in which the quality of communication in an organization is determined.

I. Why Communicate?

In the modern era of the information explosion, nothing is more central to an organization's effectiveness than its ability to generate and transmit relevant, accurate, meaningful, and understandable

information among its stakeholders. All the advantages of organization—economics of scale, technical and financial resources, diverse competencies—are of no practical value if the organization's stakeholders are unaware of WHAT is required of WHO, HOW, WHEN, and WHERE. Management, which is in charge of achieving desired results through resource utilization that is cost-effective, must communicate these. ng the required relationship with these stakeholders implies communication. Managers are the nerve center of the organization. Effective communication is the crucial tool a manager has at his disposal for developing and sustaining a smooth, functioning work team, directing the employees, and coordinating and controlling their activities towards the accomplishment of corporate goals and objectives, as well as satisfying the aspirations and expectations of employees.

A manager, who wants to successfully accomplish his objectives of managing work and people, occupies many work roles simultaneously, and all the roles demand that the manager be effective in communicating. Executives have estimated that they spend approximately 90 percent of their time communicating through reading, writing, speaking, or listening.

Mintzberg, a management guru, confirmed that a sample of the chief executives he studied spent 78% of their working time on verbal communication alone. Of the ten managerial roles, Mintzberg identified

communication as of prime importance. For example, let us consider the manager's role as a decision-maker, which requires making discriminating choices. Here, the manager would request data, facts, ideas, reports, opinions, and observations to enable him or her to monitor work in progress, control, and take appropriate decisions to guide and direct the organization towards the achievement of objectives and targets. It is through effectiveness in communicating that the manager is able to do the following:

i. Inform, establish, and disseminate information.

ii. Influence: lead, motivate, and mobilize

iii. Activate—direct, instruct, and control. Communication has, as its ultimate purpose, the integration of managerial and employee functions. Furthermore, it is through effective communication that managers can perform all the core functions of managing people within the organization.

II. Understanding the Communication Process

Communication, as we have noted, is the capacity of an individual to communicate ideas and feelings to another individual and, where necessary, to evaluate discriminatory responses. Effective communication means the successful transfer of information, meaning, and understanding from a sender to a receiver. This is usually referred to

as a process of imparting ideas and delivering objective, accurate, and timely information from a source or receiver through a channel.

What comes out clearly from the above model is the sender, who, in the communication process, encodes the message and chooses a channel for transmitting the message so that it can reach the receiver. In other words, the sender sends the message through a channel to the receiver, who interprets and deciphers the message and sends feedback to the former sender, who in turn deciphers it. The ultimate aim is for meaningful feedback to be the same as the message "received.

The exchange of information is successful and effective only when understanding has taken place. Unfortunately, communication results in the effective transmission of information for a number of reasons, including:

i. If the information is distracting,

ii. If the receiver is unable to interpret or use the information,

iii. If there are other forms of barriers to effective communication.

Feedback is a process of checking and clarification through questioning and repeating the message to ensure that the encoding and decoding result in a mutual understanding of the message. This is an easy but often neglected part of the communication process. The feedback

process also draws our attention to the fact that true communication is a two-way process. The major benefit of the feedback process is that it provides opportunity not only for clarifying the original message but also for new insights and perspectives on the original ideas, which may then be notified.

III. Barriers to Effective Communication

A number of barriers to effective communication exist in all organizations. These can be classified into two categories: physical, or technical, and sociopsychological barriers.

a. Technical and Physical Barriers

These barriers are those that can minimize the opportunities for effective communication to occur. These may include, among others:

i. Poor means of communication such as typing facilities, photocopying, telephone breakdown, poor audio-visual aids, and other related facilities.

ii. Time constraints prevent the opportunity to communicate. Most physical barriers are relatively easy to remove once they are known to exist.

b. Socio-psychological Barriers

The more difficult sets of barriers are the socio-psychological barriers. These usually arise from perceptual differences between

people in communication relationships. Many of the problems may be the result of attitudes, norms, values, and beliefs held by parties. For instance, the sender chooses what to say and how to say it based on their perceptions of themselves, their perceptions of the recipient, and their perceptions of their position within the organization. What you must be aware of, as a manager, is that the process of communication is an active (not a passive) one. People do not simply encode and decode messages passively; they actively select and interpret them, try to make sense of them, and strive to give expression to their thoughts.

Consider, for example, the sender, who initiates the communication process. The message he intends to communicate is rarely self-evident; it often consists of half-formed thoughts and ideas. To communicate, he has to give expression to those thoughts and ideas by putting them into acceptable words (languages) and symbols. This is a complex process that would require you to choose appropriate language (technical and socially acceptable), symbols, and expressions.

As for the receiver, we need to be aware that people do not passively receive messages; they select, filter, and interpret them. If people think that a message is unlikely to be interesting or unimportant, they may ignore it altogether. Even when we have decided to concentrate on something, our minds may wander, and we may switch our attention to other things. Each of us, because of our unique background and socialization, develops our own frame of reference,

which influences our perception of the world around us and the way we see and respond to it.

c. Perception

This is the process by which we actively make sense of the world around us and respond to it, taking in information that is consistent with our frames of reference and filtering out information that does not fit. If our personalities and perceptions were identified, we would all tend to think alike, and communication problems would be rare.

d. Serial Distortion

There is what is commonly referred to as the serial distortion process. A common problem in a large organization is that messages often have to travel long distances and through several people before they reach their final destination. When this involves oral communication, the chances are that the message received will be somewhat different from the original message because everyone involved in receiving and transmitting it will inevitably add their own interpretation. In what ways can messages be so distorted?

i. Particular points in the message may be highlighted, that is, given increased prominence and importance.
ii. New information may be added (or subtracted) to make the message sound more interesting and palatable.

iii. Certain details may be modified to suit either the receiver or the sender.

iv. The order of the events may be altered—often done to make the message seem more logical—but it can affect its accuracy.

v. Gaps may be filled in to make sense of the message and make it sound more credible. Sometimes, these distortions are deliberate. People may decide that a particular message reflects badly on them, or they may want to withhold it from others in order to exercise their own power. We must bear in mind that information can rapidly assume a political perspective in an organization. Often, however, the intention may not be malicious. It is simply that as we decide, interpret, and decode any message we convey, the more stages it passes through, the more room there is for distortion.

IV. The Communication Climate

Why is it that communication often seems to flow more smoothly within some groups of people than others? One reason is that the prevailing communication climate directly influences the extent to which communication is a positive or negative force in an organization. An open or supportive communications climate promotes cooperative working relationships and is therefore conducive to effective

information gathering and transfers. A closed and defensive communication climate has the opposite effect.

The organization's communication climate is a product of the interactions and experiences of the people who work there; it is not something that exists outside of them. Communication climate reflects the abilities and dispositions that people bring to the workplace. Management must foster and create a climate that is conducive to communication.

a. The Open, Supportive Communication Climate

It has long been observed that people are more likely to have a sense of worth and importance and feel free to speak without fear of reprisal in an open and supportive environment. This kind of situation promotes an understanding of what each team member wants to accomplish and also encourages working together towards common goals. Supportiveness is communicated most clearly with the following kinds of responses:

i. Descriptive response: statements that are informative rather than evaluative.
ii. Solution-oriented response: a focus on problem-solving rather than an emphasis on what cannot be done.
iii. Open and honest response: even if criticism is expressed,

there are few hidden messages; the aim is to help and improve.

iv. Caring response: puts an emphasis on empathy and understanding

v. Equalitarian response: communication that values everyone regardless of their role or status.

vi. Forgiving response: recognizing the inevitability of errors and misjudgments and the likelihood of taking action to minimize repetition.

vii. Feedback responses are seen as a positive and essential part of maintaining good working relationships and high levels of performance.

Management style is a critical factor in determining whether the communication climate is open and supportive. If there is a history of suggestions being welcomed and acted upon, mistakes being used as an opportunity to learn, and crises being dealt with in an even-handed way, then staff are more likely to be open in their communications. They will feel trusted, secure, and confident in their jobs and in the organization as a whole. Effective teamwork, flexibility, and a sense of involvement contribute to and benefit from an open and supportive climate.

b. The Closed Communication Climate

i. Effective communication is one of the first casualties in a

closed and defective work environment. When the environment is highly political, competition for approval, promotion, or resources is invariably high on the hidden agenda. In this kind of environment, information is power. People often become very possessive and territorial about the information to which they have access. Control is maintained through the suppression of open forms of communication. Information is given or withheld to reinforce a person's position rather than to contribute to effective working. Communication behaviors that are likely to predominate in a close communication environment have been found to include the following:

ii. Judgment behavior: people are explicitly expected to conform to certain types of behavior and to inhibit or change attitudes and behaviors that are inconsistent with the norm.
iii. Deceptive behavior: messages tend to hold a hidden meaning or are expressed insincerely or in a manipulative way.
iv. Non-caring behavior: communications tend to be detached and impersonal and show little concern for others.
v. Superior behavior: people's ways of interacting with each other tend to emphasize their differences in status, skills, or understanding.

vi. Dogmatic behavior: there is little discussion and an unwillingness to accept other points of view or to compromise.

vii. Hostile behavior: there is a predominantly negative approach that places little importance on the needs of others. Effective managerial communication, in these circumstances, tends to breakdown to such an extent that the interaction between individuals is minimal; certain topics are simply not discussed, and verbal aggression becomes more commonplace. Communication still exists, but it can easily become defensive and covert.

REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Akinwumi, F., & Jayeoba, A. O. (2004). Principles and Practice of Educational Management. Ibadan: Bash-Moses Printing Co.

Cranston, N. C. (2002). School-based management, leaders and leadership: Change and challenges for principals. International Studies in Educational Administration, 30(1), 2-12.

Fadipe, J. O. (1990). Utilizing the teaching manpower in the secondary school system: A necessary administrative function for better productivity. In S. U. Udoh & G. O. Akpa (Eds.), Management for Quality Education in Nigeria (pp. --). Jos: Ehindero Nig. Ltd.

Nwankwo, J. I. (1991). Educational Administration: Applied concepts in school. In E. E. Ezewu (Ed.), Social Psychological Factors of Human Learning in Schools. Onitsha: Leadway Books Ltd.

Obeamata, J. (1984). Secondary school headship in Nigerian context. In S. Adesina & S. Ogunsaju (Eds.), Secondary Education in Nigeria. Ile-Ife: University of Ife Press Ltd.

Ogunsaju, S. (1988). Leadership theory and the administrative process. In S. Adesina & F. O. Fagbamiye (Eds.), Educational Administration. Ibadan: University Press Ltd.

Peretomode, V. F. (1991). Educational Administration: Applied Concepts and Theoretical Perspectives. Lagos: Joja Educational Research and Publishers Ltd.

Chapter Seven

LEADERSHIP IN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Leadership is an important aspect of management. The essence of leadership is followership; in other words, there can be no leadership without followership. Leadership is the process of influencing people by providing purpose, direction, and motivation while operating to accomplish the mission and improve the organization. The Army defines leadership as a means of getting people to do what you want them to do. It is the means or method of achieving two ends: operating and improving. In educational institutions, there must be a force to manage both human and material resources toward achieving educational goals. A force is needed in schools to guide the activities of teachers, non-teaching staff, and students towards the achievement of the institution's goals. Leadership provides the needed force. At the primary and secondary levels of education, the force is provided by the headmaster, headmistress, and principal, while it is provided by provosts, rectors, and vice chancellors in the colleges of education, polytechnics, and universities, respectively.

fulfillment. A satisfactory definition of leadership should contain the following: ideas, influence, group, situation, and goal. The leader, most of the time, uses influence as opposed to force. In relation to educational administration, leadership is the act of influencing a group of people in a particular situation towards the achievement of a goal or a set of goals. The leader possesses the skill that the group finds valuable in attaining its goals.

I. Definition of Leadership

Leadership is a long-standing and widespread topic of concern, and many people see it from different perspectives. Thieraut et al. (1977) defined leadership as a way of stimulating and motivating subordinates to accomplish assigned tasks. Although the leader is part of the group, he is distinct from it and is concerned with guiding, conducting, and directing it. The responses of the individual(s) or group(s) will largely depend upon the capabilities of the leader. Adesina (1990) sees an effective leader as the person who is not only able to make his subordinates want to do what they have to do but also recognizes that they must be motivated to ensure that the goals and objectives of the institutions, organization, or system are met.

Leadership is the behavior of an individual when he is directing and guiding the activities of the group toward a shared goal It is an input into an organization and involves interpersonal influences as one

initiates structures and acts that result in a consistent pattern of group interaction aimed at productivity and individual fulfillment. A satisfactory definition of leadership should contain the following: ideas, influence, group, situation, and goal. The leader, most of the time, uses influence as opposed to force. In relation to educational administration, leadership is the act of influencing a group of people in a particular situation towards the achievement of a goal or a set of goals. The leader possesses the skill that the group finds valuable in attaining its goals.

II. Educational Leadership

Leadership is a process of influence leading to the achievement of desired purposes. Successful leaders develop a vision for their schools based on their 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. Three dimensions of leadership arise from this working definition:

a. Leadership as Influence

Leadership involves a social influence process whereby intentional influence is exerted by one person [or group] over other people [or groups] to structure activities and relationships in a group or organisation Bush refers to three key aspects of these definitions. First,

the central concept is influence rather than authority. Both are dimensions of power but the latter tends to reside in formal positions, such as principal or head teacher, while the former could be exercised by anyone in the school or college. Leadership is independent of positional authority while management is linked directly to it. Second, the process is intentional. The person seeking to exercise influence is doing so in order to achieve certain purposes. Third, influence may be exercised by groups as well as individuals. This notion provides support for the concept of distributed leadership and for constructs such as senior leadership teams.

b. Leadership and Values

The notion of 'influence' is neutral in that it does not explain or recommend what goals or actions should be pursued. However, leadership is increasingly linked with values. Leaders are expected to ground their actions in clear personal and professional values. This implies that values are 'chosen' but Bush (2008: 277) argues that the dominant values are those of government and adds that these may be 'imposed' on school leaders. Teachers and leaders are more likely to be enthusiastic about change when they 'own' it. Hargreaves drawing on research in Canadian schools, finds that teachers report largely positive emotional experiences of self-initiated change but predominantly negative ones towards mandated change. There is a tension here between the obligation to implement the policies of democratically

elected governments and the need for teacher professionals to feel positive about new initiatives if they are to enact them successfully.

c. Leadership and Vision

Vision has been regarded as an essential component of effective leadership for more than 20 years. Southworth suggests that heads are motivated to work hard 'because their leadership is the pursuit of their individual visions'. However, Thoonen et al. refer to the 'adverse effects' of vision, which arise when principals do not involve teachers in the process of vision building. The articulation of a clear vision has the potential to develop schools but the empirical evidence of its effectiveness remains mixed. A wider concern relates to whether school leaders, in England and elsewhere, are able to develop a specific vision for their schools, given government prescriptions of both curriculum aims and content. Many head teachers are like Bottery's 'Alison', who examines every issue in relation to the school's Ofsted report. Hoyle and Wallace add that visions have to conform to centralised expectations and to satisfy Ofsted inspectors.

III. Qualities (Characteristics) of the Leader

It is generally accepted that the quality of leadership in an organization, be it religious, social, educational, or otherwise, affects to a large extent the success or failure of that organization. Qualities of leadership can be categorized under two major headings: tangible and

intangible.

A) Tangible Qualities: They are more obvious and quite easy to evaluate. They have to do with acquired skills—sound educational qualifications, experience on the job, etc.

B) Intangible Qualities: These are less obvious and usually take a long time to grasp; for example, the leader's imaginative ability, the leader's love, consideration for others, progressiveness, motivation techniques, respect for subordinates, good intentions, etc. Again, a good leader must be courageous. This is not the physical courage to face external threats, but the courage to expect and accept risks and failures. He must be able to defend his actions and protect the interests of his subordinates. He must believe in his own potential. In addition to the above, Akabogu outlined the qualities of a good leader (principal) to be:

i) Clear knowledge of what the objectives of schools are and of the means for their attainment.
ii) Reasonably good health and physical stamina.
iii) Sympathy, confidence, gregariousness, and demonstrable capability to work with people.
iv) Even disposition and sense of humor without intense moodiness and temper fuse-ups.
v) More than average intelligence is associated with mental

quickness and acuity.

vi) Orderly life.

vii) Intensive professional training with a social general education.

viii) Comprehensiveness and flexibility in thinking, together with imitativeness and ambition.

ix) A philosophy of life that leads to action with desirable character.

x) Balance between introversion and extroversion.

xi) Very wide interest.

IV. Types of Educational Leadership Models

1. Instructional Leadership

The increasing emphasis on managing teaching and learning as the core activities of educational institutions has led to 'instructional leadership' being emphasized. Instructional leadership is the longest established concept linking leadership and learning. However, several other terms may be used to describe this relationship, including pedagogic leadership, curriculum leadership and leadership for learning. Despite its prominence and longevity, instructional leadership has been criticized on two grounds. First, it is perceived to be primarily concerned with teaching rather than learning (Bush, 2013). The second criticism is that it 'focused too much on the principal as the center of expertise, power and authority' (Hallinger, 2003: 330). As a consequence, it tends

to ignore or underplay the role of other leaders such as deputy principals, middle managers, leadership teams, and classroom teachers.

Hallinger and Heck note that, in the twenty-first century, instructional leadership has been 'reincarnated' as 'leadership for learning'. This tends to stress shared or distributed leadership, counteracting the principal-centric approach of the instructional model. The second is a focus on learning, in contrast to the teaching-centered dimension of instructional leadership. Robinson's meta-analysis of published research shows that 'the closer leaders are to the core business of teaching and learning, the more likely they are to make a difference to students'. This indicates that instructional leadership effects are much greater than those of other leadership models, a view confirmed by Shatzer et al.

The recent emphasis on instructional leadership is based largely on practice in decentralized and partly decentralized contexts, where principals have substantial scope to decide how to lead and manage their schools. However, there is emerging evidence that governments of centralized systems, which encourage or prescribe instructional leadership, may be disappointed, as principals are reluctant to move away from their traditional managerial approaches.

Instructional leadership is different to the other models in

focusing on the direction rather than the process of leadership. It says little about the process by which instructional leadership is to be developed. It focuses on the 'what', rather than the 'how', of educational leadership. In this respect, it is limited and partial, and has to be considered alongside other models.

2. Managerial Leadership

Managerial leadership assumes that the focus of leaders ought to be on functions, tasks and behaviors and that, if these functions are carried out competently, the work of others in the organization will be facilitated. Most approaches to managerial leadership also assume that the behavior of organisational members is largely rational. Influence accrues largely because of the formal authority of leaders and Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinbach argue that influence is allocated in proportion to the status of those positions in the organizational hierarchy, suggesting the primacy of positional leadership. 'Positional power, in combination with formal policies and procedures, is the source of influence exercised by managerial leadership'. Hoyle and Wallace note the relationship between managerial leadership and leadership for learning: 'Management functions to support learning and teaching, the core of the educational enterprise'.

Managerialism: The shift in the language of school organization to favor 'leadership' at the expense of 'management' is partly semantic,

as noted above, but also reflects anxiety about the dangers of value-free management, focusing on efficiency for its own sake, what Hoyle and Wallace describe as 'management to excess': Effective leadership and management 'take the strain' by creating structures and processes which allow teachers to engage as fully as possible in their key task. Managerialism, on the other hand, is leadership and management to excess. It transcends the support role of leadership and, in its extreme manifestation, becomes an end in itself. Managerial leadership is the model which provides the greatest risk of a bureaucratic approach to school organization. By focusing on functions, tasks and behaviors, there is the possibility that the aims of education will be subordinated to the managerial aim of greater efficiency. Simkins claims that managerialist values, such as rigid planning and target-setting regimes, are being set against traditional professional values.

Managerial leadership has been discredited and dismissed as limited and technicist, but it is an essential component of successful leadership, ensuring the implementation of the school's vision and strategy. Management without vision is rightly criticized as 'managerialist' but vision without effective implementation is bound to lead to frustration. In centralized contexts, it is the most appropriate way of conceptualizing leadership because the principal's role often remains that of implementing external imperatives with little scope for local initiative. This is evident in many African countries, including Nigeria , and

in much of Eastern and Southern Europe, including Greece. Even in decentralized systems, however, effective implementation of initiatives, whether externally or internally generated, remains important. Managerial leadership is a vital part of the armory of any successful principal.

3. Transformational Leadership

A leader who employs this style of leadership is a true leader who inspires the employees with a shared vision of the future. Transformational leaders are highly visible and spend a lot of time communicating with their employees. They do not necessarily lead from the front, as they tend to delegate responsibility among their teams. In many organizations, both transactional and transformational leaders are needed. The transactional leaders ensure that routine work is done reliably, while the transformational leaders look after employee initiatives and add new value.

Transformational leadership is based on the assumption that higher levels of personal commitment to organizational goals, and greater capacities for accomplishing those goals, are assumed to result in extra effort and greater productivity. Transformational leadership is often contrasted with transactional approaches. The latter relates to relationships between leaders and teachers being based on exchange of valued resources. In its simplest form, teachers provide educational

services (teaching, pupil welfare, extracurricular activities) in exchange for salaries and other rewards. This is a basic approach and does not lead to the level of commitment associated with the transformational model.

Shatzer et al.'s research with 590 elementary school teachers in the USA showed that transformational leadership had positive effects on student achievement but that these were less pronounced than those arising from instructional leadership. Research in the United Arab Emirates indicated variation in perceptions between teachers and principals about whether principals were practising transformational leadership. They attribute such differences to cultural factors, and question the suitability of adopting this western model in an Islamic society without cultural adaptation.

The transformational model is comprehensive in that it provides a normative approach to school leadership which focuses primarily on the process by which leaders seek to influence school outcomes rather than on the nature or direction of those outcomes. However, it may also be criticized as being a vehicle for control over teachers, through requiring adherence to the leader's values.

The contemporary policy climate within which schools have to operate also raises questions about the validity of the transformational model, despite its popularity in the literature. Transformational language is used by governments to encourage, or require, practitioners to adopt

and implement centrally determined policies. In South Africa, for example, the language of transformation is used to underpin a non-racist post-Apartheid education system. The policy is rich in symbolism but weak in practice because many school principals lack the capacity and the authority to implement change effectively. The English system may be seen to require school leaders to adhere to government policies, which affect aims, curriculum content and pedagogy, as well as values. In this respect, transformation may be a unilateral process of implementation, not a context-specific assessment of the needs of individual schools and their communities. When 'transformation' is a cloak for imposing the leader's values, or for implementing the prescriptions of the government, then the process is political rather than genuinely transformational. 'The strongest advocacy of a transformational approach to reform has come from those whose policies ensure that the opportunity for transformation is in fact denied to people working in schools'.

Transformational leadership remains popular as it accords closely with the emphasis on vision as the central dimension of leadership. Successful leaders are expected to engage with staff and other stakeholders to produce higher levels of commitment to achieving the goals of the organisation which, in turn, are linked to the vision. There is evidence to suggest that transformational leadership is effective in improving student outcomes but this model also has two major limitations. First, it may be used as a vehicle for the manipulation or

control of teachers who are required to support the 'vision' and aims of the leader. Second, the language of transformation may be used to secure the implementation of centrally determined policies, not the identification of school-level vision and goals.

4. Moral and authentic Leadership

The moral leadership model differs from the transformational approach through its emphasis on integrity. It assumes that the critical focus of leadership ought to be on the values, beliefs and ethics of leaders themselves . Several other terms have also been used to describe values-based leadership. These include ethical leadership authentic leadership and spiritual leadership. West-Burnham) discusses two approaches to leadership which may be categorized as 'moral'. The first he describes as 'spiritual' and relates to 'the recognition that many leaders possess what might be called “higher order” perspectives', perhaps represented by a particular religious affiliation. Such leaders have a set of principles which provide the basis of self-awareness. G. Woods's survey of headteachers in England found that 52 per cent 'were inspired or supported in their leadership by some kind of spiritual power'.

West-Burnham's second category is 'moral confidence', the capacity to act in a way that is consistent with an ethical system and is consistent over time. Keddie's research in Queensland, Australia, points to the enduring significance of moral leadership despite the regimes of

accountability and competition that can compromise student equity and delimit schooling purposes.

The concept of authentic leadership has grown in significance but essentially covers similar ground to that of moral leadership. Begley (2007: 163) defines it as 'a metaphor for professionally effective, ethically sound and consciously reflective practices'. P. Woods (2007: 295) adds that it is 'essentially about the conduct and character of the individual leader'.

Moral and authentic leadership are values-based models. Leaders are expected to behave with integrity, and to develop and support goals underpinned by explicit values. Such leadership may be found in faith schools, where the values are essentially spiritual, or may be a product of the leader's own background and experience. The main difficulty arises when staff or stakeholders do not support the values of leaders. This is likely to be uncomfortable for the people concerned and may lead to dissonance within the school.

5. Distributed Leadership

The models discussed above are essentially about individual (usually principal) leadership. However, there have been several approaches which seek to widen the debate to include shared approaches to leadership. Crawford notes the shift from solo to shared

leadership. She attributes this, in part, to well documented failures of high profile 'superheads' in England, leading to skepticism about individual, or 'heroic', leadership

Collegial and participative leadership were popular shared approaches in the late 1980s and 1990s but distributed leadership has become the normatively preferred leadership model in the twenty-first century. Harris notes that it 'represents one of the most influential ideas to emerge in the field of educational leadership in the past decade'.

An important starting point for understanding distributed leadership is to uncouple it from positional authority. As Harris indicates, 'distributed leadership concentrates on engaging expertise wherever it exists within the organization rather than seeking this only through formal position or role'. Gronn refers to a normative switch 'from heroics to distribution' but also cautions against a view that distributed leadership necessarily means any reduction in the scope of the principal's role. Indeed, Hartley argues that 'its popularity may be pragmatic: to ease the burden of overworked headteachers'. Lumby adds that distributed leadership 'does not imply that school staff are necessarily enacting leadership any differently' to the time 'when heroic, individual leadership was the focus of attention'.

Bennett et al. claim that distributed leadership is an emergent

property of a group or network of individuals in which group members pool their expertise. However, given that leadership is widely regarded as an influence process, a central issue is 'who can exert influence over colleagues and in what domains?'. Heads and principals retain much of the formal authority in schools, leading Hartley to conclude that 'distributed leadership resides uneasily within the formal bureaucracy of schools'. However, the emphasis on 'informal sources of influence' suggests that distributed leadership may also thrive if there is a void in the formal leadership of the organisation.

Harris argues that 'successful heads recognize the limitations of a singular leadership approach' and adopt a form of leadership 'distributed through collaborative and joint working'. However, Bottery asks how distribution is to be achieved 'if those in formal positions do not wish to have their power redistributed in this way?' Harris argues that 'distributed and hierarchical forms of leadership are not incompatible' but it is evident that distribution can work successfully only if formal leaders allow it to take root.

While leadership distribution is generally regarded as 'emergent' a modified version has developed in centralised systems where school leaders invite, or require, teachers and other staff to fulfil certain roles, or to carry out certain tasks. This leads to the notion of 'allocative distributed leadership' evident, for example, in Malaysia (Norwawi,

2018) and in Nigeria (Imoni, 2018). This concept is very similar to delegation and may be regarded as more related to managerial, than to distributed, leadership. Similarly, Holloway, Nielsen and Saltmarsh (2017), in the USA, and Mifsud (2017), in Malta, point to the problems inherent in 'prescribed', or 'directed' distribution.

The interest in, and support for, distributed leadership is based on the assumption that it will bring about beneficial effects that would not occur with singular leadership. Leithwood et al.'s (2006) important English study shows that multiple leadership is much more effective than solo approaches. They add that schools with the highest levels of student achievement attributed this to relatively high levels of influence from all sources of leadership. Hallinger and Heck (2010) also found that distributed leadership was significantly related to change in academic capacity and, thus, to growth in student learning.

The existing authority structure in schools and colleges provides a potential barrier to the successful introduction and implementation of distributed leadership. 'There are inherent threats to status and the status quo in all that distributed leadership implies' (Harris, 2004: 20). Fitzgerald and Gunter refer to the residual significance of authority and hierarchy, and note the 'dark side' of distributed leadership, managerialism in a new guise. It can also be argued that distributed leadership leads to the power relationship between followers and

leaders becoming blurred, Lumby also links distributed leadership to power, claiming that little attention is given to the implications of the former for power relations in education.

These reservations suggest that an appropriate climate is an essential precondition to meaningful distributed leadership. Harris argues that 'the creation of collegial norms' are essential and adds that teachers need time to meet if collective leadership is to become a reality. Despite these reservations, however, the research does show that distributed leadership has the potential to expand the scope of leadership, leading to enhanced student outcomes.

Distributed leadership provides the most significant contemporary example of the nature of theory in educational leadership. To what extent is theory a representation of practice (description), and to what extent does it constitute advocacy; a normative perspective? Lumby comments that discussion of distributed leadership as a heuristic tool gave way to an evangelical approach, for example in NCSL publications. This may explain, in part, the frequent references to distributed leadership by participants in a study of senior leadership teams at schools rated as 'outstanding' by Ofsted. Unprompted, these leaders attributed their perceived success to adopting distributed approaches.

Distributed leadership is popular, in part, because it accords with the notion that values should be shared by teacher professionals and other adults in the school. Difficulties arise when the assumption of shared values is contradicted by the reality of conflicting values. Distributed leadership has become the normatively preferred leadership model in the twenty-first century. Harris argues that it is one of the most influential ideas to emerge in the field of educational leadership. It can be differentiated from several other models by its focus on collective, rather than singular, leadership. Leithwood et al.'s important study of the impact of school leadership led to an evidence-based claim that leadership has a greater influence on schools and students when it is widely distributed. This finding supports the common-sense view that enhancing leadership capacity in this way is likely to be more effective than relying only on singular leadership. Gronn's 'hybrid' model of leadership may offer the potential to harness the best of both individual and distributed approaches.

6. Teacher Leadership

Wenner and Campbell characterise teacher leadership as the teacher role beyond the classroom, supporting the professional learning of peers, and targeting student learning. Grant's model extends this view to develop a four-part model of teacher leadership:

Within the classroom
Working with other teachers
As part of whole-school development
As an extension beyond the school

Muijs and Harris's research in three UK schools shows that teacher leadership is characterized by a variety of formal and informal groupings. 'Teacher leadership was seen to empower teachers, and contributed to school improvement through this empowerment and the spreading of good practice and initiatives generated by teachers'.

Stevenson argues that the interpretation of teacher leadership is managerialist in nature and inherently conservative. Helterbran notes that teacher leadership 'remains largely an academic topic and, even though inroads have been made, teacher leadership remains more a concept than an actuality'. Muijs and Harris conclude that 'teacher leadership requires active steps to be taken to constitute leadership teams and provide teachers with leadership roles. A culture of trust and collaboration is essential, as is a shared vision of where the school needs to go, clear line management structures and strong leadership development programs'.

Teacher leadership is often linked to distributed leadership. A key distinction can be made between teachers' classroom leadership, which

may involve other adults, and their wider school role. Promoting teacher leadership provides greater leadership capacity and capability, and also offers the prospect of a 'ready-made' cohort when middle and senior leadership positions become available. Teacher leadership is more likely to succeed where it is fostered and nurtured by heads and senior leaders.

7. Contingent Leadership

The models of leadership examined above are all partial. They provide valid and helpful insights into one particular aspect of leadership. None of these models provide a complete picture of school leadership. The contingent model provides an alternative approach, recognizing the diverse nature of school contexts, and the advantages of adapting leadership styles to the particular situation, rather than adopting a 'one size fits all' stance (Bush & Glover, 2014). 'There are wide variations in the contexts for leadership and ... these contexts require different leadership responses'.

Leadership requires effective diagnosis of problems, followed by adopting the most appropriate response to the issue or situation (Morgan, 1997). This reflexive approach is particularly important in periods of turbulence when leaders need to be able to assess the situation carefully and react as appropriate rather than relying on a standard leadership model. A contingent approach also helps to counter the normative features of many leadership models and responds to the

tendency to advocate one 'right' approach to school leadership. By recognizing that a range of approaches can be valid, it provides a more complete picture of leadership practice. The contingent model is pragmatic and is not underpinned by a clear set of values.

Contingent leadership acknowledges the diverse nature of school contexts, and the advantages of adapting leadership styles to the particular situation, rather than adopting a 'one size fits all' stance. The educational context is too complex and unpredictable for a single leadership approach to be adopted for all events and issues. Contingent leadership, then, is not a single model but represents a mode of responsiveness which requires effective diagnosis followed by careful selection of the most appropriate leadership style. It is pragmatic, rather than principled, and can be criticized for having no overt sense of the 'big picture.'

V. Other Leadership Styles

Whether you are managing a team at work, captaining your sports team, or leading a major corporation, your leadership style is crucial to your success. Consciously or subconsciously, you will no doubt use some leadership styles. Leadership styles are the manner and approach of providing direction, implementing plans, and motivating people. There are a number of different assumptions and theories. The style that individual leaders use will be based on a combination of their beliefs, values, and preferences, as well as the organizational culture and norms,

which will encourage some styles and discourage others.

1. Autocratic Leadership

This is a leadership style in which a leader exerts high levels of power over his or her employees. The administrator determines all policies, techniques, and functions. The subordinates have little or no freedom to make suggestions. They are grounded mainly on fear, threat, and force, and hence they are labeled negative. The administrator insists on strict obedience to rules and regulations. He is not prepared to bend procedures to accommodate the peculiar needs of people. Workers engage in eye service and neglect their work in his absence. People within the team or as employees are given few opportunities to make suggestions, even if these suggestions would be of advantage to the organization.

This style is used when leaders tell their employees what they want them to do and how they want it done without getting the advice of their followers. Some people tend to think of this style as a vehicle for yelling, using demeaning language, leading with threats, and abusing their power. Many people resent being treated like this because this leadership style often leads to high levels of absenteeism and high staff turnover. Also, the team's output does not benefit from the creativity and experience of all team members, so many of the benefits of teamwork are lost. However, for some routine and skilled jobs, this style

can be adopted, and it remains effective where the advantages of control outweigh the disadvantages. The leader who adopts this style does not consider the interests or views of the employees but those of himself or herself alone. He treats his or her employees as tools or machines that are there to be used to affect his or her perceived goals. He or she passes down orders and has no feelings for them.

2. Bureaucratic Leadership

This type of leadership works by the book, ensuring that their staff follow procedures exactly as they are written down. This is a very appropriate style for work involving safety risks, e.g., working with machinery with toxic substances, or where large sums of money are involved, e.g., cash handling. In other situations, the inflexibility and high levels of control exerted can demoralize staff and diminish the organization's ability to react to changing external circumstances.

3. Charismatic Leadership

This leadership style is similar to a transformational style; the leader injects huge doses of enthusiasm into his or her employees and is very energetic in driving others forward. Charismatic leaders believe more in themselves than in their employees. This can create the risk that a project or even an entire institution might collapse if the leader were to leave. In the eyes of their followers, success is tied up with the presence of a charismatic leader. As such, a charismatic leader carries a lot of

responsibilities and needs long-term commitment from his followers.

4: Democratic or Participative Leadership

This style of leadership invites one or more members of the team to make decisions (determine what to do and how to do it) for the organization. The administrator allows suggestions and group discussions in which he plays an active role. No force is used; instead, every organization member sees the need for work to continue based on personnel commitment, whether the leader is there or not. The decision-making process is participatory; hence, the democratic style is supportive.

This style does not only increase employee job satisfaction by involving them in what is going on, but it also helps to develop people's skills. Employees feel in control of their own destiny, and so they are motivated to work harder. This style is normally used when the leader has part of the information and the employee has other parts. Note that a leader is not supposed to know everything; this is why the leader employs knowledgeable and skilled employees. As participation takes time, this style can lead to things happening more slowly than using an autocratic approach, but often the end result is better. It can be most suitable where teamwork is essential and where quality is more important than speed to market or productivity. Using this style is of mutual benefit because it allows the employees to become part of the

team and also allows the leader to take better decisions.

5. Laissez-faire Leadership

Laissez-faire is the French phrase for non-interference in the affairs of others. This style is a leader-less style. He gave instructions on the task to be performed and thereafter remained completely passive. The leader does not worry about procedures, nor does he care about rules and regulations. This style usually leaves the job uncompleted at the end of the day. It allows a great deal of freedom, and the group remains loosely structured.

This is used to describe a leader who leaves his or her employees to get on with their work without his or her interference. Laissez, a faire leader, allows the employees to make decisions. However, the leader is still responsible for the decisions that are made. This style can be effective if the leader monitors what is being achieved and communicates this back to his or her team regularly. It can also be effective when employees are able to analyze the situation and determine what needs to be done and how to get it done. No leader can do everything; a leader needs to set priorities and delegate certain tasks. Hence, it works for teams in which the individuals are very experienced and skilled self-starters. However, it is not a style to use in order to blame others when things go wrong. Rather, it is a style to be used when you fully trust and have total confidence in the people working under you. It

can be referred to as a situation where managers are not exerting sufficient control over the employees. You should not be afraid of using this style, but it must be used wisely. Self-Assessment Exercise Apart from the leadership styles you have read in this unit, mention other leadership styles that we have.

6. Task-oriented leadership

A task-oriented leader focuses only on how to get the job done; this type of leader can be quite autocratic. This style distinguishes between consideration for tasks and concern for people. In task-oriented leadership, emphasis is placed on the work, with good relations being incidental. This style emphasizes the attainment of goals, rules, and regulations. It is job-centered, production-centered, and boss-centered. This style agrees with the assumptions of Theory X. Task-oriented leaders care less about the well-being of the employees; they are more concerned with how to get the job done. This approach can also suffer from many of the flaws of a leader who adopts an autocratic style of leadership. He will also have problems motivating staff, as well as a high rate of staff turnover.

7. People-Oriented Leadership or Relationship-Oriented Leadership

This style of leadership is the opposite of task-oriented leadership; in a people-oriented style, attention is given to the needs of people, and

production is incidental. His primary aim is to keep subordinates happy and content. Much delegation is carried out, and there is little or no social distance between him and the staff. The choice of style will depend on the goal, the situation, and the people involved. He or she will actively define the work and the roles required by the employees, and he or she will also put structures in place, plan, organize, and equally monitor the work. People-oriented leaders are totally focused on supporting, motivating, and developing the employees or those in the leadership team. This leadership encourages participative decision-making, which leads to good teamwork and creative collaboration. However, if it is taken to the organizational goal, in practice, most leaders do not use this style alone. Where it will be used, it is advisable to combine it with a task-oriented style.

8. Transactional Leadership

This style of leadership starts with the premise that the appointment. The transaction is that the organization pays the employees in return for their effort and compliance. As such, the leader has to meet the predetermined standard. It is a process through which the tasks and human dimensions of an organization are reconciled and integrated. Nwankwo said transactional leadership style is the leadership style that is most popular in Nigeria and it is resulting in high staff performance. This leader tries to match organizational needs with those of the employees of the organization and strives to attain

them. The employees can do little to improve their job satisfaction under transactional leadership. The leader shows the employees some measure of control over their income or reward by using incentives that encourage even higher standards. Alternatively, a transactional leader could practice management by perception, whereby rather than reward better work, he or she would take corrective action if the required standards were not met.

9. Situational Leadership or Contingency Leadership

A situational leader is a leader who adopts the type of forces involved between the followers, the leader, and the situation, the time available, the relationships between the employer and employees, the level of training of employees, the type of tasks, and the laws that establish the organization. A situational leader believes that there is no single leadership style that suits all situations; the situation demands the type of style to adopt.

VI. Positive and Negative Approaches

There is a difference in the ways leaders approach employees. Positive leaders use rewards, such as praise, commendation, financial rewards, etc., to motivate employees. Negative leaders emphasize penalties. The negative approach must be used carefully due to its high cost to people's morale. Negative leaders are domineering and superior to people. They believe the only way to get things done is through

penalties, such as threats, loss of job, days off without pay, reprimands of employees, etc. They believe their authority is increased by frightening everyone into a higher level of productivity. Yet what always happens when this approach is wrongly used is a fall in employee morale, which of course leads to a lower or fall in productivity. However, it should be noted that most leaders do not strictly use one or another but are somewhere on a continuum ranging from extremely positive to extremely negative. People who continuously work out of the negative are bosses, while those who primarily work out of the positive are considered real leaders.

VII. Leadership Tasks

The specific task areas of leadership would vary from one situation to another. The major task of all leaders is to influence the behavior of subordinates so that the results of the system are attained.

a. Motivation: In the school system, the principal motivates his staff by providing immediate, attainable goals toward which the staff should work. He is to ensure that means are provided for attaining the goals set for staff. Another way is through feedback.Understanding the Ability of Staff: Since the school system would comprise men and women of different specializations, it is essential for the school principal to know the capabilities and characteristics of each staff.

b. Job Classification: On entering a system, the new employee would like to know what his specific tasks are. It is the principal's task to match people and positions. This should be done based on specialization and interest areas.

c. Staff Orientation: After staff have been recruited and assigned, the school head introduces them to the system. This minimizes the adjustment problems confronting the staff. The type of environment in which the new staff finds himself and the first impression he has in his early days would go a long way toward influencing his behavior and morals within the system.

d. Staff Development: There are four different types of staff development that can occur in the educational system**.** It aims at correcting certain deficiencies that were known at the time of the appointment. It equally enables the teaching staff to face the challenges resulting from innovation in the school curriculum. Non-professional teachers are encouraged to professionalize while the professionals themselves acquire higher qualifications for greater responsibilities and status within the school system.

e. Staff Supervision and Assessment: Supervision helps the new teacher understand the purposes, responsibilities, and relationships of his position and the directions of his efforts. The principal gives clear guidance as to steps, methods, and goals of

work and makes personal examinations of the work of individual members without straining relationships. In assessing staff, emphasis must be placed on the requirements of the position and the relevance of the staff's contributions to the institution's activities, aspirations, and objectives.

Application of Leadership Models

The concept of management has been joined, or superseded, by the language of leadership but the activities undertaken by principals and senior staff resist such labels. Successful leaders are increasingly focused on learning, the central and unique purpose of educational organisations. They also face unprecedented accountability pressures in many countries in what is clearly an increasingly 'results driven' business. As these environmental pressures intensify, leaders and managers require greater understanding, skill and resilience to sustain their institutions. Heads, principals and senior staff need an appreciation of the theory, as well as the practice, of educational management.

Theory is one of the four essential building blocks of school leadership. Alongside policy, research and practice, it provides helpful insights into how schools are led and managed. The theory of leadership is important for two main reasons. First, it provides a way of understanding and interpreting the actions of leaders. The models outlined in this chapter provide lenses to view, and to comprehend, the ways in which leadership is enacted in schools. Second, understanding theory provides a guide to leadership practice for principals and other

leaders. It widens horizons and avoids drawing only on the inevitably limited individual or collective experience of any school's leaders.

Each of the leadership models discussed is partial. They provide distinct but unidimensional perspectives on school leadership. They are also artificial distinctions, or 'ideal types', in that most successful leaders are likely to embody most or all of these approaches in their work. For example, heads may aspire to develop distributed instructional leadership. We noted earlier that leadership theory is subject to fashion and that models increase and decrease in perceived importance over time. The reasons for such changes are not always apparent. Recent evidence in England and internationally provides powerful empirical support for the widely accepted view that the quality of leadership is a critical variable in securing positive school and learner outcomes. Leadership is second only to classroom teaching in its potential to generate school improvement. However, much less is known about how leaders impact on outcomes. While 'quick fix' solutions to school under-performance, often involving strong managerial leadership, can produce short-term improvement, sustainable progress is much harder to achieve.

The leadership types discussed provide many clues for heads, senior and middle leaders, and senior leadership teams. Managerial leadership, operating through the hierarchy, can mandate clearly targeted change, such as a stronger focus on examination and test

scores. However, this often depends on a single leader and may not lead to sustainable change. Transformational leadership approaches aim to widen commitment to school-wide objectives, through the development of shared vision, but the 'vision' is often that of the head or principal with acquiescence, rather than genuine commitment, from teachers and other staff.

The limitations of the hierarchy have led to a plethora of alternative models, including distributed and teacher leadership, which are all designed to broaden leadership and to stress lateral as well as vertical relationships. These are often manifested in team-based structures. Bush and Glover's study of high performing senior leadership teams shows their value in providing coherence and leadership 'density'. Departmental and key-stage teams have the same potential to widen leadership participation but there is little evidence about the most effective way to develop and sustain such teams.

While there are different approaches to leadership and management, a focus on leadership for learning, or 'instructional leadership', is an essential element for successful schooling. It is likely to be more effective if it is a widely shared function; 'distributed instructional leadership'. The nine successful schools featured in Bush and Glover's research on English senior leadership teams all had a shared focus on high quality teaching and learning. Contingent leadership suggests that a flexible approach is required but attention to leadership

for learning is a key element of successful schooling.

REFERENCES/ FURTHER READING

Adesina, Segun (1990). Educational Management. Enugu: Fourth Dimension Publishing Co. Ltd.

Akabogu, G. C. (1972). The Role Expectations of the people of the East Central State of Nigeria of the Principal of a Secondary School. Unpublished Master's Degree Thesis, U.N.N.

Akanni, J. A. (1987). Management: Concepts Techniques and Cases. Ibadan: Julab Publishers Limited.

Bush, T., Bell, L. & Middlewood, D. (2019). Principles of Educational Leadership and Management (3rd Edition). London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Ezeocha, P. A. (1990). Educational Administration and Planning. Nsukka: Optional Computer Solution.

Greenfield, T. B., & Andrews, J. H. M. (1961). Teacher leader behaviour and its relation to effectiveness as measured by pupil growth. Albert Journal of Educational Research.

Mbiti, D. M. (1974). Foundations of School Administration. Nairobi: Oxford University Press.

Thierauf, R. J., Klekamp, R. C., & Geeding, D. W. (1977). Management Principles: A Contingency and Questionnaire Approach. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Ukeje, B. O., Akabogu, G. C., & Ndu, Alice (1992). Educational Administration. Enugu: Fourth Dimension Publishing Co. Ltd.

Chapter Eight

CHANGE AND INNOVATION IN AN ORGANIZATION

I. Concept of Change

Change is a complex phenomenon that involves both numerical increases and qualitative enhancements or declines within the current state of affairs. The process under consideration is a dynamic one, distinguished by the implementation of novel programs, methods, techniques, and approaches with the objective of substituting or enhancing preexisting ones inside a given system. Within the framework of the Nigerian educational system, change is evident in diverse manifestations, encompassing policy modifications, curricular improvements, and methodological advancements. These modifications are frequently motivated by changing societal demands, progress in educational research, and the ongoing pursuit of enhanced learning results. Moreover, the transformation in the field of education encompasses more than just the implementation of innovative approaches; it also involves the modification and enhancement of current procedures to more effectively cater to the varied requirements

of students. The process entails a methodical reassessment of teaching methods, administrative frameworks, and curriculum structures to guarantee their pertinence, efficacy, and congruence with current educational goals.

I. Educational Change

Educational change means a variation or deviation in educational policy, practices, objectives, or methodology from what they used to be . Change is a practical progression that deviates from an existing order. Fadipe and Adepoju stated that change is the alteration of existing forms or the status quo. Carlopio remarked that change is a social process undertaken over a period of time and not an event. Therefore, educational change is a social process that involves the alteration of activities in the educational system. The purpose of educational change is to encourage development. Educational change means a variation or deviation in educational policy, practices, objectives, or methodology from what they used to be. Furthermore, the process of change in education is characterized by iteration, necessitating continuous evaluation, feedback, and adjustment. The establishment of a culture of continual improvement and innovation requires the cooperation of several stakeholders, including as educators, policymakers, parents, and students. Embracing change in education is being open to questioning established beliefs, exploring innovative concepts, and accepting ambiguity in order to improve educational experiences and results for all

parties involved. Essentially, the idea of change in education goes beyond simple adjustments to include a dynamic and transformative process that aims to promote educational excellence, fairness, and flexibility in a constantly changing global environment.

II. Process of Planned Change

Educational institutions do not exist in a vacuum but within a given societal context. It is the changing needs, problems, and demands of society that prepare and effectively sustain the motivating force for change. Agabi and Okorie averred that the ideal model for planning change in education is one that recognizes the interdependent and mutually reinforcing or interacting relationship between the educational organization and its servicing environment.

III. Causes of Resistance to Change

a. Fear of the Unknown

One of the major causes of resistance to change is the fear of the unknown. People would rather continue with what the outcome is known. Employees, irrespective of their position, educational background, or experience, tend to react negatively to plunging into the unknown. The outcome of a planned change in education is unknown and will cause apprehension, which could lead to resisting the oncoming change. People would have established normal routines and acquired skill sets for performing their duties, and changes would upset the current level and require learning new skills.

b. Lack of Adequate Information

When people are not well informed about a change, they may be apprehensive of the consequences. This could lead to resistance to change. If a person is aware of the positive effects of a change, they are more likely to work toward its success.

c. Threat to Employment

Changes in the educational system will affect interested parties' self-esteem, both socially and economically. The change could lead to the loss of a job or make one's skills irrelevant. The 9-3-4 educational system, which places much emphasis on the use of technology in lesson delivery, if well implemented, will throw many teachers out of employment. Certainly, such teachers will strongly resist the change.

d. Organizational Structure

School organizations have structure and organizational relationships. Those who would suffer from the implementation of any change that alters the organizational structure of an educational system will object.

e. Limited Resources

Resources have always remained a vital factor in educational change. When there are adequate resources for the implementation of an educational change, it can easily be embraced. However, resources are mostly limited. This could evoke resistance from schools.

IV. Reducing Resistance to Change

A school is a social system with many interacting parts. Adding or

removing components of the interrelationship or altering the nature of the interrelationship can change education. Change may involve considering the needs and interests of those concerned, namely school administrators, teachers, and students, when implementing a change. The major stakeholders in the system should be allowed to participate in the change process. The educational environment where the change will be affected should be made conducive and attractive to facilitate the change process. Communication and education are paramount to reducing the effect of the change on the stakeholders.

V. Concepts of Innovation

The term innovation has been used interchangeably with change. Agabi and Okorie defined innovation as positive, planned, and specific changes that are initiated to facilitate the achievement of some defined goals. Educational innovation is defined as planned changes in educational objectives, policies, programs, methods, or practices with the intent of improving educational goal achievement (Agabi in Agabi and Okorie, 2002). Educational innovation refers to an improvement on the current level. Innovations are used to modify some features of the educational system. The 9-3-4 system is a modification of the 6-3-3-4 system.

VI. Process of Innovation

Bishop (1986) considered identifying the problem, considering possible solutions, selection of the innovation, introduction and

development of the innovation into the user or client system on a trial basis, and implementation as phases of the innovation process.

1. Identifying the Problem

This involves the identification of the situation that is causing dissatisfaction. It is the identified problem that innovation seeks to ameliorate. Prior to the introduction of the 9-3-4 system, it was observed that graduates were not easily absorbed into the economic system because the content was not in line with the reality of the needs of society.

2. Considering Possible Solutions

This phase involves considering possible solutions while bearing in mind the economic, social, and cultural limitations. In other words, the solution proffered should be feasible in terms of cost and compatible with existing values.

3. Selection of the Innovation

The change agent will, at this phase, select the innovation that will best achieve the desired results with the greatest effectiveness and at a reasonable cost.

4. The Development and Introduction of Innovation

The next phase of the process of innovation is to develop and introduce the innovation, that is, the selected solution, into the user system on a trial basis. At this stage, there is a need to create awareness and raise interest in innovation. It also involves adjusting procedures like teaching methods, retraining teachers,

and providing and setting up monitoring feedback procedures to assess the relevance and effectiveness of the innovation

5. Implementation

This may involve putting the innovation into use in stages and evaluating the process at each step. This is a distinct process from the trial phase. It is pertinent to devise a mechanism by which feedback can be collected from the users. Corrections could be applied with information derived from the feedback mechanism. An example was the implementation of the 9-Year Basic Education Curriculum nationwide in Primary 1 and JSS 1 classes in September 2008, while the old curriculum (the 6-3-3-4 curriculum) was systematically phased out. The feedback received from the previous stages of implementation assisted in preparing contingency plans for subsequent stages.

VII. Process of Educational Innovation

The process of innovation involves four major factors, namely the change agent, innovation, the user system, and time.

a. The Innovator

The innovator is the person or group that decides upon and initiates the innovation or educational change. Examples of the innovators represent the initiators, and the implementers of the innovation could be the principals, teachers, head teachers, national government, or local authority.

b. Innovation

Innovation is the change itself. Innovation refers to specific aspects of the educational system, like policies, programs, curriculum content, methods, or objectives.

c. The User System

The user system refers to the person or group at which the innovation is directed or targeted. These could be students, teachers, head teachers, and principals.

d. Time

Time is an essential factor in the process of innovation. Innovation is a process that takes place over a period of time. Time represents the duration within which the innovator will act on the innovation to generate the desired impact on the user.

VIII. The Planning of Innovation

Innovation requires effective planning to avoid waste of resources, disenchantment, and even failure of the innovation. For effective planning of innovation, there are elements to be considered in the innovation process. The elements include personnel, the specification of the actual task, method, equipment needed, plant, building, or environment, cost, other social contexts, time, scheduling or coordination of activities, rationale for undertaking the innovation, and evaluation of effects. In the planning of innovation, there must be personnel who possess the expertise and capacity available to perform

the tasks involved in the innovation. This will provide feedback on the real problems that might arise. The specification of innovation as an element of the planning of innovation consists of the size, scope, and role of teachers. The specifications could be detailed or open, depending on who is carrying out the tasks. The method refers to the strategy or procedure to carry out the task. The equipment needed should be provided to enable the innovation to effectively function. Equipment ought to be delivered before the implementation of the innovation, and personnel should be adequately trained on how to use it. The cost to be incurred for the implementation of the innovation is to be planned by starting with an analysis of the available resources. The resources available would determine the magnitude of the innovation. Social contexts would involve gaining the cooperation of the parties involved, like parents, teachers, and school communities. The time involved in the execution of an innovation can be long since some people are slow to accept innovations and change. Scheduling activities means planning the coordination of events in a precise manner during the process of innovation. The rationale for undertaking deals with the reason for the use of particular approaches in the operational phase of the innovation. The evaluation of the effects is a stage that provides the needed feedback on the innovation, on which corrections are made if required.

IX. Clarification of Terms

1. Technology:

The U.S. General Accounting Office provides this definition: "Technology may be broadly defined as the knowledge, skills, methods, and techniques used to accomplish specific practical tasks." Thus, technology is more than just methods and materials; in a broader context, it also includes the people, policies, and procedures that ensure its application.

2. Innovation:

The National Science Foundation defines innovation as "a technology new to a given organization." Thus, technologies do not necessarily have to be new to be innovative, but they are new to the organization.

3. Research:

Research is the creation of new knowledge. Research is defined by Hartgen as follows: "Research involves critical investigation, evaluation, or experiment with the purpose of revising currently accepted conclusions and/or improving practice or procedures in the light of new facts or insights."

4. Technology Transfer:

The term "technology transfer" refers to all activities leading to the adoption of a new product or procedure by any group of users. "New" is used in a special sense: it means any improvement over existing technologies or processes, not necessarily a chronologically recent invention. Technology transfer is not simply the dissemination of

information while passively awaiting its use. Technology transfer is an active term. It implies interaction between technology sponsors and users and results in actual innovation.

5. Information Dissemination:

The act of providing information about technology changes through various written and audiovisual techniques. Dissemination simply means that material is distributed to prospective users for them to evaluate and use as they see fit. Dissemination is almost always a one-way process with little user feedback or follow-up about how the material was used.

6. Diffusion:

The spread of an idea, method, practice, or product throughout a social system. This generally occurs gradually, as some users wait to see how it has worked for others before they are willing to adopt a new method. Communication patterns, especially one-to-one encounters, are a key element in determining how fast or how far a new method spreads.

7. Innovator:

An individual who is willing to take risks by adopting "new" methods, products, or practices that are not widely used at the time of adoption. Such a person can also be referred to as an early adopter because of their willingness to take the risks associated with new methods.

8. Networking:

The deliberate linking of people to promote the exchange of ideas and the establishment of direct contacts among people with similar

problems promote a general increase in information flow.

9. Change Agent:

A person who encourages and supports the adoption of new technology or innovations. Such a person usually acts as an intermediary between the source of information and the ultimate user. Some examples are university extension agents in agriculture, product salesmen, or brokers.

10. Technology Transfer Intermediaries:

Individuals who serve varied functions between applied researchers and users. The functions include translating technical material into simple language, linking potential adopters with experts, and facilitating the two-way flow of information between users and developers of new ideas.

11. Innovation Re-invention:

adaptation or modification of an innovation that takes account of existing environmental or organizational conditions.

12. Technology Push vs. Pull:

A technology "push," also known as top-down transfer, is diffusion from higher levels of authority to lower levels. An example of "push" is federal efforts at technology transfer through legislation, regulation, or policy. Entrepreneurs and other individuals or organizations whose objectives are to implement a technology typically "push" in order to do so. In marketing terms, the client is "sold" the technology.

A transfer "pull" is just the opposite, a bottom-up form of diffusion. The client demands the technology. The search for innovation

moves up from the lower levels of an organization until it is accepted, addressed, and resolved by higher authorities.

Another view of push vs. pull is that push represents innovation in search of a problem or market, while pull results from a problem searching for a solution. For example, consider the maintenance of public transportation vehicles. Federal agencies could adopt a push approach by developing improved techniques and then mandating their use or encouraging them through training and information dissemination. An alternative pull approach would be to have the transit agencies seek better methods to solve their problems. The federal role would then be to disseminate innovative maintenance practices generated by the local agencies.

13. Vertical Transfer:

The movement of information on technology from the top to the bottom of an organization or system of organizations. Vertical transfer follows an orderly "chain of command" in the flow of information.

14. Horizontal Transfer:

The movement of information on technology between people with a similar class of jobs (peer-to-peer) within an organization or between similar organizations.

X. Participants in the Process of Change

Roles and Responsibilities

a. Researchers

People who do research are also sometimes involved in the transfer of information to potential users of research. Their success depends on their ability to understand user needs and to put the information in a form that users can understand.

b. Change Agents

People who encourage and support the adoption of new technology or innovation. Such people act as intermediaries between the source of information and the ultimate user. Some examples are university extension agents for agricultural innovations, sales representatives, and brokers. Professional association officials may also act as change agents through the studies and programs they sponsor.

c. Early Adopters:

Individuals or groups who are willing to take risks by adopting "new" methods, products, or practices not widely in current use. These users are called early adopters. They are a key to the diffusion of innovations because they provide practical evidence that an innovation actually works, which is important to later adopters. These users may frequently create their own innovations in response to specific problems that they face.

d. Late Adopters:

Individuals who are slow to adopt new ideas and procedures. These people wait for others to try new methods before they try them

themselves. Late adopters will not accept an idea unless their peers have done it first.

XI. Barriers to Innovation and Change

Many of the problems associated with change relate to poor communication. Generally, people won't try new things if they are not able to get "good" information from someone they trust.

- The innovation is not disseminated. Sometimes agencies never really bother to disseminate their innovations other than to the sponsoring agency.
- The innovation is being disseminated to the wrong people. Results are sent to people who are not in a position to use them. The information is not referred to by the proper person or somehow gets lost on the way.
- The innovation is not understood by the potential user. If an innovation is to be implemented, it must be understood by those who are in a position to facilitate implementation. When information is not presented in the language of the user, it is unlikely that adoption will occur.
- The innovation is not presented at the proper time. If an innovation is presented at a point after a decision has been

made, along with irrevocable commitments, then it may prove to be counterproductive in that it may cause excessive delay or major conflicts on a particular project.

- The innovation is disseminated in an unacceptable manner.

  The innovation may be used to counter the policies of an agency or to generate conflict over the agency's projects. In such a case, an adversarial situation develops with negative results, whereas a positive situation might have otherwise occurred if the innovation were presented in a different manner.

- The problem has been poorly defined. Often, this may occur when a problem is defined with limited input from potential users. Research and development personnel tend to define problems along disciplinary lines with the goal of advancing levels of knowledge, while agency personnel tend to define problems along policy lines with the goal of decision-making.

- The innovation is not valid. It may contain mistakes, or the conclusions may have been improperly drawn. Internal validity is extremely difficult to assess for anyone other than the innovator unless it is thoroughly and completely documented.

- The innovation is not relevant to the problems of the potential user. The innovation does not address or properly articulate a problem as perceived by the potential user. Quite often, this occurs because the potential user agency does not have an active role in problem definition.
- The innovation is relevant. But the solutions proposed are not feasible for the agency because of legal, institutional, financial, political, or other constraints.
- Valid. Implementable results are not presented to people in policy-making positions.
- The innovation may not be implemented because of constraints associated with the organizational structures of implementation agencies.

XII. Approaches to Innovation and Change

Many approaches have been developed to describe the process of innovation in organizations. They demonstrate two things. First, there are a variety of methods for changing from centralized to decentralized approaches. Secondly, current procedures have characteristics of several approaches, and it is useful to examine the technology transfer models as they relate to the others in order to understand the process. The approaches described are the problem solver model, the research,

development, and diffusion model, the social interaction model, and the national diffusion network model.

a. Problem-Solver Model

In the problem solver model, client needs play a prominent role, and information is related to problem solving. The basic process is one of problem identification, solution search, selection, and then application. Information is used (often haphazardly) at each individual step to assist in carrying out the process. Outside change agents may assume the role of problem solvers, and to be successful, they must develop and maintain a cooperative approach.

b. The Research, Development, and Diffusion Process Approach

The R, D, and D models form the basis for much of the research activity in federal government departments and research laboratories. According to this approach, research is justified because it creates new knowledge. This view of technology transfer is based on the idea that "if the knowledge is there, a use will be found for it."

Despite the fact that many agencies have used this process, each has given different emphasis to the various components. A unique example of the application of this approach is the U.S. Department of Agriculture's cooperative Extension Service. This approach is unique because of its reliance on a decentralized network of county agents to

diffuse information on new technology and facilitate adoption. The R&D approach has not always produced effective results in other agencies. Without a network for diffusion and feedback from users, it is difficult to understand the needs of potential users or perform relevant R, D, and D. Normally, little is known about the needs of users since few systematic efforts are conducted to match user needs with available technology.

c. The Social Interaction Approach

This approach to diffusion and utilization has received considerable attention over the past 45 years. As its name implies, this approach emphasizes analyzing the interaction between people in order to better describe information flow. It concentrates on the diffusion of innovations throughout social systems, in which personal communication plays an important role. Concepts such as opinion leaders, early adopters, etc. are associated with this approach.

Resource and user organizations constitute the formal structure, and groups of individuals make up the informal structure. The interplay between formal and informal structures depends on the intensity of the interpersonal exchange of information. The greater the exchange, the more effective the network will be. This approach describes how individuals exchange information rather than how organizations can increase the adoption of innovations.

d. The National Diffusion Network Approach

The National Diffusion Network (NDN) model was established in 1974 by the U.S. Office of Education to encourage the spread of

innovative educational programs among schools throughout the nation. This approach is interesting because the innovations come from educational practices at the local level, while the decisions to promote innovations are made by a centralized review panel. Promising innovations are reviewed by a panel of experts; those judged most effective are then made available to schools interested in new approaches. The NDN makes use of two types of change agents: developers/demonstrators and facilitators. Developers are people who worked on an innovation's development and receive funding from the NDN to spread the word about their program. Facilitators, on the other hand, try to match potential local adopters with the appropriate demonstrator. Working at the state level, facilitators identify educational needs and provide interested schools with information on the exemplary innovations that are available for adoption.

Facilitators in the NDN model function as change agents or intermediaries; they are neither experts nor champions of any particular innovation. Their responsibility is to inform local schools of the types of programs the NDN offers and to link developers with interested school officials.

REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Adesina S. (1990). *Educational Management, FDP Education Series*, Enugu: Fourth Dimension Publishing Co. Ltd.

Argyris, C. (1960). *Understanding Organizational Behaviour.* Maywood III: Dorsey Press.

Ayanniyi, R.B. (1990). *An Analysis of conflict resolutions in the School System*: Seminar paper faculty of Education A.B.U. Zaria. School review, XLV, pg. 423-14

Beeby, C.E (1969). *Planning and Educational Administration*. Paris – UNESCO: IIEP

Coombs P. (1974). *What is Educational Planning IIEP fundamentals of Educational Planning* serves No. 1 UNESCO: IIEP.

Gbadamosi L.A (2005). *Basks of Educational Planning*. Ijebu – ode: triumph publishes.

Khan, R.L. and Boulding E. (1964) Power and Conflict in Organization New York: Basic Books.

Musaazi J.C.S (1982). *The Theory and Practice of Educational Administration.* London and Basingstoke Macmillan Press Ltd.

Nwankwo J.I (1981). *Educational Planning Theory and methods in Nigeria.* Pakistan: Izharsons Co Ltd.

Okeke, B.S., et. al. (1985). *A Handbook on Educational Administration*, Owerri: New AfricaPublishing Co. Ltd., 1985.

Okeke, B. S. (1989). *Education Planning in Nigeria: Social Process Approach*, Lagos: Joja Press Ltd

Peretomode, V.A (1991). *Introduction to Educational Administration,*

Planning and
Supervision. Lagos' Joja publishers ltd.
Thompson, A. R. (1981). *Education and Development in Africa*. London:
Macmillan Press Ltd.

Chapter Nine

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

Planning is the process of setting out in advance a pattern of action to bring about a given overall policy with the shortest possible articulation of means. This implies that planning is the process of identifying the means and the ends. Planning helps us understand the targets and enables us to map out strategies for attaining them. Planning is the rational process of preparing a set of decisions for future actions directed at achieving goals and objectives by optional means.

By this definition, planning is future- and goal-oriented. Planning does not exist in a vacuum; goals and objectives must be set. Planning is also designed to achieve development, and as such, planning becomes a continuous process. Planning is not only concerned with objectives but also with how to achieve them. Therefore, it is concerned with the implementation of those objectives.

Similarly, Orwigho contends that 'planning is a process that involves the selection of facts and assumptions that are related to the future with the aim of visualizing and formulating the desired outcomes

to be attained. Planning is always concerned with the progress made, with unforeseen obstacles that might arise, and with how to overcome these obstacles, and this can only be achieved through constant evaluation.

Fayol considers planning an act of foretelling and preparing for the future. Luther Gulick and Urwick viewed planning as working out in a way the things that need to be done and methods for accomplishing the goals of an organization. Now that students have this knowledge of general planning, let us be more specific by discussing the meaning of educational planning.

II. The Meaning of Educational Planning

In order to understand what educational planning means, it is necessary to understand what planning is and what a plan is. It is from this level that we will go into the explanation of educational planning. Adesina defines how many classes will be needed to accommodate all the available children seeking admission into our school system; we say we have planned the educational system. Planning is a way of projecting our intentions—that is, a method of deciding what we want to accomplish. Ejiogu holds that to plan means to project, forecast, design, make, or chart our course. From these views, it can be summarized that planning refers to the act of deciding in advance what is to be done, how and when to do it, where, and who is to do it in order to achieve the goals or objectives of the system. A plan is a detailed scheme, program, or method worked out beforehand for the purpose of achieving a set

objective.

There are three basic elements in a plan: it deals with the future, involves action, and identifies who is to implement the future action. For example, the NTI carried out research to find out if Nigerians would readily patronize its NCE through distance learning. On the basis of the positive findings, the institute came up with a detailed scheme regarding how it is to admit students, how course materials will be written, who should serve as writers of the course materials, when to write the texts, how the study centers will be organized and administered, how the progress will be monitored and evaluated, etc. It is this detailed program that is called a plan. On the other hand, the process of setting out this plan in advance is what is called planning. Planning bridges the gap between where we are and where we want to be. For example, Kano State did not own a university before, but it got to a point at which the state felt that it needed its own university. It therefore set up a committee to work out all the details about establishing and running its own university. This can be represented thusly.

Stage A leads to Stage B. Stage A refers to the period when Kano State did not own a university and felt that it needed one. It set up a committee to submit a detailed proposal for establishing one. Stage B, on the other hand, is when Kano State now owns a state university and is running it to achieve its set objective. Between stages A and B, planning takes place. Since the planning we have discussed above is in relation to

education, this type of planning is called educational planning. In line with our definition of planning earlier on, educational planning can be defined as the process of setting out in advance strategies, policies, procedures, programs, and standards through which an educational objective (or set of objectives) can be achieved. For the explanation of educational planning to be concise, a number of basic elements must be present in that explanation. These are:

1. Educational planning is a detailed and systematic process; it just does not happen by chance.
2. it sets out in advance. It is a forecast of what duties, assignments, and tasks (operations) are to take place in the future.
3. It must identify strategies, policies, procedures, programs, and standards; all these are necessary in order to chart the course of action that is required.
4. It is goal-oriented; it is directed at achieving a set of educational objectives.
5. Planning must take into consideration knowledge of the system for which the plan is to be made, the part of that system on which the plan is to be made, and the available resources in that system.

III. Purpose of Educational Planning

Providing education for the citizens of a country like Nigeria is becoming complex and demanding. This is coupled with the rising cost of education in the midst of dwindling financial allocation to education, the

growing influence of technological and social change, and politics and politicization. of education; the need to ensure the standard and quality of education; and the need to achieve the national educational and developmental goals and aspirations have all made planning education imperative. There are many purposes for planning education. Aghenta (1993) broadly put them as two; they are to:

(i) Ensure that the educational system is effectively and efficiently planned and operated.

(ii) Ensure that education serves the needs and aspirations of society in general and the students in particular. Specifically, education planning is useful for the following reasons:

(a) Educational planning enables education managers to gain economic insights into the use of resources, which are in most cases limited. Educational planning ensures the rational allocation of resources to various education programs, projects, and levels of education.

(b) Because educational planning processes data and information on education through in-depth analysis, it ensures rational and adequate facilities and equipment provision and distribution in the educational institution.

(c) Education is planned to ensure the internal efficiency of the school system. That is, to reduce or eliminate waste in the

system.

(d) Educational planning ensures the harmonization of the interests of the various stakeholders in the education business. That is, the interests of the students, parents, and society.

(e) Education planning gives direction to actions, facilitates the control of education resources, and provides the basis for monitoring and evaluation of standards, benchmarks, and guidelines.

(f) Educational planning integrates various knowledge areas, such as mathematics, statistics, computer science, economics, sociology, etc., to operationalize the planning of education.

(g) Education is planned to ensure relevance to societal values and aspirations.

IV. The Coverage of Educational Planning

Educational planning is an integral part of overall national planning. It focuses on the formulation of system-wise philosophy, goals, and objectives for the educational system. Educational planning covers the organization of relevant data and information; the determination of personnel; space; and materials. It also covers the examination of alternatives to establish priorities. It provides for communication and information retrieval, resource analysis,

assessment, and evaluation of education objectives. Specifically, the coverage of educational planning includes the following educational interests:

(i) Finance: Educational planning is interested in the judicious use of funds allocated to education. It plans for revenue and handles costing and budgeting in education.

(ii) Personnel: The adequacy in quantity and quality, training, specialization, and the trend in growth over time constitute part of education planning coverage.

(iii) Physical Resources: The provision in quantity and quality of facilities, their utilization, their distribution, and the general plant planning are within the ambit of educational planning.

(iv) Programmes and Services: The organization, the patterns of activities, and development over time.

(v) Aims and Objectives: The formulation, the expectations and aspirations, and the expected outputs are part of educational planning interests.

(vi) Alternative Decisions: The preparation that enables policymakers to make rational choices is an integral part of educational planning coverage.

V. Types of Planning

Planning can be categorized into three major types. In reactive planning, negotiated planning, and systematic planning, efforts will be made to discuss these types of planning and specifically spell out what each type stands for.

1. Reactive Planning

Reactive planning occurs when the planner or the administrator wants events to occur before preparations are made to tackle them. Crises are therefore resolved as they occur within the institution. The planner who adopts this type of planning relies heavily on information and activities that deviate from the norm. Therefore, under reactive planning, abnormal events tend to form the basis for scheduling the programs of the institution. As a result of this, the administrator tends to be confused since the trend of events is unpredictable. Theological outcome of this type of planning is frustration among the members of the institution, coupled with a loss of confidence in their leader, leading to ineffectiveness and a lack of a sense of direction.

2. Negotiated Planning

A negotiated type of planning is based on bargains to arrive at a common position. With this type of planning, less emphasis is placed on a rational examination of the issues to be resolved or the program to be implemented. Instead, the final decision is heavily influenced by the bargaining positions of the various parties involved in the planning process. Sometimes, the relative authorities of the parties as well as the

associated possibility of controlling the available resources also influence the final plans that emerge. The result of this type of planning is that educational programs are introduced without adequate consideration given to their desirability. This often leads to hazards or even the non-implementation of some of the related programs, with the associated waste of valuable resources.

3. The Systematic Planning

Systematic planning involves a process by which the planner identifies the needs of the institution. The problems affecting the institution are therefore clearly stated, and the alternative requirements for problem solutions are identified. On this basis, the solution that could enhance the resolution of the problem is chosen from the alternative measures already identified.

A systematic approach to educational planning therefore requires a carefully determined method and means of resolving educational issues and a proper evaluation of the results of the implemented plans. As a result, the systematic method of planning represents a logical problem-solving process for the identification and resolution of important educational problems.

The negotiated and systematic types of planning could be considered complementary to each other. This is particularly true with reference to the educational system, where negotiation appears to be inevitable as a result of the limited resources at the disposal of

educational planners and administrators. This is also partly a result of the special relationship between education and politics in developing countries like Nigeria, with the resultant need for group decisions on educational issues. It is possible for educational planners to apply the negotiated and systematic types of planning at the same time. However, the following are some of the main features that tend to distinguish systematic planning from the negotiated type of planning:

i. Goals are often not stated in written form in the negotiated plan. Each of the parties involved in this type of planning would prefer to leave the ultimate goals a mystery, since it would make it possible for them to maneuver and bargain favorably in the process. Whereas in the systematic type, the goals to be attained and the measures for evaluating the progress recorded are predetermined, made explicit, and made public. In fact, the goals are agreed upon before planning takes place.

ii. In the negotiated type of planning, each negotiator releases only information or data that supports these views; the details are not often produced. As for systematic planning, there is usually a common analysis group that is responsible for the collection, organization, and presentation of the data that is used by all the planners. Such data is therefore made public, and this minimizes arguments about the information so collected.

iii. In negotiated planning, comparisons between alternative

measures are often made during oral arguments. While systematic comparisons between alternatives are made, the prediction of the consequences of each alternative is carefully done, and every analysis is presented in writing and made available for study. Where possible, systematic planning used hard data and computation in forecasting.

Below are the advantages of a systematic planning approach:

i. Orderliness
ii. Identification of goals
iii. Minimization of waste
iv. Time-saving
v. The focus on goals is quite obvious
vi. It enhances implementation
vii. It provides a basis for evaluation
viii. Stability and continuity can be enhanced

VI. Other Classifications of Planning

Planning is also classified variously according to its functions, structure, and level of decision. It can also be classified according to the time horizon and scope of the plan. Planning classifications are diverse and over-lapping. Because of this, we will only discuss the classification by level of planning, time horizon, and scope of the plan.

Using the level of planning, planning can be classified as follows:

1. Normative Planning
2. Strategic Planning
3. Operational Planning
4. Management Control Planning

1) Normative Planning

Normative planning takes place at the highest level of the polity. This planning process involves the formulation of policies that address the values and aspirations of society. The future needs of the people are the governmental priorities. Under an ideal situation, normative planning is participatory and largely democratic.

2) Strategic Planning

The strategic level of planning is made up of strategic and tactical planning. Tactical planning concerns the allocation of resources among stated goals. Strategic planning, on the other hand, concerns the acquisition of resources, whether new or from other sources. Strategic planning is long-range planning that takes a long look ahead to determine future occurrences and actions. It is non-recurring. It has a long time horizon, and it is done at the managerial level. Strategic planners are to envision and establish plans and programs to serve the needs that will be in place in the 5–10 years ahead. Strategic planning makes use of long-range planning, which encompasses current directions and trends over a period of time, rather than focusing only on existing programs. Strategic planning recognizes the need for new programs and the elimination of others. Structurally, Nwadiani (1998) opined that strategic planning derives its frame from normative planning. This could be because it is the political authority that determines the level of planning to adopt. The activities of strategic planning are functionally proactive, that is, anticipating and planning for

change. At this stage, the policies that are formulated at the normative level are translated into operational programs and plans.

The process of strategic planning involves the following:

- specification of goals and objectives
- identification and analysis of alternative strategies
- selection of the best strategy
- implementation of the selected alternatives
- monitoring and evaluation of outcomes therefrom.
- Strategic planning considers the resource situation in the implementation of the plans and programs.

3) Operational Planning

At the level of operational planning, planned policy programs are translated into projects for effective implementation. Operational planning lays out the frame of what should be done and how it should be done. Operational planning deals with the feasibility of a program and ranks all objectives in order of priority. This is necessary because of the limited resources available to carry out implementation. Operational planning gives rise to a yearly or annual plan. This can take the form of an annual budget, as we have in Nigeria. Operational planning analyzes the limits of the available resources for action. However, it is meant for short-

range planning.

4) Management Control Planning

Management control planning is concerned with the planning for operations, accounting, and administrative responsibilities in the process of program implementation. What should be done for operations must be precisely defined. For accounting, the projected activities or events need to be structured in such a manner that accurate information on management decisions can be obtained. Planning for administrative responsibilities is concerned with the utilization of the available resources to achieve the stated goals. Management control planning, short-range planning, or work planning is of the program or project type. It is concerned with the immediate tasks of planning, organizing, scheduling, and resource control. It is often done in connection with the preparation of the annual budget. Under this plan, the work plan will indicate the following:

- the work to be done or objective to accomplish
- a description of the resources required
- a set of alternative methods
- provision for evaluating performance after the plan has been placed into operation.

Using the time-horizon classification, planning can be divided as follows:

1. Short-term Planning
2. Medium-term Planning
3. Long-term Planning

Note: *that there is no serious rigidity in the time between them.*

1. **Short-Term Planning:** The implementation of short-term planning does not exceed one year, that is, one fiscal year.
2. **Medium-Term Planning:** This planning falls between two to five or even ten years.
3. **Long-Term Planning:** Planning for a long-term duration falls between ten and twenty years, or even more.

Using the scope of the plan, planning can be classified as follows:

a) Micro-level Planning
b) Macro-level Planning

a) Micro-Level Planning: This is concerned with any planning activity that is carried out at the local government or institutional level, that is, the school level. It includes planning activities by the local education authority, school managers, and teachers concerning facility planning, time-tabling, time scheduling, and curriculum planning.

b) Macro-Level Planning: This involves policymaking, resource allocation, and target setting at the state, national, and international levels. However, the above classifications apply to all kinds of planning in organizations. The kinds of planning include:



(a) Educational planning
(b) Physical planning
(c) Academic planning
(d) Town and regional planning
(e) Development planning
(f) Economic planning
(g) Social planning
(h) curriculum planning, etc.

VII. Categories of Planning

There are three categories of planning, usually referred to as long-range planning, medium-range planning, and short-range planning. Each of these categories will be discussed.

a. Long-Range Planning

In terms of time span, long-range planning has been considered by various authors to represent periods in excess of ten to twenty years. However, Candoli has observed that the main problem associated with long-range planning is the tendency to consider the related plans as rigid parameters beyond which the affairs of an organization cannot be operated. This implies that basing the activities of education on such long-term plans may not produce the desired results since our society is dynamic and educational programs are expected to reflect societal changes. For this, Candoli considers long-range planning as the application of new alternatives and approaches to the affairs of education within a period of three to five years. It is important to observe

that long-range plans are not entirely rigid. Provisions are often made for flexibility so that essential changes within an organization can be accommodated from time to time. For this reason, long-term plans are further broken into medium-range plans and short-range plans.

Therefore, long-range planning could be considered the process of systematically projecting the activities of the organization for at least ten years in order to achieve the intended goals. Ovwigho With long-range planning, the management of an institution tries to decide on what is to be done, when it should be done, how it is to be done, and who should be responsible for the execution of the various aspects of the plan. However, long-range planning is sometimes considered to cater for the structure plans.

b. Medium-Range Planning

This is the process through which specific functional plans related to a given number of years are made. Through this process, details of how strategies are to be carried out to attain long-range objectives are provided. The institution therefore prepares manuals of procedures that should guide the various units or departments in preparing their medium-range programs and plans. Medium-range planning is usually for five years. In most institutions, the functional plans are translated into financial terms in the form of profit and loss statements. This is done on the basis of the medium-range plans. As a result, the first year of the medium-range plan is used for short-range yearly operational planning.

c. Short-Range Planning

Short-range planning is intended to make long-range plans more realistic or operational. Short-range plans, such as annual budgets, are more detailed than medium-range plans.

VIII. Characteristics of Educational Planning

Educational planning has a number of characteristics.These characteristics are basically four. They are: primacy of planning, pervasiveness of planning, mission-oriented, and future-oriented.

i. Primacy of Planning

Planning is the first step in management. It takes precedence over all the other managerial functions. Everybody plans, even though not everybody plans well. As a teacher, you plan your lessons before you go to teach them. As of now, you plan the way you want your child's birthday ceremony celebrated, etc. It is after this planning that you can organize it and identify those people who will help you cook, bake the cake, and do other things. It is also after this that you will look for a photographer to take pictures.

ii. Planning is Pervasive.

By this, we mean that planning cuts across all levels of management and all the other managerial functions. Whether at the primary, secondary, or university level of education, planning is done. For example, the managerial functions of organizing, staffing, etc. involve some planning. The way the birthday ceremony mentioned above is to be organized has to be planned. Also, its implementation needs to be

planned, or else you find out that some of the activities may either be forgotten or that those that are to come first are treated last, and vice versa.

iii. Planning is Mission-Oriented.

Planning involves the mapping out or charting of activities in such a way that it helps to satisfy human wants. Thus, planning is goal-directed, i.e., it is directed at achieving a specified goal or a set of goals.

iv. Planning is Future-Oriented.

Planning, as said earlier, is the process of deciding in advance what should be done in the future, how it is to be done, who will do it, when, and where to do it. This process takes into consideration past trends and present experiences in order to project into the future. The future here can be near or far. A plan can therefore be short-term, medium-term, or long-term, depending on its duration. A short-team plan is one that is for a period not more than 3 years. It is medium-term if the plan is for between 3 and 5 years. It will be called long-term if the plan is for more than 5 years.

IX. Educational Planning Process

Adesina identified three major steps in the educational planning process. It is important that we understand those steps. They are: statement of educational objectives; identification of various activities needed to achieve the stated educational objectives; and devaluation of results.

In the process of planning, it is important for the following questions to be raised:

- Where are we?
- Where do we want to go?
- What resources do we need to connect in order to get there?
- How do we intend to get there?
- When will it be done?
- Who will be responsible for what aspect of the plan?
- What will be the likely impact of our plan on humans and other resources'?
- What will be needed to measure progress?

The basic tasks defined under educational planning can be subdivided into six mutually interrelated and reinforcing stages that constitute the educational planning process. these stages include plan survey and deliberation, definition of goals and objectives, program design and specification, program provision, implementation, and control, plan evaluation, and plan regeneration.

The first task to be determined and accomplished is a survey of the prevailing conditions, potentials, and constraints. The desired data and information must be collected and analyzed to reveal the prevailing state of educational development and areas of need. Public opinion from different interest groups must be harnessed and properly deliberated upon to arrive at an effective and meaningful determination of educational needs.

Once the prevailing conditions have been ascertained, the next stage is to define the new educational objectives to be pursued as well as

specify the targets to be realized. Educational objectives that are broadly stated by the political leadership must be made more specific by the technical planners to permit a specific task definition.

The next task in the planning process is program planning and design. At this stage, the technical planner has to reduce the already-defined educational objectives to specific task areas to be realized, and alternative programs that can be adopted must be designed. The alternative programs and/or techniques for realizing such educational tasks need to be quantitatively evaluated for efficacy so as to allow a rational choice among them. For instance, the objective of attaining a desired level of adult literacy can be realized through either classroom instruction, a public television viewing program, or an out-of-class extension program. Each of these programs has a varying degree of efficacy.

Once the choice of the most effective and efficient program and/or technique has been determined, the next stage is to implement it. This demands the provision of adequate resources, both human and material. At this stage, adequate supervision of the projects or programs is required. At this implementation stage, the commitment of the political leadership is needed to guarantee the efficient flow of resources and the efficacy of the administrative machinery to ensure smooth implementation and supervision of educational plans.

The next stage in the educational planning process is the

evaluation of educational plan implementation. Evaluation at this level involves ascertaining the extent to which the already specified educational objectives have been realized. The process also serves as a forum for appraising the flows in the plan projections and the problems encountered in the course of the implementation stage.

The last step in the educational planning process is plan regeneration. This requires linking subsequent plans with the previous plan in terms of feedback or learning experiences. Plan regeneration or recycling is very essential so that unattained objectives or programs from previous plans can be accommodated in subsequent ones. It is important to note that for effective implementation of programs or projects, the necessary resources—humans and materials—must be adequately provided in terms of both quantity and quality. Therefore, the following aspects are crucial:

i. **Statement of Educational Objectives**: The educational objectives must be identified and clearly stated. This will ensure that there is no confusion about the objectives.

ii. **Identification of Various Activities:** The various activities that are needed to achieve the stated objectives must be clearly identified. Usually, those activities relate to the supply of human and material resources that are required. This ranges from identifying such institutions (schools, examination bodies, etc.) that would have to be established for the plan's implementation and monitoring to the number of cleaners required. They also

relate to the identification of the number of staff required, their qualifications and experience, and the amount of money required to maintain the system.

iii. Evaluation of Results: Evaluation should be related to the stated objectives. The extent to which a plan meets the objectives it has established for itself can be determined by looking at the implementation in relation to those objectives and outcome results.

X. Uses of Educational Planning

Considering that educational planning is concerned with the problem of wisely distributing limited resources and the types of education (formal, non-formal, etc.), the process of educational planning comprises three main functions.

a. Identification of Objectives and Strategies:

By this, we mean that educational planning helps in identifying and defining the objectives and the strategies, programs, procedures, policies, and standards that education needs to be more effective and efficient. Through educational planning, we are able to clearly identify and define educational objectives, as well as various activities that are to be carried out to achieve the educational objectives.

b. Proper Distribution of Scarce Resources.

By scarce resources, we mean the limited resources that are available to satisfy our wants and needs. Educational planning helps in

seeing to it that the limited resources are properly or wisely allocated to provide the needed level and type of education to the citizens of the country. In order to help in wisely allocating the limited resources, alternative courses of action are compared, and then the one that has great benefits for the citizens is allocated more resources.

c. Educational Planning Aids Decision-Making.

Educational planning helps decision-makers at all levels reach better and more informed decisions. This is because, through educational planning, adequate dates are collected on the particular level that we wish to plan for and on the basis of the information available. It is also easier to arrive at better decisions. Educational planning therefore helps to promote speedy and effective administration of the system since the administrators of the system are provided with the necessary guidelines to work with. Furthermore, with educational planning, it becomes easy to evaluate the progress made in the educational system.

XI. Fundamentals of Educational Planning and Approaches to Planning

Planning in education, like anything else, is the process of making decisions for future action. Educational planning is the application of rational, systematic analysis to the process of educational development with the aim of making education more effective and efficient in responding to the needs and goals of its students and society. Beeby

(1969) opines that planning is an exercise in foresight in the determination of policy, priorities, and costs of an educational system, having due regard for economic and political realities, the potential growth of the system, and the needs of the country and the students served by the system. Educational planning emerged out of the need to connect education with national development. Educational planning increasingly caught public attention, particularly in the 1950's, with the spectacular impact of Soviet technological achievements since Soviet Russia was the first major power in recent times to recognize the place of educational planning. Between 1944 and 1970, Nigerian educational plans were extensively guided by, and largely dependent upon, the work of ad hoc commissions, whose recommendations were endorsed to varying degrees for the purpose of educational planning.

Fundamentals of educational planning entail the following:

A. The objectives of educational planning
B. The importance of educational planning
C. Components of Educational Planning
D. Educational planning process and
E. Approaches to Educational Planning.

A. The Objectives of Educational Planning

There are various dimensions to the general objectives of educational planning. These cut across political, legal, economic, social, cultural, demographic, scientific, and technological.

i. Political Dimensions

The political objective of educational planning should relate to the

promotion of justice, peace, law order, and good governance. The opinions of religious groups, teachers, organizations, and traditional rulers should also be considered. No planning process is known to be incongruent with political considerations.

ii. Economic Dimensions

Economic considerations in educational planning should place emphasis on the need for individuals to live happily. An educational plan should include labor and employment aspects. An educational plan should tend towards preparing people for gainful employment, the development of gifts of nature, and the production of goods to satisfy human wants. Scholars have held the view that there is a causal relationship between education and earnings.

iii. Science and Technology Dimension

Education for technological advancement should be well planned, financed, and implemented for the development of individuals in the technological society.

iv. Legal Dimensions

Educational planning requires a specific legal framework. The legislature, courts, and judiciary have important roles to play in the education of a nation. There is a need for legislative support for educational planning. The implementation of educational planning should be within the ambits of the nation's constitution, status, and education law.

v. Demographic Dimensions

Educational planning should take special notice of the structure and characteristics of the school-going population and the population around the schools. Educational planning without sufficient demographic data results in failure to achieve educational objectives. The growing population and the work force should be considered while planning the education of a nation.

vi. Cultural Dimensions

Linguistic and cultural groups' influence the operations of educational planning generally and also the implementation of policies on education. The national development objectives should be culture-oriented because of the social value system, which affects education. 48

vii. Sociological Dimensions

Educational planning should be able to consider the close relationship between the structure of society and schooling. Both society and the school engage in stratification and differentiation.

XII. The Importance of Educational Planning

The need for educational planning entails the following:

1. The complex nature of education, the activities of the administrators within the system, and the highly diffuse nature of the goals of education call for proper planning. Within the intensified complications of modern technological society, the need for social and economic planning arose. Pressures from

population explosion, manpower needs, ecology, decreasing national resources, haphazard application of scientific development, and the need to advance improvement as rapidly and cheaply as possible to benefit the individual and the nation place demands on educational institutions for solutions, hence the need for educational planning.

2. Resources to be used in the education sector are limited, thus the need to determine in advance a program of action for the attainment of the goal within a given time.

3. Adequate plans help to direct and coordinate the actions of employees in order to achieve maximum effectiveness, efficiency, and productivity.

4. Planning is necessary for administrative decisions in education, for it aims at putting into action what educators deem necessary to achieve.

5. Planning enables a nation to make its choices clear in terms of its aim and objectives.

6. Educational plans are designed to avoid imbalances and enormous waste and replenish the steadily aggravated shortage of teachers. Since the goals and objectives of education all impact the social, economic, and political well-being of society, much is expected from educational planning.

XIII. Components of Educational Planning

The major considerations for educational planning in a country include:

1. Educational Status and the Head Count

Every realistic plan is based on a dependable census. If the figures from the head count were dependable, we could staminate, with reasonable accuracy, the number of classrooms, teachers, and headmasters, desks and tables elaborative, capital and recurrent costs, etc.

2. Supply and Demand for Teachers

The quality of education depends solely on the quality of teachers trained. This is because they can only teach what they know. There is a need for the restructuring of the curriculum of colleges of education and faculties of education to respond to national needs. Also, steps should be taken to improve the conditions of service for teachers if they are to remain in the education sector.

3. Educational Financing

Graduates of primary or secondary education who secure jobs are able to earn wages and salaries and thus contribute to the Gross National Product, and this brings about the justification for public and private investment in education because of their returns. The equitable sharing of the financial burdens of education amongst federal, state, and local governments must be fully considered by

all parties concerned.

4. **School Buildings**
The design, construction, equipment, and maintenance of school buildings should be considered. School buildings should be adequately maintained because of their depreciation value, which, if not properly looked after, could be hazardous to the existence of their users, that is, teachers and students.

5. **Curriculum Development**
The constant modification of the curriculum is necessary since the curriculum should be relevant to the needs of society, and society is not static; it is dynamic.

6. **Educational Materials**
The supply and distribution of educational materials are highly necessarily considered. Educational materials such as books, maps, rulers, pencils, teaching aids, etc. may make the educational program fail if not properly organized.

7. **Expansion Models**
Expansion models must be created from the beginning to bring into consideration what is envisaged in the primary, secondary, and tertiary schools many years ahead and to look for possible strengths and weaknesses they can borrow and avoid in the present one.

8. Relevance to Political, Economic, Social, and Cultural Policies and Objectives

If educational plans are not closely geared towards political, economical, social, and cultural objectives, they will not take off, and people will be educationally dissatisfied.

9. Integrated Implementation

Strategies to mobilize everybody to reason why the various statistics for planning are necessary will bring about a sincere consideration for the need to plan the education of a nation. When public support is achieved, decrees and laws are no longer imposed. Instruments and people will jointly work towards the implementation of the educational plan.

10. Legal Bases

Planning takes place under established laws. The legal framework for planning should be streamlined through legislation to include the form, structure, and functions of the planning units and agencies, the staffing and responsibilities, and the relationships of the units with other educational authorities.

XIV. The Educational Planning Process

The educational planning process involves the following steps:

1. Plan, survey, and deliberations.

2. Definition of goals and objectives
3. Program design and specification
4. Program provision;
5. Implementation and control
6. Plan evaluation and plan regeneration .

1. Plan, Survey, and Deliberations

The very first task to be accomplished is a survey of the existing conditions, potentials, and constraints. Necessary data and information must be organized and analyzed to reveal the existing state of educational development and areas of need. Then the next stage follows.

2. Definition of Goals and Objectives

Once the planning survey and deliberations have been ascertained, the next thing to do is to define the new educational objectives to be pursued as well as specify the targets to be achieved. Educational objectives that are broadly stated by the political leadership must be made more specific by the technical planners to permit specific task definitions.

3. Program Planning and Design.

This is the next task after defining goals and objectives. Here, the technical planner has to reduce the already-defined educational objectives to specific tasks to be accomplished, and alternative programs that can be adopted must be designed. The alternative programs and/or techniques for accomplishing such educational

tasks must be quantitatively evaluated for efficacy to permit a rational choice among them.

4. **Program Provision.**
Once the choice of the most effective and efficient program or technique has been made, the next thing is to implement it. This requires the provision of adequate resources (human and material) to ensure effective program implementation.

5. **Implementation and Control.**
Translate the plan into action by arranging for its execution. Determine the activities that should be done, the manpower requirements, and so on. Arrange the execution of the plans; a sort of timetable will be necessary to ensure that all actions taken are intended to achieve the stated objectives. This stage also requires the commitment of the political leadership to ensure the efficient flow of resources and to guarantee smooth implementation and supervision of the plan.

6. **Plan Evaluation and Plan Regeneration.**
The evaluation must be related to the stated objectives. The extent to which a plan meets the goals it has established for itself can be determined only when those goals are again brought to light. A plan that does not produce the results it has anticipated has evidently failed.

Plan regeneration constitutes the last lap in the educational planning cycle. This requires linking subsequent plans with the previous plan in terms of feedback or learning experiences. Plan regeneration or recycling is most desirable so that unachieved objectives or programs from previous plans can be accommodated in subsequent ones.

XV. Educational Planning Approaches

The following are approaches used in educational planning:

- Social demand approach
- Manpower requirement or forecasting approach
- Cost-benefit/rate return approach
- Synthetic (eclectic) Approach.

a. Social Demand Approach

This approach relies on private demand for education and stipulates that all those who demand education should be given the opportunity, provided that they are qualified. The UBE program in Nigeria was based on this approach. This school believes that education is one of the fundamental human rights of every individual. As such, it recommends that all those who qualify for admission into a particular level of education be given the opportunity. It is believed that all expenses and activities related to education are good in themselves. For example, because the government felt that mass literacy was a

birthright in Nigeria, it has always expended money on providing mass education to its citizens. In the 1970s, the Federal Government realized the need to educate all its citizens. As a means of achieving this, it started the Universal Primary Education program. Generally, the belief is that when the citizens are literate, it will be easy for them to know their rights, participate in the choice of who is to rule them, and avoid political thuggery. To a large extent, political reasons dictate the adoption of the social demand approach. This somehow explains why the government continues to spend so much money on education.

The government continues to spend more on educational facilities in order to reduce the gap in educational opportunities in different states, rural-urban areas, and between men and women. It is important to note that the mass literacy campaign on functional literacy, the political education programs (MAMSER), and even nomadic education are all parts of using the social demand approach to investing in education.

ASSUMPTION OF THE SOCIAL DEMAND APPROACH

The social demand approach makes a number of assumptions, viz.

a) that education is the birth right of every individual and that it must be made available to all individuals within the limits of their requests.

b) that all children of school age will demand education that is meant for their ages.

c) that the demand for education will continue to be greater

than its supply;

d) that the unit cost of education will remain fairly constant;

e) that expanded education opportunities will add significantly to social and economic growth.

Merit of the Social Demand Approach

1. Encourages mass education and mass literacy.
2. It is an instrument for building egalitarian societies.
3. It democratizes educational opportunities in society.
4. Adesina observed that policymakers and governments find the social demand approach easy to defend since the philosophy of the approach is the satisfaction of the educational needs of the people.
5. One of the reasons that Musaazi gave for "universalizing basic education was the promotion of a sense of national unity and the "equalization of educational opportunities."
6. The social demand approach can show the planner the resources that can be allocated to each level of education as long as certain existing trends continue and if private demand is to be satisfied.

Demerits of the Social Demand Approach

There are some shortcomings in the application of the social demand approach.
These, include:

1. The fact that it does not show whether there is an alternative optimum allocation of resources."

2. The social demand approach ignores the types and kinds of manpower that are needed by the economy, which can readily result in the production of too many people skilled in one area and not enough in another. For example, with the UPE, too many people with a general education level of primary education were produced, even though much manpower was required in specialized fields such as medicine, engineering, etc.
3. The social demand approach tends to overestimate popular demand and underestimate costs.
4. Few countries are in a position to afford the cost of providing education to all and sundry.
5. Mass education may tend to give rise to low-quality education.
6. The approach is not usually cost-effective as it tends to require a large chunk of the national budget.
7. Fails to consider the vacancies and capacity of the labor market (occupational and industrial) to absorb the graduates of the educational system.

b. Manpower Requirement or Forecasting Approach

The term "manpower" denotes the attempt to develop a nation's human resources to meet the demands of its economy. The manpower requirements approach is applied purposefully to aspects of skilled manpower in the labor force. This approach emphasizes the need for



planners to reflect on the manpower needed in areas of society, using this as a basis for planning the educational system. The objective, therefore, would be to satisfy present manpower needs as well as forecast future needs. The emphasis is placed on forecasting and training appropriate manpower relative to the dictates of the labor market. Exponents of this approach determine areas of need through surveys. Needed manpower levels and kinds of education are thus estimated, and the educational system is charged with the responsibility of producing them. The belief of this school of thought is that in order to increase the national income, more skilled manpower must be produced and supplied to economics. For example, using this approach, if you are the proprietor of a health center and you want to ensure that more patients receive attention at the center, you will decide to employ more nurses and doctors. In this case, what you are assuming is that with an increased number of nurses and doctors, more patients would be attended to. This means that it is realized that a shortage of trained personnel will present a major setback to economic growth, which you do not want.

Assumption of the Manpower Requirements Approach

1. There is a direct relationship between an increase in skilled manpower and productivity. That is, the more skilled the manpower, the greater the output to be produced.
2. Future changes in the distribution of educational personnel are associated with growth and changes in the production

of goods and services.

3. Education can be used to transform the skills and competencies of citizens.
4. The economic system depends on the educational system, and vice versa. The economic system provides the educational system with human, material, and financial resources, which the system utilizes to provide for the students who, after their training, will be released to the economy to work in various factories and ministries.
5. An increase in demand for different forms of educated manpower can be predicted on the basis of the prediction of future increased output.

Merits:

1. The approach ensures that only the right quantity and caliber of manpower needed for national development are produced.
2. The approach is economic-oriented by minimizing waste of resources.
3. It emphasizes the acquisition of appropriate educational qualifications as a pre-requisite for employment.
4. It ensures high-quality education.

Limitations of the Manpower Requirements Approach:

There are limitations in the application of the manpower requirements approach.

The approach is:

(a) Give educational planners limited guidance. This is because it hasn't said anything about primary education, yet primary education is the bedrock of any education.

(b) The manpower requirements approach ignores the principles of cost-benefit techniques. That is, it does not compare the cost of the manpower to be produced and the benefits to be divided from such a manpower.

(c) The manpower requirements approach ignores social demands for education. That is, it does not consider the aggregate popular demand for education. Rather, it merely considers the shortage of manpower that needed to be provided.

(d) This approach is more relevant at higher levels of education since it tends to neglect the primary school level.

(e) It takes time to produce results (i.e., manpower production).

(f) It neglects other skill areas not immediately required by the economy.

c. Cost-Benefit Analysis/Rate of Returns Approach

This approach holds that in order to be able to decide whether a particular venture is worth investing in or not, we need to calculate the cost of the venture and also calculate the benefits to be derived from it. Then, the two (costs and benefits) are compared. If it is such that:

1. a) If the cost is greater than the benefits, then it is advisable that you not invest your resources in the project since loss is involved.
2. b) If the cost is less than the benefits, then it is advisable that you invest your resources in it since you will make a profit. and
3. c) If the cost equals the benefit, then you may have to consider some other factors, such as whether you want to embark on the project so as to gain some popularity or not. After considering such factors, you will be able to, in this case, decide what to do. The emphasis of this approach is that all investments in education, like other sectors of the economy, must be cost-benefit-oriented. Educational planners adopting this approach evaluate the rate of returns or benefits of education to both the individual and society before investments are made.

Merits of the Cost-Benefit Analysis

1. The approach allows educational planners the opportunity to compare other alternative investments. This is because it provides different alternative methods of assessing the investment in education before a final decision is taken.
2. The cost-benefit analysis can provide us with a means of appraising future benefits in terms of the costs that must be incurred at present. For example, when the government spends 20% of its annual budget on education,

it is interested in knowing the benefits that it would get from such an investment. When the government established MAMSER to educate the masses about their rights, it was also interested in knowing to what extent this was achieved. Thus, as far as the educational planner is concerned, the cost-benefit analysis provides information about the links between education, the labor market, and the economic consequences of alternative policies.

3. This approach is the most national and prudent approach to planning. In a general sense, it is economically oriented.
4. It minimizes waste in investments.
5. Emphasizes the benefit-versus-cost principle.

Demerits of the Cost-Benefit Analysis

The cost-benefit analysis has its own problems. Musaazi recognized three of these:

1. The approach does not deal with the social backgrounds and abilities of individuals or how such factors may have a positive influence on their earnings and educational attainment. In this country, there are many people who have never been to any school, yet they are successful teachers, businessmen, and women.
2. The approach holds the assumption that there is a direct link between earnings and productivity. That is, the higher the pay, the higher the productivity. It is very difficult to

establish this in a developing country like Nigeria. In actual fact, the situation in Nigeria in some sectors tends to be that the higher the pay, the lower the workers level of productivity.

3. The cost-benefit analysis pays attention to the investment aspects of education against the consumption aspect. It is also hard to calculate the benefits accruable to an educated man in monetary terms. The intangible benefits of education are difficult to calculate.
4. It is difficult to calculate social and private rates of return.
5. The approach fails to realize that the benefits of education are hard to quantify in light of poor statistical data.
6. It fails to realize that the benefits accruing from education take time.
7. The approach neglects the primary level of education.

d. The Synthetic (Eclectic) Approach.

This approach is a synthesis of the various approaches. It draws on the benefits of the other three approaches. This approach was developed by Professor Frederick Harbison. It calls for the integration of education with general economic and social development planning. This approach affords educational planners the benefits of each of the approaches earlier mentioned.

XVI. Plan Implementation

Formulating a policy or designing a plan is meaningless unless it is implemented. Implementation is the transformation of an education

plan or policy into action. Plan implementation is a critical stage in the policy-planning process. Implementation links the policy plans to their actual performance. During implementation, the following are rules rather than exceptions.

Circumstances related to implementation cause policy or plan modifications to take place;

Feedback obtained during implementation causes reassessment of aspects of policy or plan decisions and subsequent modifications by policymakers; and

The mere translation of abstract policy intentions into concrete implementation causes reassessment and redesign. These changes occur with great frequency because implementation problems are often greatly underestimated during the policy planning stage. Whatever the case, there are problems and surprises in the course of implementation. In implementing a plan, changes may be necessary due to unsatisfactory results or pressures emanating from outside, which may cause reassessments.

There are various aspects of implementation to be considered. They include staffing, directing, and controlling. The qualifications of the personnel to handle the implementation of any plan must be seriously considered. There shall be a clear description of expectations and the actual performance expected for the specified task. Directing and controlling are both action-oriented. The actions involve the tasks to be performed, the responsibilities of personnel, and methods of

accomplishing activities. Trial and error should be avoided during the implementation of education plans. As such, implementing personnel should be people who are sound technically. They should be skilled and knowledgeable.

XVII. Major Issues in Educational Planning and the Plan Implementation Process

There are several variables impacting the educational planning structure. From these variables are generated issues that keep bothering the planners and which should be seriously addressed so as to establish viable planning structures. They are discussed below under each related variable:

a. Issues Relating to Aims and Policy Planning

There are issues relating to the level and mechanism of setting aims and policy development. The issues are whether the aims and objectives of planning are set by the central government, state government, or local government. This always results in conflict in Nigeria. Whether the lower level(s) of 63 government has enough mechanisms to develop and coordinate the policy planning process. How can we identify an appropriate mechanism? Another issue is the ability to reconcile the aims, objectives, aspirations, and policies across the levels of government. This is very important in a federal system of government, as we have in Nigeria. During the second republic, the Federal Government, controlled by the National Party of Nigeria (NPN), ran what it called "qualitative education," while the Unity Party of Nigeria (UPN) ran "free

and compulsory education at all levels" in the states it governed. Several times, there were conflicts between the two parties.

b. Issues Relating to Planning Coordination

Many issues relate to planning and coordination. They include: ability of a simple planning structure to handle education planning at all levels, handle all types of education and in all tiers of government. And at the same time, meet the aspirations of everybody successfully. Another issue relating to coordination is the choice of strategy and technique for effective coordination and the mechanisms to develop for efficiency. The strategy that can integrate the private and public education processes is an issue. The issue also covers effective resource allocation and utilization across levels and types of education so as to meet the priority areas and the ability to effectively rationalize administrative costs. We also have the issue of program overlaps and duplications in our educational system. How do we invent the necessary planning mechanisms to cope with such a situation? There is also the issue of duplication of inter-agencies in the planning structure. Which of them do we deal with in the planning process, and what mechanisms do we adopt?

c. Issues Relating to Monitoring and Evaluation

The mechanisms and capabilities for monitoring and evaluation of plan implementation for better service delivery are to be identified. What should be the yardsticks for monitoring and evaluation, and who should identify the yardsticks, are questions to be answered. There are issues

with the required mechanisms for sustaining monitoring and evaluation of plan implementation, as well as the ability to relate monitoring and evaluation to resource allocation and utilization.

d. Issues Relating to Participation

The issues that relate to participation cover the ability of the system to encourage stakeholders to participate in the planning activities and processes. Whether the system allows the students to be involved in the planning process of their education and in the formulation of policies and plan design, and even in the implementation activities, whether to give advocacy planning an effective role in the planning process? There is also the issue of creating modalities and mechanisms for the evolution of the planning structure through participation from parents, teachers, and students. How do we involve them, to what extent, and what do we provide for them to make their contribution meaningful?

e. Issues Relating to Data and Information

The issues to be raised include: What are the sources of information required for planning? What type of data and information are required? How can we develop data and information generation mechanisms? The methods of data storage, retrieval, and processing are issues bothering planners. The usability of data, which depends on validity and reliability, is a serious issue in planning activities. The relevance of data and the reliability of data sources give concern to educational planners. What is

the ability of the government's departments and inter-agencies in data use and data and information exchange and sharing? Are there enough mechanisms for data utilization during policy formulation and plan implementation?

f. Issues Relating to the Dynamic Nature of Education

Because of the dynamic nature of education and the educational system, their needs do change over time. The concern is whether we have the ability to mobilize the resources to meet these changing needs and what quantity can actually lead to efficiency. How should we measure the actual efficiency of the system? What mechanisms should we put in place to continuously utilize the outputs from the system? How should we effectively structure the planning process in the education system to ensure effective resource allocation and utilization? The questions raised must be thoroughly answered before we can sustain the nation's educational system for national development.

g. The Issue of Relevance

Today, all stakeholders are worried about the quality and relevance of education in the country. The issues bothering educational planners are: what could be wrong with the nation's educational system; which education do we plan that can be relevant to the changing needs of the nation; and how can we plan the structure of such relevant education? Can educational planning, manpower planning, and national planning be integrated? And what mechanisms should we put in place to ensure and sustain relevance in the educational system? How should education

planning ensure plan implementation that will engender relevance?

h. Issues Relating to Educational Waste

There is high waste in education, either due to inefficiency in the use of resources or the absence of internal control in the educational system. The issues to ponder in the planning process include what constitutes waste in education; can waste in the educational system be measured in the same way as it is in other profit-oriented sectors? Who should measure waste in the planning process and even at the implementation stage, and at what point should waste be measured? Another issue is: how can waste be actually reduced or eliminated in education?

XVIII. Problems and Issues in Planning Nigerian Education

The planning of education in Nigeria is being faced with the following myriads of problems and issues: the cart before the horse syndrome, poor functional differentiation, a weak data base, population explosion, inadequate resources, a depressing economy, an unprogressive administrative tradition, politics, and a lack of public support.

(a) The Cart Before the Horse Syndrome

A major feature of educational management in Nigeria is process disorder. For example, in most cases, educational planning efforts normally start after implementation. National leaders make public pronouncements about educational policies or programs without any regard to due process. This is what they do to score political points. In

situations like this, plans are never made for implementation resources. The result, then, is failure. Psycharopoulous reported that this kind of failure is reflected in three ways: the intended policy was never implemented in the first place; even if an attempt at implementation was made, it failed to be completed or achieve a minimum critical mass so as to leave an impact; and although the policy was implemented, it did not have the intended effect.

(b) Politics

The process of educational planning in Nigeria is faced with a lot of constraints. One of them is the political constraint. Since political independence, education in Nigeria has been caught in the web of military and partisan politics. Agentha asserted that "military interventions are common, but in Nigeria, whether it is during a civilian or military regime, there is always a marked difference between the federal and state policies and practices in education. This has affected educational planning and implementation. The technocracy of planning education only operates within the political ideological framework of the government in power without any due regard to the socio-economic realities of the day.

Educational planning is based on the ideology and policies of the government. Sometimes, such policies are made without giving adequate consideration to their implications. As a result, the planner is often requested to plan on the basis of policies, which might be difficult or too expensive to implement under the prevailing circumstances and

available resources. To this effect, planners often prepare unrealistic plans or face a situation whereby their plans are rejected by the approving body. In addition, political rivalry among different groups in the country sometimes influences the amount of money allocated to education. Furthermore, there has been a tendency for some leaders in the country to consider education a weapon that could be used to wield political influence. For example, during the Second Republic between 1979 and 1983, the government introduced a policy whose provisions included qualitative and quantitative education. Educational planners who operated in such a setting normally found it difficult to develop realistic or operational plans. Political instability in the country also disrupts the process of planning and implementing educational programs. For instance, the constitutional crisis of 1953, the military coup d'etat of 1966, 1976, 1983, and 1985, coupled with the protracted Civil War of 1967–70, have all disrupted the process of planning and the continuity of educational plans in Nigeria. As a result of such a political crisis, some plans that had reached advanced stages were abandoned while others were hurriedly introduced. The impact of these unsettled political conditions was felt in three major ways. First, a chaotic political situation is disincentive to foreign donor countries. This can have disastrous results for a country like Nigeria, which depends on funding its educational development programs with foreign aid at 50% of the cost. Such political instability can even lead to the termination or postponement of existing external assistant contracts until conditions

return to normal. For example, the discontinuation of the USAI-sponsored Teacher Education Project in Northern Nigeria and the closure of the UNESCO-sponsored Advance Teacher Training Colleges all explained the above reasons. Thirdly, as political conditions become increasingly strained, they cause significant distortions in the original allocations of development plans, which generally affect such services as education.

(c) lack of Public Support

Education in Nigeria, as it is practiced across time, is public-imposed. The plan is made on their behalf with the belief that "they" know the needs of the people. Need assessment is rarely taken. According to policymakers, the public will always support any educational services being provided. This has proved otherwise. Those who plan are not the implementers. The people are not involved at the stage of planning; hence, there is a lack of support when it comes to implementation.

(d) Poor Functional Differentiation

The functional differentiation of educational planning and implementation has been ineffective. Normatively, the broad definition of educational objectives in Nigeria has been very vague. It is not based on a systematic needs assessment. At times, resource constraints are not taken into cognizance, which affects the effective implementation of plans. Also, there is poor integration of tiers of government in project planning, resulting in ineffective plans in recent times.

(e) Constraints of Inadequate Statistical and Demographic Data

The process of educational planning in Nigeria is also hampered by the critical problem of inadequate statistical and demographic data. In educational planning, two types of data are required. These are qualitative and quantitative in nature. The quantifiable data are those related to the education system and other systems that influence education. Educational system data that are needed for planning are: institutional information on management, levels, quantities, types, and patterns of distribution; number of teachers by sex, age, qualification, length of service, mortality; information on supportive staff; class data by arms and grades; student information by sex, age, grade, output, inflow, repeaters, dropouts, and disciplines; building and equipment by number, size, specialty, and types of construction materials; and recurrent and capital expenditure data. Other related data are size, geo-political distributions, age, sex structure, and rate(s) of change—growth and decline of population. The quality of educational decisions and their implementation outcomes reveal the weaknesses in methods of data collection, which are still very routine and unreliable. The establishment of the Education Data Bank will go a long way in redressing the protracted problems of inaccurate and inadequate data for effective planning of education in Nigeria.

For any meaningful planning to be carried out, statistics are very crucial. However, a reliable census has been conducted in the country.

The census conducted during the pre-independence era, for instance, in 1931 and 1952, was confronted with the problem of insufficient funds and a lack of trained personnel for any meaningful exercise. There was also the fear of the government using such a census for the purpose of taxation, with the result that the majority of the people did not cooperate with the officials for any reliable population figure to be attained. Thus, the pre-independence census resulted in an undercount of the population. However, since the post-independence period, families and communities have had the tendency to inflate their size as a result of the fear of ethnic or political dominance. This was the situation during the 1963 census and especially in 1973, when the population was highly inflated to about 80 million. In recognition of the unrealistic nature of that exercise, the 1973 census was not accepted for purposes of planning. Death and birth rates were not properly kept; hence, it was difficult for planners to have the basic statistical materials for planning. For example, consider the number of children in a state in Nigeria. How many of them are of school-going age? How many of the school-going-age students are likely to be in school in a particular year? The number and kind of job available in a particular year, in each state, and in the country as a whole. The actual growth rate of industry, commerce, and government employment. How many will be made available each year of the planning period? All these are not easy to attain, and they tend to implicate the process of educational planning in Nigeria since they are based on mere estimates. Identify at least two reasons why the

educational plan needs population figures.

(f) Population Explosion

The population of Nigeria has been witnessing very rapid rates of growth. In 1963, the population of the country was 55.670 million people. The actual rate of growth has not been ascertained. In the absence of current population data, projections have been based on 2.5%, 3.0%, and 3.2% growth rates for the years 1980–2000. It was projected that by the year 2000, the population of Nigeria would be 138,841, 153,033, and 168,596 million using 2.5%, 3.0, or 3.2% rates of growth, respectively. However, the provisional census for Nigeria puts the size of the country's population at 140 million people. The rapid growth of the population is attributed to improvements made in the health sector. Structurally, Nigeria's population is more in favor of young people. Due to the large number of school-age people, more education burden is placed on society in terms of providing teaching and learning inputs (human, material, and time). The inability to cope with the explosion of learners in our school system has affected the effective planning of education in Nigeria.

(g) Inadequate Resources.

There is an acute shortage of professionally trained educational planners. Currently, educational planning divisions of ministries and boards of education in Nigeria are staffed with non-educational planners. This is why education planning has not been effective. In the school systems where educational plans are finally implemented, there is a

dearth of teachers. The existing stock of education personnel at all levels is poorly motivated, hence the current wave of brain drain. Class rooms, equipment, furniture, and other instructional materials are very inadequate to promote effective teaching and learning. There is overutilization of physical facilities, yet they are poorly maintained. At the center of resource constraints is finance. All these affect the proper planning of education in Nigeria.

(h) Depressing Economy

Another related problem that is encountered in the process of educational planning in Nigeria is that of economic constraints. Adequate allocation of resources is necessary for the successful implementation of educational programs. The Nigerian economy is in serious distress. The economy that was booming is now a shadow of its former self. The mono-oil-based resource has been 'dethroned' in Nigeria, worsened by the neglect of other sectors of the economy like agriculture. The galloping inflation trend in Nigeria eats up the few funds for education. With the resultant rise in the cost of education, mobilization strategies for more funds have not proved very impressive and successful, hence the growing mismatch between education and the economy, thus inhibiting effective planning of education. However, due to political considerations and the high rate of inflation, educational programs in the country have tended to be unrealistic in relation to available resources. The planner tends to underestimate the cost of such a program and continues to overestimate the anticipated revenue with

which to execute the plans. This situation had been worsened by the worldwide economic recession. There is also an overreliance on foreign aid, and Nigeria, like many African countries, usually anticipates help from foreign donors to finance some of her development projects, including those in education. The problem arises when the anticipated money does not come, which automatically means that the programs planned cannot be carried out. For example, a school administrator who has planned very beautiful programs for his or her school might not be able to make them materialize if the problem of finances comes in. Some activities, like the speech and prize-giving day or inter-house competition, could be affected by such constraints. In higher institutions, the introduction of new programs at a university could also be delayed or sometimes not take off at all for reasons of economic constraints.

(i) Unprogressive Administrative Traditions.

The administrative tradition in education is very rigid. There is a tradition of administrative procedures, which, with the attendant bureaucratization, has led to the inability of the system to respond to changes within and outside education. This administrative tradition resulted in delayed education decisions and a conflict of power and authority. Likewise, the network of hierarchical roles, relationships, and accountability limits the expert freedom of the professionally trained educational planner in the Ministry of Education, who is solely responsible for policy issues.

(j) Constraints on Skilled Personnel

Lack of sufficiently well-trained personnel in the planning units of the Ministries of Education is another problem. This unit requires people with the ability to carry out project development in the educational service. So as to realize the goals set by the planners. The units in the ministries therefore lack specialists such as educational planners, statisticians, programmers, and analysts who could effectively develop and ensure successful execution of plans. This is partly a result of the rigidity of the educational system, which is not responding adequately to the need to place people who are trained in the area of educational planning in the appropriate positions. The wrong notion is that anyone who has served in the Ministry of Education for a long period could automatically occupy such planning units in the ministries, having their directors of planning as people who just rose through the ranks without any cognate experience in the skill of planning. In addition, the few available specialists who are employed in the planning divisions of education sometimes opt for the private sector as a result of the poor conditions of service offered in the Ministry.

(k) Constraints of Inadequate Planning Tools

Another important constraint in educational planning in Nigeria has to do with inadequate planning tools. Such as calculating machines, computers, and other materials and facilities that are essential for effective planning. It is equally important to note that educational planners in the country are not adequately consulted before policies that

are related to education are formulated. Consequently, there is a tendency for them to develop programs based on policies that are not clear to them or that may be difficult for them to justify.

(l) Constraints on Implementation

In addition, most of the planners are not given enough freedom to implement their plans. In most cases, the process of plan implementation is carried out by people who did not participate in planning the programs. Consequently, it becomes extremely difficult for the planner to successfully evaluate the progress made in the implementation of the plans in order to determine areas that require modification. This is one of the crucial reasons why some educational programs in the country are not successfully or fully implemented. Apart from the problems discussed, educational planning in the country is also obstructed by a lack of goodwill among the people and inadequate support given by the government to educational plans. Generally, the citizens of the country consider educational programs to be the main government responsibility. As a result, they show little interest or no attention later, even after a lot of resources have been spent on them. A typical example is the Universal Primary Education (UPE) program, which was launched in 1976. Now, students, I believe you enjoyed these discussions. We now have information on the problems (constraints) affecting educational planning in Nigeria.

XIX. Ways of Remedying the Constraints of Educational

Planning

To minimize the problems associated with the process of educational planning in Nigeria, the following measures must be taken: A careful consideration should be given to the political setting under which educational plans are made, and political stability should be encouraged in Nigeria, for instance, through adequate enlightenment programs. Efforts should be made by all and sundry to allow democracy to survive in Nigeria. Educational planners should establish a close relationship and hold regular consultations with policymakers. As much as possible, the educational planners in the Ministry of Education should be involved in the formulation and implementation of policies that are related to education. The formation of educational policies and related plans should, as much as possible, reflect the available resources. In addition, adequate funds should be made available for the implementation of educational programs.

Educational planning should be left in the hands of trained and skilled personnel. Moreover, more educational planners, statisticians, demographers, and analysts should be trained, and better conditions of service should be offered to attract them to remain in the Planning Division of the Ministry of Education. The educational planner must be provided with the necessary equipment, tools, and materials that are essential for effective operation. For instance, computers and other gadgets should be provided by the Ministry of Education to enhance the planning process. A reliable population census should be conducted

regularly in the country. The public should be adequately enlightened about educational programs to secure their operation.

XX. Strategy Components of Planning and Educational Planning

A. Characteristics of a Planning Strategy

There are four basic characteristics of a planning strategy. They are the following:

1. It should help planning to tend towards a rational approach to decision-making that will maximize the outputs from the available resources, which are scarce in most cases in a country like Nigeria. According to Moss and Puel , the strategy should require that the specific values and ends used in the decision-making process be made explicit, thereby encouraging and focusing on continuing discussion concerning them.

2. The strategy should encourage a zero-based budgeting decision. In other words, it should apply to periods of plenty as well as periods of scarcity.

3. The planning strategy should go beyond the traditional process of uncoordinated incrementalism, which is a process that only allows marginal changes (changes at the margin) instead of directional changes, that is, changes in major directions.

4. The planning strategy should prioritize the plans and projects so that variations in resource allocation can be accommodated. In this case, the most crucial program, plan, or project should be selected for implementation.

B. Strategy Components of Planning/Educational Planning

Before starting any serious and meaningful planning exercise, certain key components of planning should be considered. Some of them are relevant to the conception of planning. They are essential in guiding and directing the planning process. They could be indicators, parameters, or variables; some of them are crucial during the planning process and implementation. They are:

i. Goal and target setting
ii. Policy and plan design
iii. Resources
iv. Costing and budgeting
v. The Means
vi. Implementation
vii. Monitoring and Evaluation.

The list could be longer, but some components are embedded in the above list. When we discuss them in detail, they will be exposed to you.

I. Goals and Target Setting

Goals guide planning and the planner. In the same way, educational goals guide educational planning as well as the educational planner. Goals can be defined as the expression of intended needs and aspirations. Usually, the national goals give rise to sectoral goals, such as educational goals.

There are broad goals as well as specific ones. The national goals of Nigeria, as contained in Section 1 (3a-e) of the National Policy on Education (NPE) , which are supposed to be the foundation for the National Policy on Education, are the building of:

1. a free and democratic society;
2. a just and egalitarian society;
3. a united, strong, and self-reliant nation;
4. a great and dynamic economy; and
5. a land full of bright opportunities for all citizens.

The national educational goals are derived from the national goals, so education can serve as a medium and weapon for achieving them. The national educational goals are stated in the NPE, Section 1(7) (FRN, 2004:7-8). Education is to inculcate national consciousness, unity, and the right values and attitudes for survival. Education goals also include training to understand the world and the acquisition of appropriate skills. Therefore, for education planning to function meaningfully, it has to be guided by both national goals and national education goals. From them, educational planning goals are derived. It is the goals that guide, direct, and drive the activities of educational planning. The goals also affect the set target, while the set target informs the mission and operations of educational planning. The objectives of planning are listed in Section 12 (107) of the NPE.

ii. Policy and Plan Design

The essence of planning is to scientifically formulate policies and



design plans, making use of relevant information and data. Educational policy is a statement that contains the principles, rules, and regulations that govern education decisions. Educational policies are crucial to the realization of the overall goals of the educational system and, subsequently, the national goals. Education policies constitute the guiding ways through which the education system is effectively operated. Policies address various issues in the educational system. Such issues include: access to education; equity; equality and educational opportunities; structures; efficiency in education; funding, etc. Educational plans are products of various policies. They could be simple or complex; they could be for the short, medium, or long term. Educational planners are to prepare education plans using various standards, guidelines, and models. It is the plan designed by the planner that guides the implementation agency, institution, or government. You should understand that educational policies are derived from educational goals, while educational policies are to be broken into implementable plans and projects so as to achieve the overall national goals. For these reasons, educational policy and plan construction are strategic to the educational planning process.

iii. Resources

Resources can be described as the necessary inputs into the productive processes of any system. The quality and quantity of resource inputs into a system will largely determine the quality of outputs or products from such a system. Educational planning requires huge

resources for its operations. The resources required include:

1. human resources
2. physical resources
3. financial resources
4. time
5. information

Planning requires a broad interpretation of these resources to generate options and alternatives. Not only these, but the quantity of resources available impacts the effectiveness of educational planning.

1. Human Resources: The human resources contain the students, the teachers, non-teachers, and planners. Their number and quality are crucial to the planning of education. The planning personnel's level of expertise and technical know-how are essential components of the planning procedure. The information on students and school personnel is equally essential in guiding the planners.

2. Physical Resources: they include facilities and equipment for planning and for the teaching-learning activities. The knowledge of the infrastructural facilities, such as classroom, laboratory, and workshop buildings, as well as library and health facilities, is crucial to planning. They also include instructional materials like furniture, reagents, books, equipment, and so on. The school's general plant planning and physical planning are strategic components

of educational planning. The adequacy of these items over time is projected and predicted by planners to bring about efficiency and effectiveness in the educational system.

3. Finance: Education, as a social service, is very cost-intensive. It requires adequate funding for policy implementation. It determines largely the quality of planning involved as well as implementation. The quality and adequacy of other educational resources and activities rest on the adequacy and utilization of allocated funds. The vision and direction of educational planning are seriously guided by the available funds. Planning can either be done manually or technologically, depending on the amount of money available. The extent of data and information gathering, collation, processing, analysis, and interpretation that guide policy analysis and formulation is heavily dependent on funding.

4. Time: Time is a crucial resource in planning. It is often said that 'time is money'. The duration of planning and the planning timeframe are essential in education planning. Planning could be for a short, medium, or long period. Planning could be annual, rolling, or developmental. Annual is yearly, such as the annual budget. It could be rolling or medium-term planning, while the developmental

plans take a long gestation period. Educational planners and other planners are guided in their operation by the timeframe available to them or given to them by policymakers and implementers.

5. Information: Data and information are very strategic to educational planning. Information is the aggregation of processed data to provide intelligence or knowledge. Information is generated by matching relevant data elements to the variables of the problem. It will not be an overstatement to say that planning cannot be done without data and information. Such data and information could be qualitative or non-qualitative. According to Stevenson, Bowers, and Morton (1978), information might be conceived as opportunistic data, data awaiting a sensitive, competent decision-maker's skillful honing into a useful format. The competent and skilled persons to use relevant data and information efficiently for educational management are the educational planners. Without data and an efficient information management system, he or she may not be effective at making the right projections for the future needs and aspirations of the educational system. Any planner worth his or her name should know that timely and accurate information is a key component of his or her planning responsibilities. Educational planning

requires constant data and information regarding the labor and unemployment situation, economic conditions, the educational system itself, and other substantive information that identifies trends in a country and the world at large.

iv. Costing and budgeting

Today, education financing is a phenomenon. Because of the increasing financial constraints on educational investment, costing and budgeting are becoming very strategic components of educational planning. There is an increasing need to place price value on educational items, plans, and activities. There is a growing need to scientifically project and predict the cost of education in the process of determining policy options and planning alternatives. Costing and budgeting are strategic in determining the cost-effectiveness of educational choices and activities. Costing is also essential in carrying out effective cost analysis. To plan for any event or activity, you need to know the cost, parameters, and methods to adopt. Costing and budgeting enable the planner to choose the most cheap and efficient means and programs. Costing is a crucial component of program planning. According to Aghenta costing is very necessary in understanding the educational system. He believes that it will help to improve the efficiency of the system and also in the evaluation of the performance of the educational system vis-à-vis the system's goals and objectives.

v. The Means

The means of carrying out planning activities constitute a key component of planning. To them, means provide the basis for consideration of alternatives, which will result in the selection of a course of action that encompasses technical, managerial, legal, and organizational aspects. The means chosen for a planning process can either be traditional or modern, crude or scientific, manual or technical. The 'means' can simply imply the method or technique of planning. It can also imply the expertise of the planners. That is, relevant officers should be involved in the activities of planning. Modern machines can enable the planner to easily simulate and forecast future options based on today's data and situation. Planning in the 21st century should do away with traditional and manual techniques for efficiency and effectiveness.

vi. Implementation

Implementation is the action stage of the planning process. In fact, the success, or otherwise, of any plan is measured by the success of its implementation. It is the stage where the formulated policies and prepared plan document are executed. It is the most difficult stage of the policy-planning process. During implementation, it is helpful if those involved observe and assess the process. This is because changes could be necessary so as to achieve the desired objectives. Various aspects of implementation to consider include staffing, directing, and controlling. Implementation requires a high level of dedication from the people in power, accurate data and information, qualified personnel, adequate

funding, and competence on the part of the planners and managers, as well as the availability of the guiding rules and regulations.

The success of the implementation of any new policy or plan, especially in a country like Nigeria, depends largely on careful planning. While the success of the implementation of plans rests on careful planning, planning also requires that the policies and plans it has come up with be successfully implemented. A beautifully contrived or well-conceived plan that cannot be implemented is a failure. As such, implementation—its process, strategies, and means—becomes a key concern in education planning.

vii. Monitoring and evaluation

Monitoring and evaluation constitute key components of educational planning. They allow managers of education to compare the planned accomplishments against the actual accomplishments of each operational system. Hence, planning activities should be monitored to ensure specification compliance of the plan during implementation so as to review the process for possible acceptance of the plan, revision, or total reversal of the plan, program, or project. Monitoring implies "watching," "recording," and "keeping track" of events or objects in the implementation of a program process in order to detect faults and inadequacies in the implemented plan. Evaluation means placing value on any plan. Both monitoring and evaluation rely mainly on the process of collecting and interpreting evidence and using it to judge the specification and worth of the implemented plan. Planning is called to

action once again to analyze the data obtained during monitoring and evaluation. This is to ensure continuous planning and possible re-design of the plan. This is why monitoring and evaluation are part of the strategy components of planning.

XXI. Areas of Priority in the Planning Strategies

There are some key areas of priority in the planning strategies that planning must interact with for optimal performance. These must be continually considered throughout the planning process. They are identified by Lamar et. al. as:

(a) Effectiveness
(b) Efficiency
(c) Utility
(d) Feasibility
(e) Compatibility
(f) Productivity
(g) Accountability
(h) Impact

These key areas guide the thoroughness and quality of planning. They are discussed below:

(a) Effectiveness: The planner must always ask whether he or she is doing the right things at the right time and for the right interest groups. Here, the process, the time or timing, and the goals must continuously agitate the mind of the planner during planning.

(b) Efficiency: This deals with cost, value, and judicious utilization of resources. Planners should ask whether things are being done in the most productive and cost-effective way.

© Utility: This concerns the relevance of the plan and the planning process, especially to the end users. It is to show the extent to which the planning process can be used by those it is meant for. If a school is planned for kindergarten pupils and located in a marshy area or close to a river, the utility rate may be very low because many parents will not allow their children to attend such schools for security reasons.

(d) Feasibility: The reality and workability of the planning process are important considerations planners should be guided by. Consideration must be given to whether the planning process is compatible with and supportive of reality and whether it is workable.

(e) Compatibility: Planners should be able to decide whether the planning process can support the existing policies, methods, and procedures and, at the same time, comply with the required regulations. He or she should consider whether the planning process can facilitate change when and where required.

(f) Productivity: This deals with the extent to which the planning process can yield a return on investment. It considers whether the planning process can maximize the return on investment. Returns on the investment in education are not quick to determine but can be done over a time period.

(g) Accountability: This deals with the extent to which the aims and objectives of the plan and the planning process are achieved. To determine whether the planning process accomplishes and supports the expectations, aims, and objectives.

(h) Impact: The positive difference a planning process is to bring to the system should be part of the planning conception and activities. It should be considered whether the planning process will make a worthy difference or not. If the goal of a policy plan is to implement vocational education, then the impact assessment should be done after implementation to decide whether such a policy plan has an impact on the students.

XXII. Criteria for Evaluating the Educational Planning Structure

The design of the planning structure, which is to involve various groups and interests in the decision-making process, is a major factor in

any planning organization, especially educational organizations. Malinski et. al. identified the following criteria as the checklists to evaluate the planning structures:

1. General Provision for Planning;
2. Coordination and comprehensiveness to provide
3. Goals and Policy Formulation and Monitoring
4. Participation;
5. Research, data, and information; and
6. Changing nature of systems.
7. The planning structure should incorporate general provisions for planning constituents in all areas: planning for the physically challenged, disadvantaged, and groups with special needs; planning for all manpower services, training, etc.; and planning for resource allocation.
8. The planning structure should incorporate coordination and comprehensiveness to provide for the coordination of all education functions, activities, and programs, educational planning, and national economic development.
9. The goals, policy formulation, monitoring, and evaluation that provide for: needs identification that should both be short and long term; the development of goals and policies

for both short and long term; and the continuous monitoring and evaluation of resource allocation, utilization, and plan implementation.

10. Participation in education planning should include the involvement of people and groups from all political constituencies; the involvement of broad interest groups across a state or nation, both majority and minority groups; sex and location; and the involvement of planning expertise at all levels and others that are involved in the planning process.

11. Research, data, and information should provide for more usable data and information; timely, accurate, and consistent projections; and making planning data and information available to agencies and individuals that may need them for research purposes.

12. The changing nature of the system should provide flexibility for adaptation to changes in the educational system, which includes planning and decision-making structures, funding patterns, external factors, and so on.

REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Adesina, S. (1990). Educational Management. FDP Education Series. Enugu: Fourth Dimension Publishing Co., Ltd.



Beeby, C. E. (1969). Planning and Educational Administration. Paris: UNESCO, IIEP.

Gbadamosi, L. A. (2005). The basics of educational planning, Ijebu ode: Triumph Publishers.

Musaazi, J. C. S. (1985). The Theory and Practice of Educational Administration. London: Macmillan Publishers.

Nwankwo, J. I. (1981). Educational Planning Theory and Methods. Pakistan: Izharsons Co., Ltd.

Okeke, B. S. (1989). Education Planning in Nigeria: A Social Process Approach. Lagos: Joja Press Ltd., 1989.

Peretomode, V. A. (1991). Introduction to Educational Administration, Planning, and Supervision. Lagos: Joja Publishers Ltd.

Thompson, A. R. (1981). Education and Development in Africa. London: Macmillan Press Ltd.

Chapter Ten

THE SCHOOL PLANT

I. The School Plant (Physical Facilities)

School plant management is the process of planning to meet the needs of the school for physical facilities, constructing such facilities, and keeping the facilities in good condition so that they can be put into operation when required for teaching and learning. The school plant is the spatial interpretation of the school curriculum. One of the ways in which curriculum finds its physical expression is through the construction and internal arrangement of the school plant. An effective school plant is a controlled environmental condition that aids the teaching and learning process and, at the same time, protects the physical wellbeing of the occupants. Maintenance of the school plant is concerned with keeping grounds, buildings, and equipment in their original condition of completeness and efficiency. Knezevich has rightly stated that the time it takes for a building to become physically obsolete depends on the quality of the original construction and materials, as well as the quality of housekeeping and maintenance. It is the responsibility of the supervisor and the school head to formulate the kind of building operation and maintenance program that will extend the useful physical

life of buildings and equipment. In school maintenance, rehabilitation involves the restoration of floors, walls, or ceilings of buildings to their original state. It is a process of face lifting in which split walls, leaking or blown-off roots, falling ceilings, broken windows, and cracked floors are mended and re-decorated for further educational use. There is a close relationship between the quality of custodial services and the need for maintenance. Kenevich pointed out that there is a need for a close relationship between the school curriculum and the school plant. Rehabilitation or improvements to the physical facilities in the schools should be made for the following reasons:

i) Outdated school buildings should be replaced for modern educational purposes.

i) A new 'Openness' about educational purposes and processes is gathering momentum. Value questions are being asked to a greater degree now than before.

iii) New social, political, and educational demands are being imposed on the schools.

iv) Demand for education is increasing, especially with the launch of Universal Basic Education (UBE) in the country.

Okeke (1985) emphasized that the kinds of spaces to be included in the educational plant depend ultimately on the school curriculum. If vocational, agricultural, home economics, industrial art, business education, etc. are part of the educational experiences within the system, it follows that spaces for learning in these areas must be

designed. The size of each kind of space for learning will depend on the size of school enrollment. Coombs maintains that school plant planning starts and ends with the children, and the building is to be designed to satisfy the children's physical and emotional needs. Okeke further pointed out some steps to be considered in obtaining a new school plant:

I) Analyze the educational needs of the community and decide on the future school program.

ii) Make a survey of the whole school division to know the available plants, their functional condition, and how relevant they are to carrying out the educational aims and objectives.

iii) Select and acquire a site necessary to carry out the approved plan resulting from the survey.

iv) Develop carefully the educational specification for each facility envisaged in the new plant, bearing in mind the anticipated economic and social conditions.

v) Design each separate facility in adherence to the educational specifications.

vi) Publish tenders, secure bids, award contracts, and put up the buildings strictly according to the approved working drawings.

vii) Finally, equip the buildings and put them to use.

II. The Meaning of the School Plant

The term school plant' encompasses all physical structures and infrastructural facilities on the school premises, such as classroom

buildings, hostels, halls, offices, libraries, laboratories, instructional materials rooms, workshops, and equipment used for educational purposes towards the achievement of educational goals. Olagboye refers to school plants as school physical facilities, which include buildings, equipment, machinery, vehicles, books, electrical infrastructure, and water supply. Durosaro opines that the school plant embraces both permanent and semi-permanent structures on the school premises, as well as means of transport, teaching equipment, and even the cleaner's tools. According to Fadipe , school plants are non-consumable materials in the school for the promotion of teaching and learning activities. Adeboyeje defines the school plant as the physical facilities within the school, which are the basic materials that must be available and considered to be able to achieve the objectives of the school.

The availability of these facilities (in quantity and quality) determines the quality of instruction and students' performance in the school's internally and externally conducted examinations. A school plant embraces both permanent and semi-permanent structures as well as items such as machines, laboratory equipment, the chalkboard, and the teachers' tools.

According to all the definitions above, a school plant covers all facilities required to facilitate teaching and learning. School plant can also be said to include; buildings (classrooms, hostels, libraries,

laboratories, assembly halls, administrative blocks, staff quarters where available), equipment (laboratory and workshop equipment , sporting equipment, instructional teaching materials, typewriters or and computers, printers), machiner y (duplicating and secretarial machines, workshops machines and tools), furniture (classroom and office furniture, hostels and staff quarters furniture), vehicles (official vehicles for school head and principal officers of the school, school bus, water tankers), books (text-books, stationeries, library books), electrical infrastructure (overhead electrical conductor lines, meters generating sets, air conditioners, fans and other electrical fittings) and water supply infrastructure (public water extension to the school, bore holes, deep well, water tanks, either used for teaching and learning or to support those activities.

III. Management and Maintenance of School Plants

School plants or school physical facilities are an essential aspect of educational administration. Effective and efficient teaching and learning may not be achieved if schools are wrongly located, if the classrooms are not well constructed, or if the equipment available is overutilized, underutilized, or not well maintained. Management of the school plant is a process of planning to meet the needs of the school in terms of physical facilities and maintaining and keeping such facilities in good condition at all times so that the facilities can be used as needed for teaching and learning. Adeboyeje posited that efficient management of the school plant is a must to make the school a pleasant, safe, and comfortable

place for the activities of the community. One of the important duties of an institutional administrator is the maintenance of the school plant.

Maintenance of the school plant is an important aspect of school administration. It is the activities embarked upon by the school administrators to ensure that the school plant remains in the same state. The activities include repairs, servicing, painting, greasing, etc. Maintenance can also be defined as those activities put in place to keep and restore the original condition of an item. When activities such as repairs, servicing, painting, etc. are put in place to keep or restore the original condition of an item, the item is being maintained. Maintenance of school plants therefore implies the process of or any other activities that involve repairs, servicing, painting, etc. and which are carried out on any of the components of school plants in an attempt to keep or restore them to their original condition and, more importantly, to ensure that the school plants are in good shape.

The aim of the maintenance of the school plant is to ensure that it remains in the best condition for educational instruction at all times. Miller observed that the construction of new blocks of classrooms and other buildings and alteration of the existing buildings are not the whole housing effort; they also involve the continuing operation and maintenance of the school plant. It is therefore necessary for school administrators to have knowledge of operating and maintaining school plants. School plant maintenance requires maximum cooperation and

hard work from the officials of the Ministry of Education, the school administrator, the school staff (academic and non-academic), the students, and the community where the school is located.

IV. Types of School Plant Maintenance

Maintenance services for the school plant may take any of the following forms:

(a) Preventive and Predictive Maintenance

This form of maintenance is aimed at preventing the occurrence of total breakdowns of school plants available for use. It is also aimed at preventing situations that can put parts of the school plant out of use. Examples of services under preventive maintenance are timely and regular servicing of vehicles, generating sets, duplicating machines, cutting of trees, and periodic repair and painting of classroom buildings and other school buildings.

(b) Corrective and Emergency Maintenance

This type of repair is a spontaneous repair carried out at the appropriate time. For example, the timely rectification of electrical faults in the school buildings will prevent the possibility of any fire outbreak. Other activities that could be grouped under this are: replacing leaking pipes, replacing bad plugs, or cleaning the plugs on time.

(c) Breakdown Maintenance

This type of maintenance is otherwise known as emergency maintenance; it is that type of maintenance that aims to rectify breakdowns in any component of the school plant. It involves

preparation for a possible but unpredictable breakdown of the school plant by procuring in advance spare parts that will be needed in case of breakdown. Breakdown maintenance is the maintenance carried out after the breakdown of the school plant, which will require a heavy monetary outlay. Ineffective or inefficient preventive maintenance leads to total breakdown and, invariably, breakdown maintenance.

(d) Running Maintenance

This type of maintenance, otherwise known as regular maintenance, is carried out while the school plant is still in use. For example, if the repair is carried out on the school generator during the day while the lesson is going on and before it will be needed at night, the repair is completed, and if the repair or servicing is done on the school van during the school lesson period and before the students are ready to be taken back to their various homes or bus stops, the repair is over. This type of maintenance is referred to as running maintenance.

(e) Shutdown Maintenance

This type of maintenance is carried out only when the operations of the school have been closed, postponed, or suspended for a given period of time to carry out the maintenance work. This type of maintenance is carried out when major work or repair is to be done in a classroom. For example, if a windstorm damages a classroom block or if a building collapses in the school, the school may be shut down for a specific period of time to carry out major repairs on the dilapidated

building occasioned by the storm.

V. Stages Involved in the Provision of School Plants

The provision of an adequate and appropriate school plant is one of the most important responsibilities of school administrators. To ensure that the school plant is relevant, adequate, and efficient, the following six (6) stages should be observed:

1. Stages of an adequate survey of needs
2. Stage of wise educational planning.
3. Stage of choice of site.
4. Stage of architectural planning.
5. Stage of prudent financial planning.
6. Stage of efficient plant construction. An

VI. Types of Spaces on the School Site

There are five (5) major spaces necessary on the school site to enable it to carry on the effective activities of teaching and learning.

1. **Instructional Spaces**
   These are spaces set aside for students to receive instruction; they include classrooms, auditoriums, gymnasiums, libraries, laboratory workshops, arts rooms, music rooms, multipurpose rooms, and all other rooms set aside for students to receive learning instruction.

2. **Administrative Spaces**
   These are spaces set aside for the administrative offices of the school administrators, other staff members offices (academic and non-academic), the school counselor's

office, and health centers.

3. Circulation Spaces

These are spaces meant to occupy corridors, lobby, staircases, and other spaces where students can recreate.

4. Spaces for Convenience

These are spaces designed for toilets, bathrooms, cafeterias, kitchens, dormitories, custodian sheds, and stores.

5. Accessories

These are spaces meant for car parks, relaxation, football/tennis fields, volleyball courts, and tennis lawns.

VII. Challenges of School Plant Maintenance

Several challenges are militating against the proper maintenance of school plants. These account for the reasons why the school facilities are not what they used to be. Among the challenges, we have:

1) Financial Constraints

This problem is very common in primary and secondary schools. The heads at these levels of education are starved by the controlling and regulatory bodies with funds to maintain school plants. Most of them are not even given imprests, which makes it very cumbersome to procure or maintain the essential equipment and structure needed by

the schools.

2) **Misuse of School Physical Facilities**

Some members of the school make use of physical facilities in the school very carelessly because of the impression they have that they are government property. This is often common with the way both the students and staff make use of the toilets, lecture rooms, libraries, furniture, fittings, and other school facilities.

3) **Mismanagement of Maintenance Funds and Materials**

School administrators in Nigeria mostly do not spend the allocation for maintenance appropriately. Money allocated for maintenance is either used for personal purposes or on things other than maintenance. Left-over materials are most often not cared for; they are abandoned after use.

4) **Lack of Dedication on the Part of Custodians**

The custodians are those in charge of the maintenance of the physical facilities in the school. The attitude of the custodians toward work is very poor. Some of them are absent from work without reason. They lack a maintenance culture. Incessant power failure and bureaucratic procedures involved in getting order are other excuses given by the custodians for failing to take proper care of the school plant.

VIII. Solutions to the Challenges of School Plant Maintenance

With the present economic situation, the school administrators are not sure of the amount of money to be received from the government as imprest or for maintenance. The following strategies could be adopted to deal with the challenges of school plant maintenance:.

1) **Community Participation**

The need to seek the support of the community where the school is located in solving the school plant maintenance problem should not be overlooked. This is because the community needs must have been considered and given priority at the initial plant planning for the school. Members of the community, especially members of the Parents Teachers Association (PTA) of the school, should be actively involved in solving the problems of school plant maintenance. The professionals and artisans among them, e.g., carpenters, bricklayers, plumbers, etc., should be co-opted as needed in the various committees for professional advice or repairs.

2) **Creation of Awareness**

The government at local, state, and federal levels, educational administrators, and curriculum planners should embark on an enlightenment campaign through the media on the need to properly use and maintain school plants.

3) **Setting up of Special Committees**

These committees should be set up by the school administrators at the beginning of the term. The committees will be in charge of maintaining and carrying out any form of repair on the existing physical structures in the school.

4) Regular School Inspection and Supervision

Regular school inspections by the school head or ministry of education will assist in detecting problems on any of the school plants, and if necessary, action will be taken to remedy them early to prevent total breakdown of the school plant.

5) Provision of Adequate Funds

The government and supervisory agencies should make available to the institutional administrators' adequate funds to maintain school plants in schools. If the government does not make adequate funds available, the existing school plant cannot be adequately maintained or utilized. Most of the physical facilities in our schools are lying idle and have broken down because of inadequate funds to maintain them.

REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Adesina, S. (1981). Some Aspects of School Management. Lagos: Educational Industries Nigeria, Ltd.

Adesina, S. (1990). Educational Management. Enugu: Fourth Dimension Publishing Co. Ltd.

Combs, P. H., & Manzoon (1974). Attacking rural poverty. London: John Hopkins University Press.

Eresimmadu, F. N. J. (1996). Finance and Cost Concepts in Education. In Bosah H. O. N. & Eneasator, G. O. (Eds.), Dimensions of Educational Planning and Economics of Education (pp. --). Lagos: Ed-Solid Foundation Publishers.

Federal Republic of Nigeria. (2004). National Policy on Education. Lagos: Federal Ministry of Education.

Kenezevich, S. J. I. (1975). Administration of Public Education. New York: Harper and Row Publishers.

Okeke, A. (1985). Administering Education in Nigeria: Problems and Prospects. Ibadan: Heinemann Educational Books (Nigeria) Limited.

Roe, W. H. (1961). School Business Management. New York: Mac-Graw-Hill Book Co.

Chapter Eleven

PLANNING: MANAGEMENT OF STUDENTS' ACTIVITIES

I. Management of Students' Activities in the School System

In the school system, the primary assignment of the students is academic activities. However, students have to perform other extracurricular activities, which include games, sports, and many others. These extracurricular activities play important roles in the academic lives of the students. They help the students live a successful life when they go into society after their school education. With all the attributes of extracurricular activities enumerated above, it is essential that the school plan for the activities properly and manage them well. It is these activities that shape the social and physical outlook of the students. The school extracurricular activities project the image of schools in society. Such activities include games and sports, cultural activities, literary and debate drama, and many others. These activities are important for the social, emotional, and physical development of students, and such activities help the students grow intellectually.

II. Aims of Students' Extra-Curricular Activities in the School System

A congenial atmosphere is necessary for the teaching and learning processes. In the first place, discipline connotes readiness to learn to respect authority and observe conventional or established laws of an organization or society. It implies self-control, respect for oneself, and respect for others. The aim of the students' activities is based on the premise that a disciplined individual is a disciplined society. It is discipline that helps the school system produce a breed of well-behaved boys and girls who respect school authorities and school regulations.

The school organizes students into activities to achieve the following objectives:.
These objectives, adapted from Babs Fafunwa , are:

1. To help the students develop ethical character.
2. To help the children play their parts as useful members of the school.
3. To make pupils understand and appreciate their roles as citizens of the
school and society.
4. To help the students understand and appreciate their cultural heritage.
5. To make the students recognize the dignity of labor.
6. To give the students freedom of thought, expression, and action.
7. To enable the students to develop their personal talents fully.

8. To train the students in the art of leadership behavior.
9. To help relive the students of academic boredom.
10. To encourage self-development.

Ozigi identified some broad aims of students' activities, which include training in good manners and maintaining school discipline. There should be conscious efforts to train the students' good manners. This is very important since it will take care of the moral standards of students. It will help them to obey people in positions of authority and enhance their respect for elders and superiors. Religious instruction will serve a good purpose here. Discipline enhances the smooth and efficient management of the school. If there is a breakdown of rules and regulations, that is an indication that the pupils are not disciplined. School rules are essential for the effective management of students. Students' activities are controlled by rules and regulations. To maintain law and order in the school, the headmaster has to rely on the responsibility of the students. Students can only be responsible members of the school community if they engage in various student activities. Going through the above aims of the extra-curricular activities in the school system, it becomes very important that as the school plans for the curricular activities, the school also plans for the extra-curricular activities. Both academic and non-academic activities in the school system are interdependent. They complement each other. One cannot exist without the other. Non-academic activities should be planned. The ability of students to participate in decision-making is always

underestimated by school teachers. It is often assumed that students cannot participate in decision-making until they are fairly mature. Skillful teachers, however, make extensive use of students in planning school activities such as games and sports. As students are allowed to participate in decision-making in the school, they develop the competency to participate in many phases of classroom management.

There are many extracurricular activities in the school system that aim at propagating the objectives we have mentioned in this unit. Students should be allowed to participate in many activities, such as clubs, societies, drama, cultural groups, and games. The students should be given the opportunity to plan and administer the programs so that they can acquire skills and knowledge. The teachers should also be involved in the planning and management of the program of activities for these extracurricular activities.

III. Planning Stages for Students' Activities

The stages of planning students' extracurricular activities include:

1. **Formulation of rules and regulations**
   The school authority should have adequate rules and regulations to control all the students' activities. The rules should have general application. They should spell out penalties for any offense.

2. **Registration of students' activities.**
   All forms of students' extra-curricular activities need to be registered. Registration is important so as to determine

the nature and usefulness of the club or society to be registered. The registration will ensure that the aims and objectives of such clubs or societies are not at variance with the stated goals and objectives of the school. All societies or clubs that are nocturnal in behavior should not be registered.

3. **Students' Activities Constitution**.
At the planning stage of the students' extracurricular activities, emphasis should be laid on the fact that the students should be informed to formulate their rules and regulations for each of the activities. This will be in the form of a constitution to follow.

4. **Appointment of Officers or Representatives**
As much as possible, the constitution of students' activities should include important offices. The school authority should endorse such official positions and make sure that there are adequate plans to monitor the activities of such officers. The school should make sure that competent students are appointed as leaders of each of the clubs or societies.

5. **Membership in clubs and societies.**
The clubs and societies are out to bring together students of similar interests. Membership in the club should be voluntary. There should be no plan to force students to

belong to clubs or societies they do not like.

6. **Financing of the students' activities.**
All arrangements must be made by the school headmaster to control the students' activities. Every necessary plan of action for students' activities and financing must be planned. It is essential that the school budget provide for student activities. It is better for the school to finance the activities or write down the modalities for financing the clubs or societies. External financing may be dangerous. Internal sources of fund generation are better than external ones. If the school contributes financially to the students' activities, it will enhance good control of the activities.

IV. Guidelines for the Management of Students' Activities in the School System

We have tried to explain the importance of students' activities and have identified some planning strategies to enhance the effective management of students' activities. Ozigi gave guidelines that should be helpful to school administrators in the management of students' extracurricular activities. The guidelines are:

1. The school administrator should show keen interest in extracurricular activities.
2. The school should limit the number of clubs.
3. Staff responsibility should only be in the form of

supervision and direction.

4. The school should develop some system of honors awards for students to encourage their interest.
5. Membership in the social clubs should be open to all students. There should be no discrimination.
6. The cost of joining any social club should be minimal so that good and poor students are not eliminated.
7. The school should provide financial assistance to promote the students' activities.
8. The program of extracurricular activities should be well planned, coordinated, and integrated into the school schedule.

All the above guidelines are good strategies to manage the students and activities in the school system. The management of students' activities begins with the recognition of the need to establish students' activities in the school. The need to sell the idea to the students is essential. The school authority can do this by enlisting the services of the guidance and counseling unit. The guidance and counseling unit will advise the students about the benefits and attributes of each club. The students are taught better ways of managing the affairs of the clubs and societies. The guidance and counseling unit will encourage the students to develop an adequate interest in any social organization. Another strategy that the school Head teacher can use to manage the students' activities is students' involvement in decision making. Schools generally believe that students should not be involved in decision-making. This is

not only wrong but traditional in approach to students' management. The involvement of students in decisions that concern their social activities will go a long way in removing student indiscipline from the school system. Students should be allowed to participate actively in matters that concern their social activities. It will not be ideal to force on the students the social activity constitution. Even the rules and regulations guiding the clubs' activities should be jointly formulated by the students and the teachers. The supervision and control of social groups are very important. To effect these in the school system, the school should be represented by members of staff in all social organizations. To effectively manage the students' activities, the school should allow the students to have a reasonable degree of freedom of association, which is essential to managing the students' activities.

Punishment should be used when necessary to serve as a deterrent to the reoccurrence of any bad behavior. Any social club that deviates from its objectives or engages in activities that are incompatible with those approved by the school should be prohibited. Financial assistance for the activities of the social groups is essential. It will go a long way toward allowing the school authority to have a say in what goes on in social organizations. The students' social activities should be properly scheduled. The school timetable should give room for social activities. In some schools, some periods are scheduled for games and sports. The other social activities are better in the evenings, especially after school hours.

REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Adesina, S. (1981). Some Aspects of School Management. Lagos: Educational Industries Nigeria, Ltd.

Adesina, S. (1990). Educational Management. Enugu: Fourth Dimension Publishing Co. Ltd.

Combs, P. H., & Manzoon (1974). Attacking rural poverty. London: John Hopkins University Press.

Eresimmadu, F. N. J. (1996). Finance and Cost Concepts in Education. In Bosah H. O. N. & Eneasator, G. O. (Eds.), Dimensions of Educational Planning and Economics of Education (pp. --). Lagos: Ed-Solid Foundation Publishers.

Federal Republic of Nigeria. (2004). National Policy on Education. Lagos: Federal Ministry of Education.

Kenezevich, S. J. I. (1975). Administration of Public Education. New York: Harper and Row Publishers.

Okeke, A. (1985). Administering Education in Nigeria: Problems and Prospects. Ibadan: Heinemann Educational Books (Nigeria) Limited.

Roe, W. H. (1961). School Business Management. New York: Mac-Graw-Hill Book Co.

Chapter Twelve

PLANNING: TEACHER DEMAND, SUPPORT, AND UTILIZATION

Introduction

The teacher is a crucial component of any educational system. This is because no organized education can take place without teachers. It is teachers that implement educational policies and the curriculum; they play significant roles in the attainment of the objectives of any educational system. Consequently, their demand and supply are crucial to the survival of the school system. Education in general requires the sound development of the intellectual capability of both teachers and children. The supply and demand of teachers should be carefully planned and executed because of the complex nature of education, the sector that shapes the lives of people. The quality of education depends on the quality of teachers trained, since teachers can teach only what they know. There is no educational system that can rise above the quality of its teachers. The services of teachers are indispensable to a nation since they influence the lives of the pupils in school. It is a fact that a poorly trained teacher will produce poor doctors,

engineers, and teachers. Teaching is still not regarded as as attractive as other professions in Nigeria because of poor pay. This seriously affects the supply and demand of teachers.

The teaching profession in Nigeria has been a low-status occupation. It is a fact that the quality of education in a country is more likely to reflect the quality of the men and women who serve as teachers. Furthermore, the quality of teacher training'makes' or'mars' the end result of the job of the teacher. The demand for teachers is expected to be high when the supply of qualified teachers is not adequate.

I. Features of Teacher Education in Nigeria

The early missionaries made their first attempts at teacher training. The professional training of teachers started in 1896 with the establishment of St. Andrew's College, Oyo, by the Church Missionary Society. From the very beginning, the Nigerian government had lifted the training of teachers to the voluntary agencies until later in the century. In the early stages of the program for teacher education, the teachers were being trained for the primary school system. The training of teachers for secondary schools did not start until 1958. Missionaries dominated secondary school teaching during the time period under consideration. Another feature of teacher education that affected demand and supply of teachers was the limited number of teacher trainees. Another important limitation was that there were no efforts to train specialist

teachers. Rather, teacher training programs were generalist in nature. Adesina identified the following factors as having a significant impact on the development of teacher education: The factors are summarized as follows:

(a) Teacher education in Nigeria was for a long time a missionary enterprise lacking the full backing of the government.
(b) Teacher education at the early stage was primarily concerned with the supply of teachers for the primary schools.
(c) The availability of teacher education programs strictly regulates the supply of teachers.

As in earlier states, the voluntary agencies controlled teacher education for a long time at the initial stage. During this period, teacher education was meant for the preparation of primary school teachers. Teacher education is expensive since it is professional training. All professional courses are expensive. Apart from the points raised above, there are currently some problems confronting teaching in Nigeria. Teaching is taken to be a stepping stone to other, more lucrative jobs. Until about fifteen years ago, teachers had no security, had few prospects for promotion, and had little money. It was the 1974–75 Udoji Commission that improved the conditions of work for teachers. In

Nigeria, there has been a high turnover rate of teachers under Professor Fafunwa Vias. As a result, teachers withdrawing their services to other areas has an impact on turnover. Those who withdraw do so on grounds of general dissatisfaction with the profession. They desire to enter other professions because of the financial attraction of such other professions or work.

II. Government Strategies to Increase the Supply of Teachers

As a result of the factors identified above, the government has designed strategies to arrest the low supply of teachers. Such strategies include:

1. The 1976 Crash Program

In 1976, the Federal Government embarked on the Universal Primary Education (UPE) scheme. Before that year, there were not enough teachers for the program. In 1974, the Federal Government approved an emergency teacher training program that began in September 1974. To meet the target of producing adequate qualified teachers for the UPE scheme, the teacher education crash program was embarked upon. Many teachers were trained as a result of the crash program arrangement. The majority of the teachers were Grade II certified for the primary schools.

2. Production of Secondary School Teachers

To produce secondary school teachers, the government increased the number of Advanced Teachers Colleges. All Nigerian universities were to have facilities for education, offering undergraduate degrees in education. The crash program for the production of secondary school teachers started in 1969. The federal and state governments jointly sponsored the program. There was a bursary award for students pursuing various courses in education. This was to attract school leavers to take teaching as a profession.

3. Improvement in the Conditions of Service for Teachers

The governments made conscious efforts to improve the conditions of services for teachers in order to stop the high rate of teachers leaving the teaching profession. The conditions of service for teachers have been harmonized with those of the civil service. This was also to arrest the drift of teachers from the teaching profession.

4. The Federal Teachers' Scheme

The Federal Government introduced this scheme in 2006 to increase the number of qualified teachers in primary schools to prosecute the Universal Basic Education Program. The program also helped to mop up the pool of unemployed NCE teachers in some states of the Federation.

5. *The NYSC Program*

The NYSC program, which started in 1973, was purely meant for national unity. But the schools benefited from the program. Most of the participants in the program were posted to schools to teach. This increased the supply of teachers in the schools.

III. Teacher Demand

In Nigeria today, there is a dearth of qualified teachers in schools, according to Professor Fafunwa. He claimed that teaching was not lucrative in the past since dropouts from other professions took to teaching. In the 1950s and 1960s, school principals always scrambled for the few university graduates who wanted to take to teaching. The school principals used a lot of incentives to attract them. The supply of teachers in both primary and secondary schools was low.

However, there are some factors that can influence the demand for teachers in the school system. They are briefly examined below.

1. Enrolment

School enrollment is a factor that can be responsible for the demand for teachers in the school system. In Nigeria, the teacher-student ratio should be 1.30 at the secondary school level and 1:35 at the primary school level. The higher the enrollment in schools, the higher the demand for teachers. An example is the case of the UPE already mentioned in this unit. The scheme brought about increases in school

enrollment as of 1976. Since this period, the number of teachers required in the school system has increased. It is the same with secondary education, where there is a very high increase in student enrollment.

2. Budgetary Allocation

The demand for teachers is subject to the monetary allocation to the educational sector. There is a relationship between the demand for teachers and budgetary allocation. If the budget is adequate, many teachers will be employed. The finances of the state determine the number of teachers that will be needed in the school system.

3. The School Curriculum

The school curriculum also determines the number and quality of teachers to be hired. Vocational schools will require teachers with training in vocation subject areas. In Nigeria, the Junior Secondary School Program places emphasis on introductory technology. Therefore, there is a high demand for introductory technology teachers.

4. The Geographical Location

The geographical location of the school can affect the supply and demand of teachers. If the weather in an area is conducive, many teachers would want to teach there. Teachers are more in demand in urban centers than in rural areas. Teachers are more concentrated in the southern part of Nigeria than the northern part, partially as a result of

this geographical factor.

IV. Utilization of Teachers

There is a correlation between job satisfaction and work performance. Teachers' performance increases as the reward increases. Performance also leads to satisfaction if the work situation is good. In real-life situations, man needs some degree of satisfaction to be productive. One of the greatest challenges facing the Nigerian school system is motivating the teachers. If the objectives of education are to be achieved, or if those involved in teaching are to be properly utilized to attain the objectives of education, it becomes imperative that the teachers be motivated. When teachers are happy, it is assumed that the work they do is satisfying.

For effective utilization of teachers, there must be job enrichment. Job enrichment is an attempt by the management to design tasks in such a way as to give the teacher opportunities for personal achievement, recognition, challenge, and individual growth. Ajayi (1983) briefly summarized the steps involved in lob enrichment. These are:

1. Removing controls from a job while retaining accountability.
2. Increasing an individual's accountability for his own work.
3. Giving each person a complete and natural module of work.
4. Granting job freedom for a person's own work.

5. Making timely reports on performance available to the worker instead of the supervisor.
6. Introducing new tasks not previously performed.
7. Assigning specific tasks will enable employees to develop expertise in performing them.

The school head teacher who adopts these seven steps will find it easy to utilize the teachers in the performance of their duties. We have said that utilization entails the use of the system. There is that belief that after the employees have fully adjusted to the job enrichment program, which we have said includes responsibility, accountability, and self-evaluation, there will be increases in their performance. The theories X and Y of Douglas McGregor have provided a very good insight into managerial assumptions of human behavior and attitude toward work. Theory X and Y presented a dynamic view of the behavior of man. Every teacher has the capacity for growth and development. The task of motivating him for adequate utilization rests with the management. Since teachers have potential for growth and development, the school system must carefully decide how to make use of teachers' potential. A school teacher will attain high performance when the teacher sees a very high probability of his efforts leading to high performance. He will also perform well if he views the outcomes of his work positively and attractively. The outcome here can be promotion. If promotion is attractive to him, he will try to work hard for high productivity. This is because there is a direct relationship between productivity and

promotion. For example, if a teacher is indifferent to promotion, his productivity will be low. Therefore, we can conclude that a teacher's motivation is a result of the actual or perceived rewards available to him for the accomplishment of goals. We can rightly say that for a school system to utilize the teachers effectively to accomplish the goals of the school, motivation becomes imperative.

There is a question that comes to mind in the area of teacher utilization. It is unclear whether the teachers are prompted by the daily debate about the fall in the standard of education. One of the objectives of the school system is to produce competent output. The products of the school system are argued to be inferior to those of the past. Is it because teachers are not properly utilized? The answer to this question, if properly analyzed, will show that the teachers are not properly utilized. Let us take a brief example. During the last civilian administration in many states in Nigeria, teachers were not regularly paid. Many of them engaged in other jobs to keep their souls and bodies alive. In a particular case, the result of the West African School Certificate examination in that year by a particular state was the worst in forty years. The result was poor because the teachers were not properly utilized. Remember, utilization has an objective, which is to enable the system to achieve its objective promptly and efficiently.

There are some factors that can aid the effective utilization of teachers in the school system. These factors have already been

mentioned when we were trying to analyze the theory of motivation. It is better if we go into specifics. Broadly speaking, motivation is the major weapon that can help a school administrator make the teacher perform well. In order for teachers to be effectively utilized in the school system, the following factors should be addressed:

1. Incentives

Organizational incentives take many forms. For our own purposes, we define organizational incentives as those things in the form of positive rewards that will enhance high productivity on the part of the teacher. What readily comes to mind is a teacher's salary. Teachers' salaries, although harmonized with those of other sectors of public enterprises, are still not adequate for the work of the teacher. This is the way the teacher perceives his or her salary. Since the salary is low, it affects their work performance; hence, the teachers will not be properly utilized to achieve the goals of the school system. Remuneration should be fair to encourage keenness.

2. Availability of Facilities

The utilization of teachers is dependent on the availability of school materials. In most schools in Nigeria, the facilities are grossly inadequate. An effective teacher works with facilities. In many schools, ordinary chalk is not readily available. Teachers buy their own chalk, and the classroom is furnished with many notes on teachers' tables. The classrooms are overcrowded with many pupils. Under such situations, it

becomes difficult to make effective use of the teachers. School facilities are essential in order to make effective use of teachers towards the achievement of school goals.

3. Self-Development

To aid effective utilization of the teachers, they should be given the opportunity to go in for in-service training for self-development. Such in-service training enables teachers to renew their knowledge for effective performance of their jobs. In-service training enables teachers to be properly utilized in the school system. A teacher will be effectively utilized in the school system if he is current with the latest developments in education.

4. Mutual Understanding between Superiors and Subordinates

In many instances, the relationships between the teachers and the head teachers are not cordial. A cordial relationship is essential if the school head teacher wants to properly utilize his or her teachers. Friendliness and equity should prevail in a school where the head teacher is aiming for proper utilization of the teachers. Equity signifies kindness and justice. Justice should not only be done; it should be seen to be done. If this is not used in schools, the teacher will perceive inequity. Teachers in this situation will be difficult to utilize in the school system. Friendliness and equity in the school system promise team spirit. Promotion of team spirit gives the organization a sense of unity and gives room for effective

utilization of teachers in the school system.

5. Appraisal Process

Performance appraisal may be taken to mean the process of assessing personnel to arrive at judgments about the performance of an individual in the school system. It is always out to improve appraisals. It is also concerned with improving performance and promoting abilities. It is always good to encourage self-development. An appraisal can be used to determine whether a teacher should be promoted, demoted, transferred, or dismissed. It is the appraisal process that will determine which teacher can be utilized in the school system. The utilization of the teacher is based on the teacher's ability to perform. It is the appraisal that will cover the competent teachers who can be effectively used for the goals of the school.

6. Teachers' Security of Tenure

Teachers should be protected against arbitrary treatment. They should be assured of continuing employment. Teachers should also be protected from post-employment financial insecurity. A high teacher turnover rate is not good for the efficient functioning of the school system. Every teacher in the school system should have a future. This will make the teachers interested in the job of teaching. General goals. The unsuccessful schools have unstable members of the teaching staff. For effective utilization of teachers and for continuity, the teacher must

enjoy security and have stable tenure in the school system.

REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Adesina, S. (1977). Planning and Educational Development in Nigeria. Lagos:
Educational Industries Nigeria Ltd.

Adesina, S. (1980). Some Aspects of School Management. Ibadan: Educational Industries Nigeria Ltd.

Ajayi, A. O. (1983). Basic Concepts in Economics: Planning and Administration of
Education. Ibadan: Unpublished.

Morphet, E. L., Johns, Rol., & Reller, T. L. (1974). Educational Organization and Administration. London: Prentice Hall, Inc.

Oyedeji, N. B. (1989). The Supply and Demand for Technical and Vocational Teachers in Junior Secondary Schools in Kwara State. International Journal of Educational Management, University of Ilorin, Vol. No. 1.

Chapter Thirteen

SCHOOL COMMUNITY RELATIONS

Introduction

For any school to function effectively, therefore, there is a need for a cordial relationship between the school and the host community. The reason is not far-fetched; the school depends on the community for its survival.

I. Concept of a School

School has been defined in various ways. It can be said that a school is any organized educational institution where knowledge is transmitted from the teachers to the learners. A school can also be defined as a social institution that transmits the culture of a society from one generation to another. We can define it as an agent of socialization. According to Ottaway and Smith , a school is a formal social group that members of a society create with the intention of fostering the development of their younger members. Olaniyi defined it as a formal agency of education established by members of the macro-community or society to mold the habits, interests, attitudes, and feelings of children

and transmit societal norms, culture, value, and tradition from one generation to another. A school is a formally established institution by appropriate law and authorities where the knowledge, attitudes, and skills required for both personal and social development are acquired. School is a place where people learn about the past, present, and project the future of society at large.

II. Concept of a Community

Towns, cities, states, and even the country comprise different communities. Community, however, can be said to comprise groups of people living in a particular place who share the same historical background and have common economic, cultural, and social values. Mussazi defined community as a group of people living in the same place with a common value and history, bound together by multiple economic, social, religious, and kingship ties. According to Bray, a community is a group of people who share the same social, economic, and cultural interests. From all the above, community comprises people who live together in a community, interact with one another, and share the same interests and ideologies. It can also be said that a community is a group of people living together in one place with a common religion, race, or similarity of attitudes or interests.

III. Types of Community

1. Rural Community

Rural communities are found in rural areas or in thinly populated areas. A rural community is a close unit that comprises members with strong ties and lives a subsistence life. These groups of people are less influenced by institutional or economic activities because they are less pronounced in rural areas, where rural communities are based.

1. Urban Community

Urban communities are found in urban areas or densely populated areas. The community comprises a number or group of people who have less in common with each other's within the same community with weeklies. Because of the presence and concentration of political and economic activities in the community where they live (the urban community), they are subject to a lot of institutional influence in their socio-political and economic activities. Self-assessment exercise. Distinguish between a school and a community.

III. Schools: Community Relationships

School-community relationships are cordial and mutual interactions that exist between the school and the community where the school is situated. This relationship assists both the school and the community to achieve their set goals in a healthy atmosphere. Bortner defined the school-community relationship as planned activities and a

way through which the school seeks to learn about the community, interpret, when need be, the purpose, program, problems, and needs of the school, and involve the community in the planning, evaluating, and management of school policies and progress. A school-community relationship is a two-way interaction that exists between the school and the community. The school cannot exist in isolation or independent of the community because the community provides and prepares the input into the school system. The inputs from the community include educational objectives and curriculum, students, school personnel, funds, and facilities; some of the inputs are from residents of the community. The inputs are processed into output in the school through teaching, assignments, exercises, research studies, guidance and counseling, etc. The output from the school, which consists of cultured, disciplined, and productive individuals, cannot be consumed or retained by the school but is sent back to the community to contribute their own contribution in various capacities based on the acquired knowledge from the school to the development of the community. When the school's outputs fall short of the community's expectations, the community's investment in the school is not worthwhile, and vice versa.

Both the school and the community are interdependent and interrelated. The community prepares the input (i.e., students) needed by the school for survival; the output from the school (i.e., graduates) also comes back to the community and assists in various capacities. For

the school-community relationship to be peaceful, healthy, mutual, cordial, worthwhile, and productive, the school and the community must be willing to assist each other to achieve their respective set goals in a conducive and loving atmosphere where there is mutual trust, support, and cooperation.

IV. The Roles of the School in the Community

The following are the roles of the school for the host community or society at large:

1. Provision of Education.

The school assisted the community in training the children and young people on how to write basic literacy and numeracy. The curriculum used for the children by the school places emphasis on the needs and problems of the community and on how to assist the children in contributing their quota to the development of the community.

2. Preservation of Community Culture

In the school, the children are also taught community norms, values, culture, tradition, and beliefs. Apart from teaching the children all these, schools also ensure their transmission from one generation to another. The school also carries out research to improve the good culture of the community and to discourage the children from having bad or antisocial characters.

3. Provision of Facilities for Community Use.

The school provides and makes available some school facilities for community use when needed by the community. Some of the facilities made available for the community are the school playing ground (for community rallies, socials, religious, and other activities), school halls and classrooms (for receptions and entertainments as well as for adult and continuing education classes), and school vans and buses (for social outings). However, there must be some rules governing the use of the school facilities by the community to ensure proper use.

4. Provision of Means of Livelihood to Members of the Community

The school provides a means of livelihood to members of the community by employing them as teachers, administrative officers, day/night guards, drivers, cleaners, gardeners, or any other available position qualified for by the members of the community. The payment received for the service(s) rendered to the school is used as a means of livelihood and to cater for their own immediate and extended family.

5. Manpower Supply

There are various categories of manpower needed by the community to serve in the various sectors of the economy, for example, medical doctors to provide medical services, lawyers to provide legal

services, bankers to provide banking services, teachers and lecturers to teach in schools, engineers to serve in the engineering units of the country, computer scientists to take care of the internet service and other information technology services of the country, etc. There are so many other services that are needed to sustain the country that are provided by the school. Without these manpower supplies in quality and quantity, there cannot be any meaningful growth and development in a country. The school provides these after giving them the required training that makes them qualified and competent.

6. Assist in the Community Development Program or Service

Members of the school play an active role in some projects embarked on by the community. The school students are engaged in various projects in the community. Examples of community development projects are road construction and road maintenance; they also render community service to the community where the schools are situated; and they serve as members of the Road Safety Corps, Civil Defense Corps, Man-O-War, Red Cross Society, etc.

V. The Role of the Community in the School

The community, in appreciation of the role of the school in the community and for mutual co-existence, performs the following functions for the school:

1. Provision of Funds.

The community generates funds for the development of the school through special levies. Parent-Teacher Association (PTA) levies, donations by old student associations, religious groups, non-government organizations, philanthropists, etc.

2. Provision of Land

The community makes available landed property (either freely or at a reduced price) to erect school structures of various categories and also for gardening and farming purposes.

3. Maintenance of School Plants.

Various artisan groups within the community, such as carpenters, bricklayers, mechanics, etc., assist in the installation, maintenance, and repair of school physical facilities at a reduced rate, as needed and when they are called upon.

4. Provision of Facilities.

The community provides physical facilities, which members of the school make use of. Examples of the physical facilities provided by the community are the public library, which assists the student in pursuing academic excellence; community halls, which are used by the school for teaching and learning and social activities; hospitals and clinics, which are used as first aid in case of the need to refer to a specialist or other hospitals.

5. Provision of Accommodation

The community provides residential accommodation to both the

staff and the students of the school. Most schools now have no befitting accommodations for their staff or even their students. This makes the school and/or the staff concerned explore the opportunity of getting accommodation in the community where the school is situated or nearby communities.

6. Provision of Scholarships

The communities make provision for scholarships for brilliant or indigent students, or both of them, depending on the funds available. Some well-meaning individuals (who appreciate education and are educated citizens) within the community, e.g., philanthropists Religious groups, etc. also award various scholarship schemes to assist students within the community in primary, secondary, or higher learning institutions. The scholarship may cover school fees, books, others, or all.

VI. Factors Influencing School-Community Relationships

It is necessary for the school head to be familiar with the factors influencing the school-community relationship to facilitate a cordial relationship between the school and the community. Some of the factors are discussed below:

1. The Location of the School

The location of a school within the community goes a long way in influencing the school-community relationship. For example, parents are more likely to visit a school more frequently if it is located at the heart or

center of the community than if it is located on the outskirts of the community. A school that is also attractive, safe, and accessible, with the opportunity for future expansion, will enjoy the patronage of the community members. However, if the location of the school is on the outskirts of the town, the school head can use his initiative and power to organize meetings and activities that will bring members of the community into the school at regular intervals to see the school and know what the school has and its needs.

2. Facilities Available.

The type of facilities available in the school will determine the level of cordial relationship the school receives from the community. For example, a school that has a good hall for conferences/wedding receptions, classroom for adult education/extra mural studies, playground for community rallies and meetings and make it available for community use at a subsidized /lower rate will enjoy more cordial relationship between the school and the community because, the community benefits from the use of these facilities and will want good relationship to continue to be able to continuing to enjoy the facilities, but where these facilities are not available for community use or available at expensive rate, the school community relationship cannot be/may not be as cord ial as when those facilities are available for community use at no cst or at subsidized rate.

3. Communication

Effective communication between the school and the community at all times will enable community members to assist the school and give them good advice. It is compulsory that the school head integrate members of the community into the school system by giving them feedback on school activities through effective communication. The school head must communicate effectively with the various governing, regulatory, and voluntary agencies (Governing Board, PTA, and Old Student Association) in the community regularly. In a situation where there is poor communication between the school and community, the result is an unhealthy or poor school-community relationship.

4. Leadership Style

The type of leadership style adopted by the school head will go a long way in enhancing, positively or negatively, the relationship between the school and the community. For example, a school head who adopts a democratic leadership style will enjoy better cordial school-community relationships because he will be approachable and listen to community views at all times than a school head who adopts an autocratic or laissez-faire leadership style. This is because the school head, who has adopted a democratic leadership style, will involve people in his administration and consult with them and other members of the community if need be before arriving at major decisions. This strengthens mutual understanding between the school and the community. However, the

school head, who adopts an autocratic leadership style, does not consult with people or community members before arriving at decisions. He decides single-handedly and enforces his opinion on people. This situation creates a gap and distance between the school and the community and also creates a suspicious environment. The school head who adopted Liazzez-Faire is also the uncared-for type, who shows no concern for the work force or the community. He will not also enjoy the full support of the workers, nor will he be able to create or maintain a cordial relationship between the school and the community. It is only the school head who adopts a democratic leadership style that enjoys the full support and maximum cooperation of the community.

5. Attitude of School Staff.

The attitude and behavior of the school head and his staff toward the members of the community will either enhance their relationship or otherwise. If the school head and the staff are accessible, approachable, friendly, and fair in dealing with the members of the community, there will be a cordial relationship, but if they make themselves inaccessible, unapproachable, and unfriendly to the members of the community, the community will be hostile to them and confrontational because of the type of attitude and behavior they put up against the community, and this will not enhance a good or cordial relationship between them. However, for the school to enjoy a close relationship with the community, there is a need for the school head and the staff to project a

good image of the school through their own good attitudes and behaviors toward the community members.

VII. The Role of the School Head in School: Community Relationships

To achieve the set goals for schools, healthy relationships are a must between the school and the community. Therefore, the school head needs to ensure that there is love, understanding, trust, and mutual trust between the school and the community. To ensure this, the school head needs to take the following measures:

1. He or She should Establish a Functional PTA.

The head should make the PTA a functional one rather than making it an income-generating association alone. The members will be allowed to have a say or contribute to the running of the school. For example, they can be involved in the school promotion exercise, maintenance of discipline in the school, school plant, and management. If the school head can allow a functional PTA, it will facilitate healthy relationships between the school and the community, but when he or she refuses to make the PTA functional, there is a likelihood of various crises between the school and the community.

2. He or She should be Accessible.

The school head must make himself accessible to members of the

community, such as the PTA chairman or other executive, the parent, the chiefs, religious leaders, members of the old student association, and other visitors that may visit the school occasionally from the community. The school head must be a good listener, nice, humble, and approachable to enhance and sustain healthy relationships between the school and the community.

3. He or She should Involve Members of the Community in the School Activities.

Members of the community where the school is located must be involved in the school activities because the school is within the community, hence the need for the school head to involve the members of the community in the school activities. For example, members of the community should be allowed to play an active role in the school's sporting activities and socials, such as the end-of-year get-together, Founder's Day, Christmas carol, valedictory service, and other social activities of the school. This type of involvement will enhance the cordial relationship between the school and the community.

4. He or She should Make himself Available.

The school head must make himself or herself available to the members of the community, including the parents, PTA executives, old student groups, chiefs, and religious leaders. He should not be the type

to administer in his absence or have a lot of bureaucratic procedures before he can be seen by members of the community. A school head who makes himself available at all times will attend to the community's needs promptly, and he or she will enjoy the support and healthy relationships from the community.

5. He or She should Avoid Realistic Politics in the Community.

The school head and staff members should avoid taking part in political activities in the community to avoid bad blood between the school and the community. The school head should ensure that he or she does not represent any political party within the school to achieve some political goals. This will enable the head of school to be aware of all issues at all times.

REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Ajayi, I. A. (2007). Issues in School Management. Lagos: Bolabay Press.

Bray, M. (1987). New Resources for Education, Community Management, and Financing of Schools in Less Developed Countries. London: Commonwealth Secretariat.

Musaazi, J. C. S. (1982). The Theory and Practice of Educational Administration. London: Macmillan Press Ltd.

Olaniyi, W. O. (2000). School Community Relations in the 21st Century. In J. O. Fadipe & E. E. Oluchukwu (Eds.), Educational Planning and Administration in Nigeria in the 21st Century. Ibadan: National

Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA).

Chapter Fourteen

SCHOOL COMMUNITY RELATIONS

Introduction

Human resources constitute the vital vein of any organization. Formal organizations have great concern for the development, use, and interaction of resources that are necessary to achieve organizational goals. The human resources in a school system will include the teachers, support staff in the school, students, parents, community members, ministry of education officials, employers of labor, and a host of other interest groups. They are the personnel in a given organization. In a formal structure, rules and regulations, courses of study, position guides, and policies may be developed, but they become significant only when people make use of them. Administrative activities relating to personnel in an organization are referred to as personnel plans and decisions about personnel flow for institutional purposes. This entails the ability of administrators to effectively coordinate human resources for the accomplishment of organizational goals.

The term 'human resource management' (HRM) has been subjected to considerable debate. However, it is that part of the management process that specializes in the management of people in work organizations. HRM emphasizes that employees are critical to achieving sustainable competitive advantage, that human resources practices need to be integrated with the corporate strategy, and that human resource specialists help organizational controllers to meet both efficiency and equity objectives." Naturally, the definition of human resource management would be incomplete without further explaining what the terms 'human resources' and 'management' are.

First and foremost, people in work organizations, endowed with a range of abilities, talents, and attitudes, influence productivity, quality, and profitability. People set overall strategies and goals, design work systems, produce goods and services, monitor quality, allocate financial resources, and market the products and services. Individuals, therefore, become 'human resources' by virtue of the roles they assume in the work organization. Employment roles are defined and described in a manner designed to maximize particular employees' contributions to achieving organizational objectives. In theory, the management of people is no different from the management of other resources in organizations. In practice, what makes it different is the nature of the resource—people. One set of perspectives views the human being as potentially a creative and complex resource whose whole behavior is influenced by many

diverse factors originating from either the individual or the surrounding environment. Organizational behavior theorists, for example, suggest that the behavior and performance of the 'human resource' are a function of at least four variables: ability, motivation, role perception, and situational contingencies. Another set of perspectives emphasizes the problematic nature of employment relations. Human resources differ from other resources the employer uses, partly because individuals are endowed with varying levels of ability (including aptitudes, skills, and knowledge), personality traits, gender, role perception, and differences in experience, and partly as a result of differences in motivation and commitment. In other words, employees differ from other resources because of their ability to evaluate and question management's actions, and their commitment and cooperation always have to be won. In addition, employees have the capacity to form groups and trade unions to defend or further their economic interests. Human resources is often referred to as personnel, staff, or workers.

I. Definition of Management

The term 'management' may be applied to either a social group or a process. The term 'management', when applied to a process, conjures up in the mind a variety of images of managerial work. Management may be seen as a science or as an art. The image of management as a science is based on the view that experts have accumulated a distinct body of knowledge about management that, if studied and applied, can enhance

organizational effectiveness. This view assumes that people can be trained to be effective managers. Classical management theorists set out to develop a 'science of management', in which management is defined in terms of planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating, and controlling'. In this classical conception, management is regarded as primarily concerned with internal affairs. Another set of perspectives on the role of management emphasizes that an organization is a purposeful miniature society, and, as such, power and politics are pervasive in all work organizations. By power, it means the capacity of an individual to influence others who are in a state of dependence. Organizational politics refers to those activities that are not required as part of a manager's formal role but which influence, or attempt to influence, the distribution of resources for the purpose of promoting personal objectives. Politics in organizations is simply a fact of life. Those who fail to acknowledge political

Behavior ignores the reality that organizations are political systems. An alternative image of managerial activity is to view management as art. This implies that managerial ability and success depend upon traits such as intelligence, charisma, decisiveness, enthusiasm, integrity, dominance, and self-confidence. The practical implications of this view are quite different from the 'management as science' approach. If management is equated with specific traits associated with successful styles of leadership, it would provide a basis

for selecting the 'right' individual for managerial positions in the organization. Managerial skills can be developed but cannot be acquired by attending business schools. In other words, if management is an art, managers are born. The science-versus-art discourse is not an arid academic debate, given public and private expenditure on management education and training. The theme of control in organizations provides yet another view of the role of management. From this perspective, managerial control is the central focus of management activity. According to this approach, managers seek to control the labor process by deskilling workers using scientific management techniques and new technology. In searching for the meaning of management, Watson's ethnographic study focuses attention on how managers shape both themselves and their subordinates through communicating values to be shared throughout the organization. He argues that management is inherently a social and moral activity—a human social craft. It requires the ability to interpret the thoughts and wants of others—be they employees, customers, competitors, or whatever—and the facility to shape meanings, values, and human commitments. Perhaps the most sensible way to approach the debate of what management is by recognizing that management is indeed both an art and a science and that, at the same time, it is involved in both political behavior and control.

II. The Meaning and Nature of Personnel Management

Human resource management is a basic function of management, as the manager uses his capabilities and those of his subordinates to get things done. The personnel department is expected to make the best use of the personnel element in the organization, with the ultimate goal of obtaining the maximum output from the staff. Aderounmu and Ehiametalor defined personnel administration in the public school as the process of getting qualified personnel to provide instructional services necessary for the achievement of the system's goals. The goal of any school system is to provide society with the manpower needed for development and to enhance the quality of the conditions of living for their product. The personnel department plays several roles in the process of achieving the goals of the school. The main responsibility is to select and recruit professional, qualified staff and supporting staff. Other areas include staff development, staff evaluation, staff orientation, and so on.

The terms personnel management, personnel administration, and human resources management are similar and used interchangeably to mean the same. They all mean the activities of a group of people, each cooperating to achieve a common interest. Personnel refers to workers, employees, or labor on the one hand, while management, on the other hand, means the act of blending human and material resources to make things happen. In an organizational setting, resources have to be considered before making any meaningful decisions about planning,

budgeting, and recruitment. In many establishments, the techniques of personnel selection are used not only in the hiring of new employees but also in connection with promotions, disciplines, discharges, transfers, and other personnel decisions. Personnel management is centered on employment, education and training, wages and salaries, industrial relations, health and safety, and also on the welfare of employees. From the above, we can deduce that personnel management is therefore a specialist department responsible for the following functions:

i) Recruitment;
ii) Selection;
iii) Placement;
iv) Induction;
v) Compensation;
vi) Motivation;
vii) Training;
viii) Transfer;
ix) Promotion;
x) Discipline (e.g., demotion, termination, dismissal, etc.);
xi) Provision of safety against hazards and
xii) serves as a link between employees and management.

Towel, Schoen, and Hilgant believe that the personnel management function focuses upon planning, organizing, staffing, directing, and coordinating the activities of human resources, the personnel in a working organization. From the above definition, we can deduce that personnel management consists of those management functions and activities related to the acquisition, development, and

maintenance of human resources in a working organization. You will discover in the course of your program that many concepts and terms used in management sciences have slightly varying definitions depending on who is defining them.

Personnel management, which is our concern here, takes place in different organizations or establishments. Our focus here is on personnel management in the public sector, such as the environment of government organizations and institutions. The processes of personnel management in public organizations may virtually be the same as those in the private sector, but with little modification and concession. Private organizations, which are the direct opposite of public organizations, are organizations not owned by the government, e.g., the Lever Brothers Plc., Cadbury Nigeria Plc., Nestle Food Plc., etc. However, personnel management means that part of the process of management that is concerned itself with the maintenance relations and ensuring the physical wellbeing of employees so that they give their maximum contributions for an effective and efficient working co-existence of the organization.

Personnel management is intimately involved with the environment in general, and certain trends are noticeable. However, we can say that personnel management is the management process that is concerned with the maintenance of human relations, the physical

wellbeing of employees, and the manpower planning of personnel. Personnel management can also be defined as the process of obtaining and maintaining a satisfactory and satisfied work force. However, from the above definition, we can deduce two essential key words, which are the process of obtaining a *satisfactory work force* and the process of *maintaining a satisfied work force*. Each of these sub-packages has many functions and will be well examined in detail in our subsequent units.

For example, the process of obtaining a satisfactory work force starts with the process of manpower planning: recruitment, selection, placement, training, and retraining for better performance and bigger responsibilities in the organization, etc. The sub-package that we have identified as maintaining a satisfied work force also has its own numerous functions, e.g., education and training, payment of salaries and wages, the provision of houses or allowances, health and safety measures, staff advancement or promotion, and motivation. That is, the five (5) energizing forces that induce, compels, and maintain behavior, etc. However, a combination of these terms is what personnel management is all about.

CHARACTERISTICS OF PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

The following are the characteristics of personnel management:

i) The ability to select the right person for the right job
ii) Motivate them to happily contribute to the success of the

organization.

iii) Guarantee efficient employees and an effective organization. and

iv) Proper care for the serving and retired employees, as both are duty-bound to contribute to the progress of the organization.

AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

The aims and objectives of personnel management are the same for all organizations. The following are the aims and objectives of personnel management:

1. To recognize and satisfy individual needs and group goals by offering adequate and equitable remuneration, economic and social security, and protection against hazards of life, e.g., old age, disability, death, unemployment, etc.

2. To help the organization secure the right type of staff through recruitment, selection, placement, training, and development of personnel.

3. To help the organization meet its social and legal responsibilities as well as ensure its survival.

4. To utilize the skills and abilities of the workforce efficiently

5. To provide a well-trained and well-motivated workforce for the organization.

6. To communicate sound personnel policy packages to all stakeholders.

7. To promote ethical policies and productive behavior in a work environment.

8. To promote employees' job satisfaction and self-actualization in a work environment.

9. To aid in the achievement of established organizational goals

10. To train, develop, and maintain a quality workforce that will improve organizational performance.

11. To promote industrial harmony through consultation, negotiations, compromise, and collective bargaining with trade unions and other stakeholders.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

1. Principle of Meritocracy: This principle is of the view that recruitment, selection, promotion, training, and discipline should be based on merit, including management actions to discourage job dissatisfaction and industrial conflict. This means that ethnicity, religion, godfatherism, and primordial relationships should not be considered in a work environment in order to encourage efficiency and productive behavior among employees.

2. Principle of Democracy: Personnel managers should endeavor to practice democratic principles in matters affecting employees. There should be openness, consultation, and participation in decision-making to encourage employee commitment to organizational goals.

3. Principle of Motivation: Employees must be motivated in a work environment. This is because a motivated worker is a happy worker. Ingredients for job satisfaction should always be provided to ensure the attainment of organizational goals.

4. Principles of Stability: Principles of stability should be

encouraged in a work environment to encourage employee efficiency, improved performance, specialization, consistency, continuity, and predictability of actions.

5. Principle of Accountability: Public accountability is a constitutional matter and should be adhered to strictly in public personnel management. Accountability is the rendering of stewardship by a public officer during or after holding an office. This means that employees and management should always endeavor to give an account of their stewardship according to laid-down rules and regulations.

6. Principle of Public Relations: There should be official and personal interactions between managers, subordinates, and other employees in a work environment. In fact, intimacy and public relations promote cooperative behaviors, team spirit, comradeship, commitment, and satisfaction of employees social and psychological needs.

7. Principle of Flexibility: In a work environment, management should discourage rigid application of rules and regulations in the discharge of employee

responsibilities. This is to allow employees to exercise initiative, creativity, and personal judgment in a dynamic environment.

8. Principle of Espirit De Corp: This principle suggests that organizational goals can only be achieved in a work environment when there is cooperative behavior, team spirit, and teamwork among employees. Therefore, espirit de corp should be promoted.

9. Principles of Equity and Fair Play: The principles of equity and fair play are very essential in personnel management. Management should promote equity, fairness, and justice in dealing with employees. Employees should also be treated equally without discrimination, while the "Ho Stove rule" should be applicable in employee discipline.

10. Principle of Leadership: Effective and efficient leadership in a work environment should have legitimacy and enjoy the confidence of all stakeholders. The leader must possess leadership qualities and charisma. k. Principle of Education and Training: Management should promote the education, training, and development of employees for the benefit of the organization and to ensure job satisfaction.

11. Principle of Competitive Examination: This means that promotion and advancement in a work environment should be based on a competitive written or oral examination.

ESSENTIAL FUNCTIONS OF PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

In all organizations, whether public or private, the resources of the organization have to be considered before any meaningful planning, budgeting, or recruitment. All personnel departments perform some essential functions, which are employment, education and training, wages and salaries, industrial relations, health and safety, and welfare of employee services. These six essential functions have some other sub-divisions, which are:

1. Employment: This section of personnel management has to do with reception, recruitment, selection, promotion, transfers, termination, maintenance of employees's records, etc.

2. Education and Training: This section of personnel management has to do with Induction, Operation, Apprenticeship, Clerical, Supervision and Management, and Training Research, etc.

3. Wages and Salaries: This section of personnel management has to do with policy, job analysis, job evaluations, merit ratings, fringe benefits, etc.

4. Industrial Relations: This section of personnel management has to do with policy grievance procedures, industrial staff joint consultations, staff associations, work committees, etc.

5. Health and Safety: This section of personnel management has to do with physical conditions and the fitness level of staff in an organization.

6. Welfare of Employee Services: This section of personnel management has to do with social facilities, pensions, canteens, etc.

FUNCTIONS OF PERSONAL MANAGEMENT

The functions of personnel management can be classified into two categories: managerial and operational functions.

Managerial Functions:

The managerial functions of personnel management are as follows:

1. **Planning**: Planning means giving thoughts priority. Planning is the process that attempts to define the organization's future. It is the process by which managers examine their internal and external environments, ask fundamental questions about their organization's purpose, and establish its mission, goals, and objectives. There are three major types of plans: strategic, tactical, or specific, and operational.

2. **Controlling** means establishing work standards and ensuring no deviations from plans. Lawal states that control is the process by which chief executives assure that resources are obtained and used efficiently and effectively to accomplish organizational objectives. Controlling also means the act of implementing a monitoring system in an organization. It is the duty of the administrator to monitor current operations and compare results to goals and other standards of performance established during the planning period. According to Lawal there are many steps involved in the control process.

However, the essence of control is to ensure the following:

i) **Establishing Standards**: Standards are the criteria for measuring performance. Without standards, there will be

no basis for comparison. Derivations are measured against the standard set.

ii) **Measuring Performance Against Standards**: measurement and comparison of actual and expected results can be accomplished through observation of subordinates, personal contact, and auditing. This step is essentially a comparison of what is and what should be.

iii) **Correct Shortcomings**: When standards are established and performance measured, corrective actions should be applied to correct undesired deviations. Correction actions should not be restricted to negative deviations but extend to positive deviations, because it may be worthless to look at accuracy and adequate standards and determine whether the positive deviation is a result of inaccuracies or superior performance.

iv) **Co-ordinating**: This means the act of uniting all the different parts into one functional unit. Coordinating brings all scattered units, sections, divisions, and departments into a complete whole. The essence of coordination in personnel management and public administration is the act of interrelating several parts,

ensuring unity of purpose, and making disjointed elements work together. The principle of coordination means early starting, direct contact, reciprocity, and continuity. The medium of coordination is planning, as mentioned above. Standardization, good leadership, and lastly, institutional (conferences, symposiums, panels, committees, departmental meetings, etc.) However, coordination brings the several scattered units into a complete whole. It ensures harmony, efficiency, and effectiveness of work.

v) **Organizing**: This is the structuring of individual functions into productive relationships. It is the arrangement of personnel to facilitate the accomplishment of some purposes through the allocation of functions and responsibilities. Gullick defines organization as the formal structure of authority through which work is arranged, defined, and coordinated for the set objectives. Gaus states that "organization is to engage in a common task in such a way as to secure the desired objectives with the least friction and the most satisfaction of those for whom the task is done and those engaged in the enterprise." The success of administration depends on effective personnel and effective organization. Bad organization leads to poor quality products, poor services, duplication of efforts, and

total dissatisfaction of customers, both internal and external.

OPERATIONAL FUNCTIONS:

The operational functions of personnel management are as follows:

a) **School Staff Needs and Requirements:**

This deals with obtaining people with appropriate skills, abilities, knowledge, and experience to fill jobs in the work organization. Pertinent practices are human resource planning, job analysis, recruitment, and selection. The school personnel department assesses the needs of the system in terms of the expected involvement of students and the number of teachers needed to staff the school. This implies deciding the caliber of staff needed in terms of qualification. The qualifications and experiences of workers usually determine their salaries and other benefits attached to their status. The Ministry of Education determines the number and quality of staff required, but they are usually assisted by the school managers, who know exactly the numbers on the ground and how many are required to clear the deficit.

b) **Personnel Recruitment or Employment of Staff:**

With regard to employment, the personnel department is

the first point of contact in the school system. It involves an elaborate process that includes drawing on a pool of qualified candidates, interviewing them, and testing them with the hope of selecting the most promising ones among them. They should be selected carefully for their ability, aptitude, and character. Employment procedures involve the completion and submission of an application for a job; an interview is scheduled; candidates are assessed; and finally, successful candidates are assigned to schools.

Recruitment is an important function of personnel management. Recruitment involves scouting several places to seek out suitable candidates. Recruitment is the entry point for all staff of any establishment except for those who are appointed, elected, etc. However, there are certain general requirements and qualifications that are essential for recruitment. These include civil status, age, sex, domicile, educational status, experience, technical skills, personality traits, etc. Employment or procurement of employees is carried out in the stages of recruitment, selection, placement, and induction .

Bankole states that recruitment has to do with those policies, programs, and activities that are connected with attracting applicants who have a high probability of success in their jobs. The success of an organization depends largely on the caliber of personnel employed. The

recruitment of personnel can only be meaningful when the right facilities, equipment, and working environment are in place. However, Omale (1992) believed that the term recruitment is fairly different from what practitioners of personnel management take it to mean. He believed that recruitment starts with getting an applicant interested enough in a job and in a particular organization to write an application, and the process stops when his application has been received by the organization. He goes further to say that recruitment is the salesmanship that organizations do for themselves and the various jobs they have to fill. However, as mentioned above, the principal purpose of recruitment activities is to attract sufficient and suitable potential employees to apply for vacancies in the organization. Recruitment can be internal or external; that is, it is contracted through an agency.

In all of these considerations, recruitment should be simplified through the values of education and research. In the Civil Service, recruitment is tantamount to employment, that is, what it takes to get an applicant interested in a job in the organization, from examining or interviewing him to issuing him a letter of appointment. The misunderstanding of the concept of recruitment in the civil service might be one of the reasons why the recruitment process is not given the attention it deserves. We can conclude that recruitment is the most significant activity in public personnel administration or management. The chief aim of recruitment is to get the right people in the right

positions. No one above 50 years of age may be given a tenure job in the private or public civil service except on contract. Source: (Public Service Rules).

III. Recruitment

a) Principles of Recruitment

Mbieli (2006) points out that the options for making recruitment are centered on three core principles:

1. Impartiality**:** Ensuring fair selection of officials for proper treatment of the general public

2. Equal Opportunity**:** Open competition to enable as many citizens as possible to take part in examinations for recruitment and the services to be provided to the nation.

3. Absolute Neutrality**:** An approach that guarantees all political masters the services of public servants.

b) Methods of Recruitment

The methods for making recruitment start with the following procedures:

1. Examination: There are several types of examinations,

ranging from written and oral tests to aptitude tests, achievement tests, and psychological tests.

2. Election: Public offices are filled by the system of elections.

3. Individual Appointment: The Chief Executive also engages certain levels of public officials through the will of his personal judgment.

4. Group Appointment: Appointment made by the legislative on nomination given by the Chief Executive. Civil servants are also recruited through the group effort of the Public or Civil Service Commission.

c) Recruitment Policies

Cole (1997) states that organizations should adhere to recruitment policies. He came up with the following typical policy statement for recruitment:

1. Aim to ensure that every person invited for an interview will be given a fair and thorough hearing.
2. The need to reply to every job applicant.

3. Aim to inform potential recruits in good faith about the

details and job conditions of every job advertised.

4. Aim to process all applications with efficiency and courtesy.

5. Seek candidates on the basis of their qualifications for the vacancy concerned.

He further stated that organizations should not:

1. Discriminate unfairly against potential applicants on grounds of sex, race, religion, or physical disability.

2. Discriminate unfairly against applicants with a criminal record, and

3. Knowingly make any false or exaggerated claims in its recruitment literature or job.

IV. Selection

a) Meaning of Selection

Selection is the use of screening methods such as interviews, examinations, and psychological texts to obtain the right candidate for the job. Selection is the act of choosing the best hands from the list of applicants to the satisfaction of the screening panel. The selection of applicants for a job is based on their level of education, competency, and

experience on the job. Selection means searching for the proverbial needle in the haystack, and a good selection technique may effectively remove the hay, but it is critical to be able to recognize the needle.

The essence of personnel management is to obtain the right staff and make the staff happy to contribute successfully to the success of the enterprise. The selection process is a calculated personnel step that makes use of available resources to choose the right person for the right job. The processes include the establishment of a management panel or committee for employment, the invitation of candidates, verification of credentials, interviews and texts, and final engagement. We can deduce that the selection process ensures that the right person for the right job is picked in order to enable the prospective employee to contribute successfully to bring happiness to the serving and to the served.

b) Principles of Selection

There are three main options for the selection of personnel:

1. Randomization: This is done unsystematically; employees are selected randomly based on certain criteria, such as additional qualification, discipline, experience, marital status, quota system, age, etc.

2. Hypothesis Formation: This is done by hypothesis testing;



employees are selected based on the demonstrated relationship between the applicants' characteristics and measures of performance on the job.

3. Based on an assumed or hypothesized relationship, the application of psychology to personnel selection is well established and is the hallmark of traditional industrial psychology. Bankole.

c) Methods of Making Selection

Bankole (2000) states the following criteria as methods for making selection:

1. Select an appropriate area of the job or position that is cost-saving.

2. Select subjects for the experiment. Subjects should exclude those used to derive criteria or who had previous knowledge of the texts, sensory or motor defects, or literacy problems.

3. Subject result to statistical analysis

4. Do a job analysis to discover characteristics leading to

success or failure.

5. Develop a list of abilities required for success and recommend procedures for evaluating entries in the list.

6. Administer the tools under carefully controlled conditions, etc.

Things to be considered during the interview:

At the selection interview, the constituted panel has many aspects to consider. These include mental stability, physical fitness, professional qualifications, wages, and salaries.

(a) **Mental Stability:** The candidate has to possess a stable mind.

(b) **Physical Fitness:** It is important to ascertain that the candidate is in a social-physical condition and must therefore be subjected to a rigorous medical test.

(c). **Professional Qualifications:** The information in the candidate's application form is used to ascertain his or her experience and professional training.

(d) **Wages and Salaries:** The criteria for placement on the salary grade level should be clearly stated. The salary structure enables the worker to know what he is being paid for the job now and what salary he is likely to receive in successive years.

However, from the foregoing, one can categorically say that the selection process starts with the person's specification, competencies, attractiveness and response, screening and interview, and lastly, testing and exercising.

V. Placement

a) Meaning of Placement

Placement means putting the right person in the right job structure. Placement of applicants comes after recruitment and selection have been concluded. It is the process of matching the applicant with the job they applied for. Placement is to ensure the effectiveness and efficiency of applicants in meeting the standards and set objectives of the organization. Bankole. The principles, procedures, methods, or processes of making placement are the same as those of selection. Induction programs come immediately after the procurement of new staff (recruitment, selection, and placement). Induction courses or programs, as the case may be, are for familiarization. This is where new employees are familiarizing themselves with the work environment, the job, the machines, and the serving employees.

VI. Training and Research in Personnel Management

Training is the development of a person's knowledge, skills, and attitude for a vocational purpose. Training of personnel comes up immediately after the recruitment, selection, and placement exercises have been conducted. Organizations work with human resources, which are commonly referred to as staff or simply personnel. In order to have high-quality and competent staff, it is necessary to put them through training and development programs.

Training and research, on the other hand, mean the act and process of understudying and perfecting things, skills, and attitudes. Training and research centers are where the right skills, knowledge, and attitudes are acquired. The Administrative Staff College of Nigeria (ASCON) is one of the research institutes that offers training and consultative services to its clients.

Training and development programs are designed to enhance the capabilities of employees. Training and development programs help to prevent manpower obsolescence. Training and developmental programs are required at all levels of government and in the private sector. The 1988 Civil Service Reform placed emphasis on training and re-training. The reform suggests that each ministry should have a departmental training officer (DTO) and intermediate staff (01–12), while

the Office of Establishment, Pension, and Training trains officers on levels 13–17. Training is the process whereby the skills, talent, and knowledge of an employee are enhanced and increased. Developments are programs designed for higher-level personnel to acquaint them with wider views. Development is general for all levels of personnel. However, training programs, whether induction, seminar workshops, courses, or conferences, should be the priority of all organizations.

A manager, as the head and specialist of a department or section, has the responsibility for certain work and, as a result, needs to undergo further training programs with some of his key subordinates to enhance the effectiveness and efficiency of personnel. The more training programs there are for personnel, the greater their output and also their responsibilities, effectiveness, and efficiency.

Training is required to ensure that employees possess the knowledge and skills to perform satisfactorily in their jobs or to advance in the organization. Performance appraisals can identify key employee skills and 'competence.' Teacher preparation or training does not end with pre-service training. It is a continuous process. The teacher must grow not only in age and experience but also in professional knowledge. Educational planners, as viewed by Ekpo (1995), envisaged that no matter the efficiency of the pre-service training for teachers, there would necessarily be areas of inadequacy. Training and re-training of workers

can serve as a deliberate and systematic means of changing positively the behavior and attitudes of the trainees towards the achievement of organizational goals. Occasional in-service training programs through workshops, seminars, retreats, and organized sandwich and distance learning programs should be encouraged. The government and authorities of various educational institutions should be able to sponsor teachers who have served upwards of five years to attend a variety of in-service programs, since according to Ndu this will improve performance as the teacher develops a more positive attitude towards his job. The National Policy on Education among other advantages of a distance learning program, sees it as a long-term learning experience for those who graduate from school and desire to update their knowledge and skills in disciplines or courses of their choice for their continuing professional and entrepreneurial development. Aderounmu & Ehiametalor summarized the purpose of staff development in a school system as follows:

i) Correct deficiencies in training.
ii) Help experienced teachers develop further teaching skills.
iii) Make staff members keep abreast of current trends in their areas of specialization.
iv) Upgrade their skills to meet the requirements of an administrative position.

VII. Staff Orientation

The term 'orientation' or 'induction' of teachers means the

introduction of the new entrants to the teaching profession with a view to providing them with information about the school system, its objectives, and its goals. Induction should apply to both newly appointed teachers and reassigned teachers or administrators. An instance is when a teacher is transferred from one school in one locality to another school in another locality.

At the point of appointment, it is important to make the newly recruited aware of the fringe benefits attached to their work or productivity and the procedures for applying for these benefits. These include hospitality, sick leave, maternity leave, annual leave bonus, retirement gratuity, rent allowance, transportation allowance, and insurance against hazards at work. Induction or orientation does not only promote employees' favorable attitudes towards the organization; it also imbues them with a sense of belonging.

VIII. Staff Promotion

This is a form of motivation given to encourage employees who have performed well. Promotion in the private sector is on merit and given to desiring employees who have contributed to the profit objectives of the employer. On the contrary, promotion in the public sector is usually based on seniority, the quota system, federal character, ethnicity, etc.

Occupational advancement is one of the major expectations of workers over a period of time. Some staff may feel cheated once they are not promoted for a certain period of time. The expectancy model of work motivation should be applied for staff promotion. This model of work motivation postulates that the effort one puts into work depends on the value one places on the expected reward and the likelihood that the reward will actually be received if the effort is made. The implication, according to Eneasat, is that if a worker feels that he can satisfy his needs without putting in any effort, he will not make any effort. If he discovers that the satisfaction of his needs is dependent on the exertion of a given amount of effort, he will put in the required effort. Qualification, hard work, and a time limit are the ingredients for promotion.

IX. Staff Retention, Transfers, and Termination of Service

Retention is the administration and monitoring of workplace safety, health, and welfare policies to retain a competent workforce and comply with statutory standards and regulations. Important to note is that the ability to keep staff in their jobs and make them want to stay, according to Musaazi (1982), depends on the management ability to encourage workers and persuade them based on the following guidelines: establishing a clear policy on the principles of fair play, a clear channel of communication, participation in decision-making, and welcoming and encouraging new ideas and initiatives.

This defers the posting of staff. The term posting is mainly associated with newly recruited staff in an organization, while transfer is the process of moving exiting staff from one office, department, or state to another. Transfer of staff may be on individual request or on organizational initiative. However, the frequency of transfers in the public service is higher than in the private sector. Transfers, on the other hand, occur in response to the need to supply the right kind of staff. Transfer creates certain roles that specify certain behavioral expectations, but such transfers must be in accordance with the individual's personality trait. As the personnel department is the first point of contact with the school system, it is the last point of contact. There will be a case for termination of an appointment if a staff member is found to be disloyal to his employers or to neglect his responsibilities.

A teacher's appointment can be terminated for the following reasons:

i) Immoral behavior
ii) Commission of felony
iii) Drunkenness
iv) Repeated failure to comply with official directives
v) Physical or mental incapacity
vi) Continual neglect of duties

X. Discipline

A higher level of discipline is felt in the private sector than in the public sector. In the private sector, an incompetent worker can be dismissed from office in a relatively short period of time, but in the public

sector, the boss has to go through a series of disciplinary procedures. The notion that government jobs are second jobs has created a lot of laxity and indiscipline in the public sector. Hence, laziness, lateness to work, violations of rules, and other unethical behavior permeate the civil service .

XI. Compensation, Wages, and Salary Administration

Wages are the earnings for the performance of services in a given period of time, daily or weekly, while salary refers to compensation on a weekly, monthly, and annual basis. Pay levels and policies in the public sector are determined by a number of factors. The government's ability to pay is a function of the amount of revenue obtained from oil, customs duties, and taxes. However, there is a limit to the extent of tax increases the government can impose. Another distinguished feature of wage and salary administration is the uniformity of salaries. The Wages and Salaries Commission determines the amount to be paid at all levels. A fresh graduate employed in the civil service will receive the same salary anywhere in the country. Unlike the public sector, the differentials in wages in the private sector are influenced by many factors, such as profitability level, risk, formation, and the kinds of services rendered by the organization.

XII. Staff Evaluation/Performance Appraisal

Staff performance appraisal, as a function of personnel management, is the systematic evaluation of employees work

performance and potential with the organization. The factors to be evaluated include job knowledge, volume and quality of work performed, appearance and time of completion, etc. Performance appraisal is an accepted personnel function. The mechanisms to be adopted to assess staff performance appraisals center on varying reasons; these include:

1. Determining the individual worker's performance level.
2. Helping management make decisions pertaining to promotions and pay raises.
3. Identifying training and development needs.
4. Helping employees improve their performance, etc.

There are different methods of assessing staff performance appraisals. Among these are graphic rating scales (GRS), ranking methods (RM), and behaviorally anchored rating scales (BARS). However, the greatest criticism of the staff performance appraisal system is that it ignores one of its major purposes: the improvement of individual performances. Even with the change to the open system, there are still objectives for appraising employees in the public sector.

The purpose of evaluation in an organization is to help determine the degree to which goals are being accomplished and what improvements can be made. The process of evaluation involves:

1. Determining the desired level of competence.
2. Determining the level of competence of evaluation
3. Relating the competence of the subject of evaluation to the desired level of competence.

Evaluation should be a continuous process and should be assessed by the chief executives of the organization or their delegates. It should be aimed at improving the effectiveness of the staff rather than as a means of punishing them. Evaluation, if properly maintained, greatly assists in the promotion of staff since it uncovers the particular talents of individuals and helps in discovering areas of weakness that need improvement.

XIII. Communication

Communication is the medium for transferring information. It is the process by which people exchange information. It is the exchange of ideas, facts, and emotions by two or more people through the use of words, letters, and symbols. Bernard states that the need for communication to occupy a central place in organizations is determined by communication techniques. Communication can be regarded as the foundation upon which an organization is built. Communication can be in oral or written form. The media of communication are memos, letters, formal reports, news bulletins, radio, television, newspapers, etc. In the public sector, since federal civil servants are scattered all over the

country, government gazettes, radio, television, and newspapers are relied upon as channels of communication. This also applies to state and local government employees.

XIV. Special Duties of Personnel Management

There are certain special duties performed by the personnel departments that are unique to the organization outside the essentials and functions of the personnel department. However, for the purpose of the personnel department or personnel management, two special duties were performed:

i) advising and assisting the managing director on personnel policy formation and the development of training schemes for supervisory staff.

ii) Representing the company in all negotiations with trade unions and trade associations and maintaining interests in new ideas in personnel management.

iii) Ensuring adequate safety precautions and welfare services, including canteens, health services, etc.

XV. Essential Duties of Personnel Management

The duties of personnel management are the same in all

organizations or establishments. But certain duties are considered essential to personnel management; these are:

1. Advising Duties: Personnel Managers' advice to management on the formulation of personnel policy as well as the procedures for execution.

2. Policy adherence: Personnel managers ensure that organizational policies are strictly adhered to by employees.

3. Staff welfare: Personnel managers ensure that the welfare and health of staff are of paramount interest to the organization.
4. Effective implementation: Personnel managers ensure that there is effective implementation and supervision of organizational policies in all sections of the establishment.

5. Man-Planning Planning: Personnel managers ensure that staffing, recruitment, selection, placement, training, and retraining are carried out at the appropriate time.

6. Human Relations: Personnel managers ensure that good human relations are maintained in the organization. and.

7. Employee Relations: Personnel managers ensure that organizations and employees adhere to labor laws, unions, etc.

XVI. Essential Qualities of Personnel Management

The person anchoring the personnel management department must be well grounded in the acquisition of basic knowledge of certain disciplines such as physiology, industrial sociology, labor economics, political science, public administration, and cultural anthropology, as well as the living conditions of staff, and also in understanding human behavior, with more emphasis on the social physiological problems of human nature and being friendly, firm, patient, and impartial toward employers. Managers of these departments at the various levels should have vast knowledge about effective leadership skills and ensure that personnel policies are adhered to and department activities are successfully carried out. Every manager and supervisor should be aware of the principles of personnel management and maintain a close link. Personnel managers have to advise managing directors on the formulation of personnel policies and ensure that the procedures to carry them out are effective.

XVII. Limitations of Personnel Management

The Personnel Department does all of the duties and functions

mentioned in an organization but has one core reservation or limitation, which the Management Board has to do in an organization. This limitation is that he has no right to engage or dismiss staff or determine rates to pay without referring to relevant senior executives or the managing director.

XVIII. Relationship Between Personnel Management and Public Administration

There is some close relationship between personnel management and public administration in the areas of function performed, professional roles, and social science.

a) Functional Role

Personnel management and public administration have some close relationships. In some organizations, personnel management is a sub-component of administration. Overlapping areas of both are employment, welfare of employees, health and safety, industrial relations, wages and salaries, training, and development of personnel. As earlier mentioned, the core functions of administration are planning, organizing, staffing, coordinating, reporting, controlling, and budgeting (POSDCORB), but without public administration, the actual implementation of government functions will come to a halt. The public service provides the necessary machinery for effecting government activities, actions, and decisions.

b) Professional Role

The success of an organization depends primarily on the type and caliber of personnel employed. Organizations that are inadequately staffed at the management level can hardly achieve success or hope to succeed. Personnel managers or administrators are trained professionals in the field who have undergone specific training and have acquired the requisite qualifications and experience. Professionally, they are specialists who engage in the protection of employees and employers' interests. The professionalization of the personnel management function became necessary because of changes in technology, products, and internal organization, which require utilizing a lot of highly skilled personnel. The Personnel Management Department of the Civil Service or other organizational setup advises and assists administrators on personnel policy formulation and implementation. This department also interprets the policies and intentions of the government. They possess a reasonable degree of intellect and integrity (Bankole, 2000).

c) Social Science Role

Personnel management and public administration as academic disciplines got their foundation from social science. Major contributors to personnel management and public administration include sociology, political science, physiology, labor economics, and public administration. Management experts have accomplished some feats in personnel management practices in industry and governmental organizations.

d) As a Science

Personnel management and public administration can be considered scientific disciplines because they can be subjected to scientific procedures. It is seen as the laboratory for the interaction of human and physical factors together in reaching goals. They are scientific due to: (i) the existence of agreed principles (the concept of POSDCORB). (ii) common definitions of administration and management (iii) Experimental ability in the form of policies and laws, which are tentative intentions to regulate human affairs.

e) As an Art

Personnel management and public administration can be considered art in the sense that knowledge is acquired through practice and learning by doing. Knowledge is practical in nature; irregular human behavior cannot be subjected to laboratory experimentation. Human beings are affected by various factors, both rational and irrational. They are art because there are no universally agreed principles to their concepts. Different laws and policies are practiced in different parts of the world in relation to their environment. Public administration has no common definition. It involves a broad perspectives and concepts. Human beings are not treated uniformly; different people are treated differently for reasons of favoritism, corruption, nepotism, etc. Furthermore, human behavior is subject to irrational acts. No one can determine or predict what is in the mind of another person.

XIX. Performance Assessment in Public Service

a) The Meaning of Performance Appraisal

One of the key responsibilities of the personnel manager is to evaluate the performance of his subordinates. "The essence of evaluation is to assess the employee's character, attitude, potential, and past performance on the job." Employee evaluation has often been called performance appraisal, performance rating, or performance evaluation. Whatever name it is called, the essence of rating is to evaluate the employee's strengths and weaknesses. Ezeali B.O. defines performance appraisal as "an organizational strategy adopted to determine an employee's suitability for motivation, promotion, continuity, and further responsibilities in a work environment. When people work in an organization, it is expected that there should be a way of measuring or evaluating their jobs in order to know whether they are actually performing the job for which they were hired and paid for.

Performance appraisal may be defined as the process of arriving at judgments about an individual's past or present performance against the background of his or her work environment and about his or her future potential for an organization . According to Hellriegel and Slocum , performance appraisal is the process of systematically evaluating each employee's job-related strengths, development needs, progress towards meeting goals, and determining ways to improve the employee's job performance. Obikezee and Obi see performance appraisal as the formal assessment of staff in order to determine their

performance level. It is an accepted personnel function that some mechanism has to be adopted to assess workers from time to time in order to ascertain how well they are doing in their jobs. The appraisal process is an activity designed to assist personnel in achieving individual as well as organizational benefits.

b) Objectives of Performance Appraisal

Performance evaluation is not an end in itself; it is a means to an end. The end is to help the employee know his weaknesses and strengths and to help the employer make some basic decisions on how to distribute organizational favors. Performance appraisal helps to:

1. Determine and reward good performance. ii. Identify employee training and development needs.
2. Make it easier for employers to make decisions involving promotion, transfer, pay rise, and termination. iv. Determine what type of employee can be successful with the organization.
3. Above all, the main objective of performance appraisal is not punitive but for corrective actions. Many authors have outlined the objectives of appraisals, which include:
4. To determine personnel's employment status
5. To implement personnel actions
6. To improve individuals' performance
7. To achieve organizational goals and
8. To translate the authority system into controls that regulate performance.

Oko listed the following objectives of appraisal:

1. **Worker performance:** Appraisal helps to create and maintain a reasonable level of employee job performance. Thus, it helps to identify an individual's current level of job performance.

2. **Employee development:** Appraisals help to indicate training needs for development, i.e., areas in close proximity. It thus facilitates mutual understanding between the supervisor and his subordinates. c. Guide to Change of Job: Appraisal helps with decision-making, promotion, transfers, layoffs, and discharges. Thus, it helps to determine the future use of an employee, e.g., whether he should remain in his present job, be transferred, or even be dismissed.

3. **Wage and Salary Increase:** Annual increments are a regular feature of the pay system. Appraisals help managers determine what level of increase in pay will be given to employees on the basis of merit. e. To validate the personnel selection process, the rating and predictions made about a particular candidate during the selection process can be correlated with the appraisal rating after a year or two to determine the accuracy of the personnel selection technique.

4. **Serves as Motivation:** An encouraging appraisal helps to motivate an employee to do better in his present job through knowledge of research, recognition of his merits, and the opportunity to discuss his work with his manager.

Obikeze and Obi listed four reasons, namely:

1. It is an easy way of determining the individual worker's performance level.
2. It helps management make decisions pertaining to promotions and pay raises.
3. It helps to identify training and development needs.
4. It helps employees improve their performance.

Invancevich et al. listed five objectives. There are as follows:

1. To make decisions involving promotion, transfer, pay rise, and termination easier.
2. To help establish training and development programs and evaluate their success.
3. To provide feedback to employees that points to strengths and weaknesses.
4. To predict whether recruitment and selection activities lead to attracting, screening, and hiring the best human resources.
5. To help determine what type of individual can be successful with the organization. In summary, performance appraisal systems have multiple uses. Properly designed, they

produce benefits for the individual, the work group, and the total system.

c) Ethics of Appraisal

Every appraisal system needs a set of values to guide the conduct of appraisers who make judgments about the appraisers whom they supervise and whose judgments may affect their positive or negative short- and long-term interests and destinies. Employees or individuals who are apprised should be assured of the following:

1. Preparation: Appraisers are properly prepared to engage in the appraisal process.

2. **Confidentiality:** Appraisers exercise confidentiality in the control and use of information.

3. **Objectivity:** Appraisees utilize objective means to secure accurate, relevant, representative, and complete information about the appraisee's performance.

4. **Report:** Appraisers record and report a reliable picture of the appraisee's performance.

5. **Feedback:** Appraisees provide feedback so that appraisers know the current status of their performance and the measures involved in its improvement.

6. **Access:** Appraisees have access to appraisal judgments.

7. **Participation:** Appraisers are able to engage in dialogue with appraisers about their performance evaluations.

8. **Constraint:** Appraisers restrict judgment to the general and specific responsibilities of the appraisee's position.

9. **Due process:** Appraisees have access to due process procedures.

10. **Security:** Appraisers have position security based on effective performance.

11. **Appeals:** Appraisers have a line of appeal regarding negative judgments of their performance.

12. **Equity:** Appraisers will be treated equitably in appraisal judgments relating to compensation, promotion, transfer, demotion, furlough, and dismissal.

d) Methods of Performance Appraisal

1. The Graphic Rating Method:

This is one of the most popular rating methods. This technique measures two major areas of employee work characteristics.

I. The basic work characteristics such as knowledge, initiative, loyalty, dependability, leadership, etc.

ii. The employee's contribution to the organization, such as quality and volume of work done.

2. The Ranking Method:

It is the oldest and most common appraisal method in use.

The supervisor ranks his subordinates from the most productive to the least productive. The problem with this method is that it is usually difficult to use in a large organization.

3. **Forced Choice Method:**
The rater is forced to select a pair of sentences that best describe the employee. The purpose of this technique is to minimize bias, as his lack of knowledge of inconsistency is easy to detect from his choices of words.

4. **Paired Comparison Method:**
This closely resembles the ranking method. Two employees are compared at a time, and the best one is noted; then those that are noted are paired again. This is not a popular method because there are usually many traits to be evaluated:

i. **Critical Incident:** In this method, the rater is expected to show incidents or cite examples of work situations in which the employee being evaluated has shown positive or negative influences. Factors such as initiative, judgment, creativity, etc. are to be shown.

ii. **Field Review Techniques:** Due to the cost involved, this technique is sparingly used. This method allows outside specialists to evaluate the employee. One of the setbacks

is that the outside specialist does not know the employee, nor does he have the necessary information for an objective evaluation.

5. Peer Rating Method:

In this method, the employee's co-workers evaluate his performance. Peer rating does not differ much from an objective supervisor's rating.

e) Personal Characteristics of the Appraisee

There is a litany of personal characteristics that are evaluated during an appraisal exercise. Some of the major characteristics include: loyalty, industriousness, persistence, resourcefulness, tactfulness, attitude, leadership, personality, dependability, adaptability, cooperativeness, initiative, aggressiveness, punctuality, creativity, enthusiasm, skill, competency, interpersonal relationships, appearance, judgment, knowledge of work, and emotional ability.

XX. Problems with Performance Rating

Performance rating, as a human endeavor, is frequently subjected to many human errors, although some methods are more prone to errors than others. Some of the key errors or pitfalls in performance ratings are outlined below:

1. Strictness or Leniency: This error is common and often done intentionally. This is a situation when a rater evaluates or appraises all employees in a group, either

lower or higher than they deserve. The harsh rater tends to rate subordinates low, while the lenient rater rates them high. The error can be minimized by proper training of managers on appraisal techniques. If not properly checked, it is capable of setting two departments at loggerheads, i.e., a department with a high rater and a department with a low rater manager.

2. Central Tendency: The appraiser or rater allows one outstanding negative or positive incident or trait to influence his rating of the employee, such as a very productive orker who may be a habitual latecomer. If he rates him low on punctuality, he equally rates him low on other qualities. For an aggressive staff member who is very honest and loyal, if he is rated highly on honesty, he is equally highly rated in other dimensions. It is natural that ratings should vary from one dimension to the next, since most people perform better in certain dimensions.

3. Regency or Recent Behavior: This is the tendency to rate one positively or negatively because of the latest event that took place before the rating. It is much easier to recall an employee's recent performance than his previous performance.

4. Subjective Evaluation: This is rating the man and not his

performance, based on the rater's likes and dislikes, whether he gets along with the subordinate or not, or whether he likes his tribe, religion, or language.

5. Pressure of Time: This is associated with a lack of time, which induces management to rush the appraisal.

6. Not Sharing the Result: This is a situation where the appraiser refuses to discuss the rating with the subordinate.

REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Adetula, G. O. . Reading Manual on Personnel Management and Labour Relations. Adekunle Ajasin University, Akoko-Akungba, Ondo State.

Flippo, Edwin. B. (1984). Personnel Management (Sixth Edition). McGraw Hill Book Company, New York.

Easton, David (1965). A System Analysis of Political Life. New York: Wiley.

Taylor, F. W. (1917). Introduction to the Study of Public Administration. New York: Macmillan.

Towel, Schoen, & Hilgant (2009). Office Personnel Management. McGraw Hill Book Company, New York.

Obiajule Sunday & Obi Emeka Anthony (2004). Public Administration in

Nigeria: A Developmental Approach. BookPoint Limited.

Mayol, Elton (1927). Public Control and Administration. New York.

Patrick, Mbieli (2004). Public Administration: A Broad View. Megavons (West Africa) Limited.

Remi Anifowose and Francis Enemuo (1999). Elements of Politics. Malthouse Press Limited.

Simon, A. Herbert (1946). Approaches to Public Administration. Book of the Half Century, 4th Edition.

Victor Abia, B. E. (1998). A Groundwork of Public Administration. Olucity Printers Limited.

Woodrow, W. (1887). The Study of Public Administration. Published in the Political Science Quarterly.

Paul Mali (1997). Management Handbook, First Edition.

Chapter Fifteen

SUPERVISION AND INSPECTION

Introduction

Supervision and inspection have been identified as very germane to the day-to-day activities of educational institutions. The supervisor assesses and records the performance of teachers, their ability and consistency in carrying out classroom activities, and the keeping of high-quality records. The activities of supervisors include the following: inspecting, monitoring, rating, assisting, recommending, etc. All these activities, if carried out by professional supervisors, are aimed at improving instructional delivery and the quality of teaching in educational institutions. However, not all the supervisors appointed by ministries of education (federal and state levels) are trained; this accounts for the reason why the quality of work of supervisors is very low.

I. Evolution of Supervision in Nigeria

The introduction of Western education in Nigeria could be traced back to 1842, when the missionaries established the first primary school in Badagry. At this time, the missionaries were responsible for

supervising their own schools through the administrative supervision approach prevalent at that time. During this period, the catechist was also used as a teacher by the missionaries, while the layman in the church was used as a supervisor or inspector of education. However, in 1882, the government started to demonstrate commitment to the standard of education by appointing Red Metcalf Sunter as Her Majesty's Inspector of Schools in West Africa. In 1889, Henry Carr was appointed as the local inspector of schools for Lagos colony. This further showed the commitment of the government to the improvement of the standard of education in Nigeria.

During the first quarter of the twentieth century, the inspectorate service got another boost with the appointment of a Director of Education and three (3) Zonal Inspectors of Schools in order to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of school inspection. This development was influenced by the prevailing scientific management approach to supervision. The regionalization of education by the McPherson Constitution of 1954 gave birth to the establishment of the Western Region Inspectorate Service. This inspectorate was able to make considerable improvements to the educational standards of the Western Region. In 1973, the federal government, through the federal ministry of education, established the federal inspectorate division within the ministry to supervise the quality of instructional delivery in schools.

Since 1975, when the government took over the provision of education in Nigeria, the same government has also been responsible for the supervisory function. The practice makes the government a judge in its own case. The supervisors at this time, being government agents, were not taken seriously because most of them were not professionally trained. Gradually, supervision of instruction became very weak, more ineffective, and generally degenerated to its present state.

II. The Meaning of Supervision and Inspection.

In the first instance, supervision is a concept that emanates from the American tradition, while the concept of inspection emanates from the British tradition. Not only that, supervision was a hand of assistance given to a professional colleague in the process of instructional delivery, while inspection activities focused on school administration and finding faults as well as what was wrongly done by the teachers in order to punish them.

Inspection can be defined as a process involving regular school visits to check that everything in the school is satisfactory and that the school rules and regulations are obeyed by the school head, teachers, and students, while supervision can be said to be a process facilitated by a supervisor, through which the supervisor assists the school head, teachers, and students, counsels each other, plans with each other, and rubs minds together on how to improve teaching and learning in the

school. Supervision can also be said to be an interaction between at least two people for the improvement of an activity. School supervision is the process of bringing about improvement in instruction by working with people who are working with pupils. Supervision in school is a process and coordination of activities that is concerned with the teaching and improvement of the teaching in the school. Supervision and inspection are two different concepts that have been used at various times in the management of the education industry to mean the same thing. But to some people, they still mean different things. The school head, teachers, students, and parents view it from an angle at which each relates to the supervision. To the school head, supervision may be an inquiry or fault-finding exercise; to a teacher, it may mean a challenge to his personality. Mbiti defined supervision as one of the basic requirements of administration that concerns itself with the tactics of efficiency and effective management of human and material resources. It is a way to advise, guide, refresh, encourage, stimulate, improve, and oversee teachers with the hope of seeking their cooperation in order that they may be successful in the task of teaching and classroom management. According to Ghiselli , supervision involves directing the work of others, organizing, and integrating activities in order to ensure that the goals of the group are achieved. However, Okoro defines inspection as an instrument with which the government, through the ministry of education, maintains the necessary content with the schools, teachers, pupils, and the community and so ensures that the system is working

satisfactorily. In this sense, inspection is to be viewed as fulfilling a coordinating, controlling, and communicating role as a guardian of educational standards. It seems evident from both concepts that effective teaching and learning can be developed within schools and that such development is essentially derived from the control of the nexus of connections among staff, pupils, parents, and other stakeholders within the school community with a view to developing a positive teaching and learning environment.

From all the above, supervision does not mean inspection, because supervision is not a fault-finding exercise or inquisition; it means guidance, assistance, support, and the sharing of ideas by all those involved. It is a help provided by professional supervisors to the teachers and learners to realize their full potential in school.

In modern times, we talk more about instructional supervision or supervision of instruction in our educational institutions. This concept of instructional supervision is focused on how to improve learning. The objective of supervision of instruction is to improve the overall teaching process and ensure that effective educational services are rendered by the teachers to the students. The supervision of instruction is carried out by those designated to do so. They are known by different names within and outside the school system; some are referred to as supervisors, some are called superintendents, principals, vice principals, heads of

departments, deans, provosts, rectors, vice chancellors, etc.

The supervision of instruction takes place in an educational institution, which is a social system with a number of interacting sub-systems. These sub-systems are the teaching sub-system, the school management sub-system, the counseling and co-curriculum sub-systems, etc. It can also be said that supervision of instruction is a professional, continuous, and cooperative exercise that covers all aspects of the life of a school. It covers all the sub-systems of the school and influences them. The main purpose of influencing all the sub-systems in the school is to ensure improvement in the teaching-learning situation and also to ensure quality teaching and learning in the school. Ofoegbu defined instructional supervision as a process of ascertaining that teachers carry out the task of teaching to an expected level according to the stipulated guidelines, which control the educational system. It is a way of persuading teachers to desist from the application of the wrong teaching methods and procedures in instructional delivery. Supervision of instruction is a concept that emphasizes the improvement of instructional delivery methods.

III. Purpose of Supervision of Instruction

The purpose of supervision of instruction is to ensure that the right instruction is passed to the students with the right method by the right people at the right time. This will influence the attainment of major

instructional and educational goals. Other reasons for carrying out supervision of instruction in schools are as follows:

(i) assess and establish the performance of the teachers in the school,
(ii) provide specific assistance to teachers with deficient teaching methods,
(iii) discover teachers with special teaching skills and qualities in schools,
(iv) ascertain and assess teachers classroom management skills,
(v) provide level playing ground for teacher growth and development,
(vi) provide both knowledge and encouragement to young and inexperienced teachers,
(vii) provide teachers with professional magazines, journals, or references that would enlighten, motivate, and encourage them to be familiar with changes in the instructional delivery methodologies,
(viii) ensure the conformity of the dissenting teachers to the appropriate instructional delivery methods through directional leadership.
(ix) organize an induction program for new teachers on the various teaching methods available and make available other staff development programs that should serve as incentives to improve incompetent teachers, and

(x) Assess the overall climate of the instruction available in the school and identify some of its most urgent needs.

IV. Techniques of supervision

There are various techniques for supervision. Before any strategy can be applied by the supervisor, the supervisor must respect the worth and dignity of the supervisee. Modern supervision is cooperative and focused on the aims and objectives of education, instructional materials, methods of teaching, staff and students, and the entire school environment. It involves all those who are involved and engaged in the task of solving the problems in the school and providing instruction. The following are the techniques of supervision:

(i) Classroom Visitation and Observation Technique:

This is a live, systematic observation of a teacher at work. The supervisor visits the classroom in an actual situation and observes how the teacher teaches, manages, and controls the students in the classroom. The supervisor that adopts this technique focuses on the planning and preparation of the lesson, the presentation of the lesson (teacher's voice, speech, and habit clarity, appropriateness of language), the teacher-student relationship, student participation in the lesson, the appropriateness of the instructional aids and methods, classroom management, the teacher's personality, and their knowledge of the subject content. This technique has been recognized as a good

technique for supervision because it gives the supervisor the opportunity to see the teacher in action.

(ii) Inter-School/Teacher Visitation Technique

This technique involves teachers in a particular school visiting teachers in another school and observing them while teaching. Inter-school/teacher visitation can either be inter-class visitation or inter-school visitation. It is inter-class visitation when teacher(s) in the same school visit another teacher teaching in another class within the same school, and it is inter-school visitation when teacher(s) in one school visit another teacher in another school teacher in the class. Apart from the fact that this technique enhances interaction among teachers within and outside the school, it also assists the beginning teachers in learning class management. It also helps both experienced and inexperienced teachers plan effectively and make judicious use of available resources. Inter-school visitation involves pre-visitation planning to bring about the desired results.

(iii) Workshop Technique

The use of this technique involves organizing various workshops, seminars, and conferences with the intention of rubbing minds together on current and other issues that could lead to improvements in the teaching and learning conditions in the school. This technique has recently become a very useful tool and method of supervision. It affords

teachers the opportunity to exchange ideas, foster good spirit and relationships among professional colleagues, and acquaint them with the new and special problems that they might be confronted with in the school. A good workshop, seminar, or conference is planned several weeks before commencement, and it may run for several days or weeks depending on the objective(s). A good degree of flexibility is necessary in the planning of a workshop.

(iv) Demonstration Technique

This technique involves the presentation of a pre-arranged series of events in the form of teaching by a master teacher to a group of teachers. This technique is used to enhance individual teachers growth and skills on the job. The viewers should be given enough notice because of the importance of attendance, and they should be adequately involved in the exercise. This technique should be realistic and practicable. Video tapes and guided practice can also be used to enhance the effectiveness of this technique.

(v) Micro-Teaching Technique

This technique is adopted when a teacher is teaching a group smaller than the normal classroom population with time that is equally less than the normal 40 minutes for a period. For example, if a teacher is to teach a group of 5–10 students within 5–10 minutes, this method is best suited. This method allows the supervisors and teachers to identify,

define, d escribe, point out, highlight, and re-try certain teaching skills without the risk of teaching the actual class and also with a period that is less than 40 minutes. The method gives room for immediate feedback because the group involved is very small, and more so, it gives the student-teacher and supervisor the opportunity to watch and listen to his or her mistakes. To effectively use the micro-teaching technique, the following conditions must be met:

(a) There should be a pre-conference meeting between the supervisee and supervisor to agree on terms (what to be taught and how it should be taught).
(b) There should be audio and visual equipment, e.g., tape, video recorder, television, films, etc.
(c) There should be actual teaching to be observed by the supervisor, and
(d) There should be a post-conference meeting between the supervisor and supervisee, and the group should discuss the strengths and weaknesses of the supervisee.

(vi) Audio-visual technique

This technique has become popular in recent times; it involves the use of sound recordings through video tape, computers, and media or film to present ideas to one or more listeners in such a way as to assist in the development of skills. Class activities are recorded and re-played to stimulate class discussion and improve teacher behavior, thereby improving teaching and learning activities.

(vii) Guided Practice Technique

eretomode referred to this technique as the type that is sometimes associated with inter-visitation and observation. The technique stresses actual doing with the needed support rather than mere talking independently. It may indicate the need for skill development, and it may complement a follow-up activity in which the supervisee develops the teaching plan to use in the class with direct assistance and support from the supervisor.

V. The Meaning of a Supervisor

A supervisor can best be described by the nature of the work performed and the services rendered, rather than according to any title. Adams and Dickey opined that a supervisor may be a school head in a small system, the building principal in a large system, a supervisor of a special field, such as physical education, art, or music, the director of instruction in a country or city school system, the country or city school superintendent, or a helping teacher. Wiles and John posited that a supervisor is a person formally designated by the organization to interact with members of the teaching behavior system in order to improve the quality of learning for students. Ogunsaju defined supervisors as officers performing supervisory duties. They are mostly education officers working in the ministry of education and charged with the following responsibilities:

(i) planning of school curricula,

(ii) allocating funds and scholarships to students who demonstrate eligibility through competitive examinations and interviews administered by the ministry.

(iii) supervising teacher education and the provision of textbooks and other instructional materials, and

(iv) occasionally visiting schools to see how effectively their curriculum planning is working. A supervisor could be said to be any professionally trained staff from the ministry of education and within the school system who can offer advice and assistance to the teachers for the purpose of improving learning.

VI. Qualities of a Good Supervisor

A supervisor, in his own capacity, is regarded as an instructional leader. He is expected to perform certain functions and to fulfill the expectations, aspirations, needs, and demands of the society in which he or she operates. For a supervisor to be successful, he or she needs to possess certain qualities that will put him or her above those under his supervision:

(i) He or she must be true to his or her own ideas.

(ii) He or she must be flexible.

(iii) He or she must be loyal.

(iv) He or she must command respect.

(v) He or she must be strong-willed.

(vi) He or she must be consistent.

(vii) He or she must be fair in dealings with other people.

(viii) He or she must be open-minded when making decisions.

(ix) He or she must respect others' opinions.

(x) He or she must be teachable.

(xi) He or she must be sincere, firm, and approachable.

(xii) He or she must be ready to help people solve their problems.

VII. Types and Forms of Inspection

Below are the various forms of inspection that we have:

(i) Full General Inspection

This form of inspection involves a comprehensive assessment of all aspects of life in a school. The inspection will include the subjects taught, the qualifications and adequacy of teachers, as well as the adequacy of various resources compared with the established standards. For a full general inspection to be successful, a large team of inspectors must be put together, and this type of inspection usually lasts

up to four to five days, depending on the number of inspectors that make up the inspection team. Prior to the inspection, the school head should be contacted to provide information on: the list of subjects on the curriculum; staff subject analysis; a copy of the current class time table; an individual teacher's time table showing the teacher's period and class; a staff list with their ranks and qualifications; and a copy of the school daily routine. The information supplied based on the request above will enable the inspectorate division to choose the right inspectors to form the team. The team should have a team leader who should not be lower in rank than the school head of the school to be inspected and a reporting inspector who would produce the final inspection report.

(ii) Routine Inspection

This type of inspection is carried out to determine the adequacy of school facilities. It is a visit organized to familiarize the inspectors with the day-to-day activities and management of the school. The inspectors at the end of the visit report on the staff situation (whether under/overstaff or over/underutilized) with regard to the approved standard or quota, the number of posts, vacancies by subjects (if available), absentees, enrolment and attendance, drop-outs, environmental sanitation, and school records.

(iii) Follow-Up Inspection

This is a type of inspection carried out a year after the full general

inspection has taken place. This is a repeat visit to find out how the suggestions or recommendations made for the school during the full general inspection have been implemented. This type of inspection is regarded as an on-the-spot assessment to see whether the action taken during the full inspection is achieving the desired results.

(iv) Special Inspection

This is the type of inspection that is carried out on a special or specific problem identified by a disciplinary or specific education committee. Cases inspected by inspectors on special investigation visits range from minor cases of student disobedience and the principal or teacher's administrative mismanagement to serious cases like financial mismanagement or misappropriation, rape, student riots, robberies, arson, examination malpractice, immoral sex acts, and so on.

(v) Recognition Inspection

This is a special inspection carried out by inspectors to assess the number of subjects offered in a school as well as the number of human and material resources available in the school for the purpose of accreditation by appropriate bodies or external examination bodies like the West African Examination Council (WAEC) and the National Examination Council (NECO). The inspectors will assess the available lab oratories and other expected infrastructure, textbooks, and the number of teaching and non-teaching staff by grade, sex, qualification, and years

of cognate experience. All these will assist the school in the accreditation of courses in the school or recognition by the external examination bodies.

VIII. Challenges of Supervision of Instruction in Nigeria.

It is pertinent to also discuss the challenges facing supervision of instruction in Nigeria since supervision is a vital tool in enhancing the standard and maintaining quality in Nigerian schools. A lot of problems hinder the supervision of instruction, but we are going to discuss the most fundamental ones.

(i) The Dearth of Qualified and Trained Personnel

Most of the personnel used as supervisors of instruction in most states in Nigeria do not have the pre-requisite teachers' qualifications and experience.

(ii) Inadequate Funds for Supervision of Instruction

Funding has been a major challenge facing not only supervision of instruction but also education in general. The available funds for the inspectorate unit in the Ministry of Education are not sufficient to carry out the enormous task given to them. It is becoming increasingly impossible for the inspectorate units of the education ministries to service and repair vehicles needed for supervision

exercises and even to pay the duty tour allowance (DTA) of supervisors where need be.

(iii) Lack of Relevant Supervisory Competencies

Nigerian supervisors of education are deficient in relevant supervisory skills because there is no pre-professional or pre-practice training for the supervisors. School heads need to be trained in order to acquire the relevant skills for performing supervisory functions.

(iv). Styles of Supervision Adopted by Supervisors

Some supervisors still opt for autocratic, fault-finding styles of inspection. This makes the school head and teachers apprehensive. This set of supervisors always assumes mastery of the subjects and expects the teacher to be subservient to them. They assume that supervisors have the knowledge and regard the teachers as inferior workers who should take instruction from them without questioning; this will always breed disdain and contempt instead of cooperation.

(v). Low Teacher Morale

School supervisors, school heads, and the supervisees do not receive corresponding or much incentive to enable

them to be totally committed to their jobs. The general belief among Nigerians is that the teaching profession is of low esteem. More than half of the teachers on the job are bidding their time to get alternative employment and opt out of teaching because they are dissatisfied with the job. It is difficult for a teacher with the mindset that teaching is a stepping stone to be totally committed to their job, and this could greatly have a negative influence on their teaching, thereby making supervisory work more tedious.

(vi) Inadequate Transport Facilities

Supervisors of education have often complained of their inability to cover most of their areas of operation. This is compounded by the inaccessibility of some areas, e.g., riverine, nomadic, and rural areas where schools are located. The problem of transportation cannot be separated from the poor funding of the inspectorate unit in the ministry of education and the state of all Nigerian roads.

(vii) Preoccupation of the School Head with Administrative Duties

School heads are sometimes occupied with administrative duties to the extent that they have no time for academic

leadership. They are more occupied with obtaining information from the ministry of education, attending parent-teacher association meetings, and maintaining community school relationships at the detriment of supervision of instruction, which is one of their primary duties. School heads prefer to travel most of the time because of the self-gain of traveling. This situation makes them toe the grip of the situation in their schools.

(viii) Attitude of Ministry of Education Officials

During the colonial and postcolonial eras, funding of schools was based on the reports submitted by the supervisors of education about the development of the schools. Funding schools in contemporary times does not depend on school performance in examinations. The supervisor's report is now worthless at the ministry because the reports have not been taken seriously by the ministry of education officials in the recent past as they were in the colonial period.

(ix) Policy Instability

This has to do with frequent changes in educational policy without adequate knowledge of the supervisors, which often leads to confusion or uncertainty. The supervisors

are not carried along when policies affecting education are to be changed or amended. For example, change of school calendar, abolition and re-establishment of bodies like NPEC, abolition and re-introduction of private universities, etc. In addition to all the problems discussed above, there are so many other problems facing instructional supervision in schools. They are almost inaccessible in areas that include the location of the schools, inadequate data, overutilization of facilities, and religious and political problems. These, in addition, serve as serious constraints on supervision in the Nigerian educational system.

REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Anuna, M. C. (2004). Educational Supervision: The Nigerian Experience. Owerri: International University Press.

George, A., & Urwin, O. F. I. (2004). Supervision and Inspection in the Nigerian Education System. In Organization and Administration of Education: Perspectives and Practices. Benin: Festa.

Chapter Sixteen

SCHOOL RECORDS

Introduction

Record-keeping is vital for the proper functioning of any system, be it private or public. The school system is not an exception. Effective teaching and learning can be achieved if proper school records are kept and these records are effectively utilized. Information is a perishable commodity; hence, human beings have to rely on written documents to store ideas and impressions. One of the major challenges in our school system today is record-keeping. Information has to be documented for future use and reference purposes, hence the need to keep school records. Records are indispensable to a progressive society, whether for government, in schools, or in any other activity.

I. The Meaning of School Records

School records could be explained as a document through which information is transmitted within the school system and between the school and other stakeholders in the education sector. Such documents

may be in the form of letters, reports, pictures, minutes, maps, forms, films, microfiche, and soft copy. School records could be many and varied. They are to be kept by the generality of school staff members, head teachers (head masters and headmistresses at the primary school level and principals at the secondary school level), bursars, heads of departments, coordinators, etc. Mbiti defined school records as the records that comprise all books, files, and other documents containing information relating to what goes on in the school, who is in the school, as well as what types of property the school owns. Eleanor describes school records as documents through which information is transmitted. However, in the opinion of Akinyemi and Sanni school records document accurate information about the history, activities, student list, staff list, past and present events or happenings, among others, of a school.

II. The Meaning of Record-Keeping

A record is a detailed and meticulous account of any phenomenon. It can be set down permanently in writing on a flat plate, film strip, computer flash, hard disk, or any other form that is permanent. A record serves as a memorial or authentic evidence of a fact or event. A record, if well preserved, lasts from one generation to another. Records are collected and stored by different people for different reasons. Record-keeping is the art, habit, or practice of keeping information or facts in such a way or manner that they can be retrieved when needed. The gatekeepers in some schools have visitor's books, which could

include time-in and time-out books. The storekeeper has an inventory of items in and out of the store, i.e., records showing who collects what. What is left, and what needs to be replaced?

The keeping of school records should be seen as an indispensable aspect of effective school management and a way to preserve the tradition of the school, culture, and image. This is because school records are where all the necessary information about the teachers, pupils, and all activities being done in the school is kept. Therefore, record-keeping should not be seen as an undue imposition by the Ministry of Education or any other external agencies. If we believe in the frailty of man, we must also acknowledge the fact that human memory needs to be supplemented with accurate records.

The school, like any other organization, has its own records, which are kept for efficient management. The class teacher has his or her own records, the subject teacher has his or hers, the heads of departments have theirs, the vice principals of academics and administration have theirs, etc. The practice nowadays is to store school records in soft copy or computer memory for easy retrieval and accuracy. This method of keeping records in soft copy or in computer memory is not common in our secondary schools because most of the schools are located in rural areas where they have yet to adopt the computer culture due to a lack of funds and facilities. As a result of these, our emphasis will be more on the

manual storage of school records.

The use of documents in school management has increased as a result of an increase in student enrollment. Parents are all concerned with the education industry nowadays and tend to be more serious about a school, whether public or private, that has its business properly documented. Akinwumi & Jaiyeoba define record-keeping as the processes and systems that an institution or individual staff member puts in place for compiling information.

III. Reasons for Keeping School Records

(1) Record-keeping in a school helps the head teacher give all necessary information about the school, staff, and pupils to any inspector from the Ministry of Education or any other regulatory body.

(2) Record-keeping plays a very crucial role in the lives of the students because, after leaving the school to further his or her studies, the institution of higher learning may request any information about his or her previous school.

(3) It enables parents to know the performance of their children. The parents may ask the school ad manager about the record that shows the performance of their children.

(4) Apart from students' academic performance, it also helps the parents to get adequate information about the children, including how regular and punctual they are in school and their general behaviors.

(5) Record-keeping helps the government, through the ministry of education, get adequate information about the school and

(6) Without relevant records, the development of a scheme of work, lesson notes, and curriculum cannot be easy, as records of past years will be helpful in these processes. There may also be problems and confusion when compiling student results.

Other reasons why school records are kept are:

(7) To ensure strict compliance with the requirements of the education law,

(8) for planning and budgetary purposes,

(9) To save school from unnecessary embarrassment (and legal tussle),

(10) to provide useful information not only for members of the school community but also for members of the public, employers of labor, researchers, and the government.

(11) to aid administrative decision-making and efficiency in the school, and

(12) to enable the teacher to know something about his pupil and, through this, be in a better position to assist him or her academically, morally, and socially, in addition to being able to predict his behavior and provide needed information to whoever may need it. From all the above, it could be concluded that there is no comprehensive record and no efficient management, as records are the livewires of any school management. Every teacher or head teacher should therefore cultivate a good record-keeping culture, because if the records are kept for a long time, it makes the school head or new school head have knowledge about what has happened in the school in the past or before his or her arrival as the school head and also enables him or her to make predictions.

IV. Classification of School Records



There are countless records a school must keep, subject to the level of affluence, tradition, and status of the school. School records are conventionally classified into two broad categories:

A. Statutory Records
B. Non-Statutory Records

A. Statutory Records

These are documents stipulated by the Education Law of the state. They are mandatory records that must be kept by each school. The following statutory records must be kept and maintained by each school and made available for inspection whenever they are demanded:

1. A certificate of registration, letter of approval, or other such document as a law, decree, edict, or gazette published giving legal authority for the establishment of the school,
2. The log book,
3. Admission progress and withdrawal register
4. Class attendance register
5. Class dairies
6. Corporal punishment book
7. School timetable
8. National curriculum
9. Examination syllabus and individual subject teaching

syllabus

10. Scheme of work
11. The education law
12. The National Policy on Education
13. Staff time book
14. Student testimonial and transfer certificate book
15. Stores and inventory records, including all school plant and equipment
16. School prospectus;
17. Site plan, showing evidence of the survey, registration, and extent of the school card
18. School budget
19. School audit file or book
20. Staff records xxi. Continuous assessment book or file
21. Individual students file
22. Visitors book
23. Board of Governors records
24. P.T.A. records
25. School annual report file
26. List of approved textbooks
27. Teachers class/attendance registers
28. Teachers lesson notes
29. Staff minute book
30. Staff movement book

31. Students honor roll, including school projects
32. School inspection file

B. Non-Statutory Records

They are equally important records, but not mandatory. They are kept to assist the school head and/or officers delegated by him in the day-to-day management of the school's affairs. The list of such supportive records is not exhaustive, but salient ones include:

1. Records of physical development
2. School management board/committee records
3. Staff registers show the current staff list, including personal details of each staff member, especially the registration number, qualification with dates, subject specialization, date of employment, deployment, and current salary.
4. Staff and student clubs and societies
5. School sports
6. Mark a book for each class.
7. Record of the work book
8. Staff instruction book/internal circular file
9. Inventory of school library books
10. Daily roster
11. Fees register
12. Account records include the cash book, bank

reconciliation/statement, staff advances, auditor reports, impress book, and record of vouchers.

V. Types of Records Kept in Schools

The area of school record-keeping is one in which bureaucracy is exemplified. Education laws specify that schools keep some documents. Apart from the requirement, school records are a source of information on a variety of sources and interests. It is not possible to discuss in detail the procedure and value of all the statutory and non-statutory records in schools; efforts would be focused on the vital records kept in the school.

i. The Log Book

The book is a document containing comprehensive information about an institution, its establishment, and its equipment. It is a historical record of events that had a significant effect on school activities. It is similar to the black box in an aircraft, which records all activities, discussions, and problems in the aircraft during a flight. In case of an accident or air crash, the black box is the main source of tapping information. It is also similar to personal diaries and motor vehicle log books, where details of movements and repairs are written. Events happening within the immediate environment of the school, capable of influencing school life, should be adequately recorded in the school log book. The types of events that are recorded in the log book include: change of staff, date of vacation and resumption, mid-term examination

dates, visits by important people, special occasions and functions, workshops, sandwiches, seminar courses attended by teachers, reports of inspectors when they visited the school, and so on.

ii. The Admissions Register

This is a book that shows three particulars of the registration of pupils enrolled in a particular school. The book indicates a complete list of all pupils admitted each year with the following details: age, date of enrolment, class into which admitted, previous school, progression in the school, year of withdrawal or leaving, indicating reason(s), and the certificate number. Other information in the admission register is: registration numbers, names in full with surnames written first, sex, date of birth, and address of the parents or guardians. Since we have to respect the cultural and religious sensitivities of the students in our schools, their state of origin and religion affiliation should also be entered in the ad mission register. The admissions register serves as a historical document or reference with detailed records of every child who was admitted into the school in the year it was founded. It is also a reference book for tracing the entry, progress, and exit of any student admitted to the school. From the ad mission register, reliable data may be needed for the planning and management of the educational system at the local, state, and federal levels.

iii. Attendance Register

This is a book in which the presence or absence of pupils in a school is recorded on a daily basis. It is done twice a day (morning and afternoon) to show pupils attendance in school. There is a column in the register that shows whether the child comes to school or is absent from school. The attendance register enables the school authority to keep track of the pupils, so that whatever happens to them during school hours is the major responsibility of the school. The register enables the teacher to observe the behavioral traits of the pupils, e.g., punctuality, lateness, absence, and truancy. Data needed by researchers, educational planners, and officials of the ministry of education can be obtained from the register, and it serves as valid evidence to save the school from a lot of embarrassment in case of a legal tussle.

iv. Staff Record

This is a record that shows the current staff list as well as their personal details, the teacher's registration number, qualifications, subject specialization, date of employment or deployment, and the current salary scale.

v. Record of Work (Diary)

This is a record that shows the teacher's plan of work in each subject area and the actual work covered weekly, and this is recorded at the end of each week. The school head is expected to check and be certain that all entries are correctly made. It helps the new teacher(s) to

know the topics taught and from where to take over.

vi. Staff Meeting Minute Book

This is a record of every formal meeting of the staff under the chairmanship of the school head. In this book, the discussions and decisions of the staff are always recorded, and they are kept with the secretary appointed by the members of staff.

vii. Education Law

It is a document that contains the education law obtained from the Ministry of Education. It contains the objectives and policies of the government on education and educational procedures. This document spells out regulations guiding the management of schools and education in general.

viii. School Timetable

This is a comprehensive outline of the school schedules for the week. Subjects for each day of the week are stipulated in the timetable, and the period for each subject also appears, as is the time for a break. This is usually in the school head teacher's office so that the head teacher or any other supervisor can, at a glance, know what subject is being taught in a class and which teacher is to teach it at that time.

ix. Continuous Assessment Cumulative Record

This is a record of students' performance in various continuous assessment tests carried out during the course, each year or session. These scores are computed cumulatively.

x. Terminal Record Card

This is a record where all the assessments of the students are recorded either weekly, fortnightly, or quarterly, according to the school's policy.

xi Visitor's Book

This is a book that contains information about important visitors to the school. An important visitor is presented with the book during his visit to the school to enter, usually the date and purpose of his visit, some comments on his visit or impression of the school, and suggestions, if any, for improvement. Apart from important visitors or personalities from society, ministry of education officials who come to the school for important assignments like inspections of the school could also fill the visitor's book.

xii. Teachers Lesson Note

This is the most important record kept by the teacher. It is sometimes called a teacher's companion. Every teacher is expected to prepare notes for the entire lesson he or she has to teach in all the classes. This may be on a daily or weekly basis. It is the duty of the head

teacher or his delegates to ensure that such notes are well prepared and in line with the approved scheme of work. If there is any record that must be properly prepared and kept very well, it is the lesson note because it is an indicator of a possible successful class lesson. Familiarity with textbooks and many years of teaching experience cannot be a justifiable reason for not writing a lesson note. A lesson note is the only convincing evidence that the teacher has given adequate thought and consideration to what he or she is teaching. It is therefore imperative that every teacher have his or her lesson notes and make them available for inspection by the school head, delegates, and other appropriate authorities as may be demanded.

xiii. Stock Book

This is a book containing a record of materials and other equipment supplied or bought by the school. The school stock includes materials such as duplicating paper, ink, pads, pencils, pens, and typing sheets, which are constantly being used in the school.

xiv. Time-Book

This is a book where the teacher's attendance is shown, including the arrival and departure times. It is kept to monitor the time of arrival and departure of each teacher. The book should be filled by all members of staff twice daily. The head teacher or appointees should rule off at an agreed-upon time so that anybody signing below the ruled-line is late for that day. The name of the teacher who is absent could also be written

down when the school closes.

xv. Teachers Movement Book

This book documents the daily movements of teachers, allowing school management to follow their activities throughout the workday. Typically, the book is stored in the principal's office and must be completed by any teacher who has been granted permission to leave.

REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Akinwumi, F. & Jaiyeoba, A.O. (2004). Principles and Practice of Educational Management. Ibadan; Bash-Moses Printing & Publishing Co.

Akinyemi, S.T. & Sanni, R.I. (1999). Confidentiality and school records. In T.A. Bolarin and B. Akinpelu (eds). Effective Teaching Practice (A slide for students teachers). Lagos: Ziklay Educational Publishers.

Eleanor, A.T. (1984). Administrative Office Management: The Electronic Office. New York; John Wileay and Sons.

Mbiti, D.M. (1974). Foundations of School Administration. Nairobi: Oxford University Press.

National Open University (2008). Principles of Educational Management. Abuja: National Open University.

Nwankwo, J.I. (1981). Educational Administration; Theory and Method. Lagos: Izharsons Printer s Lahove Karachi.

Chapter Seventeen

THE SCHOOL TIMETABLE

Introduction

It is very necessary for a school to have a timetable; this will enable the school to plan in order to ensure orderliness and decorum among the teachers and students. There must be time for every subject in the school. The teacher's lesson is guided by the school timetable.

I. Meaning of School Timetable

Table The school timetable is one of the important records that a school is required to keep. It regulates the teaching and learning activities in the school. A school timetable can be defined as a schedule prepared by the school management indicating the subjects to be taught per day and per week, the time allocated for each subject, as well as the number of periods per subject, per day, and per week in a particular school. Obi (2001) defines a school timetable as a plan of action in which the subjects of the school curriculum are distributed over the teaching periods of the school day of the weeks that make up the terms and

academic sessions.

A school timetable can also be defined as a schedule of classroom teaching by subjects per period, per day, designed by a committee or group of people, usually a timetable committee appointed by the school authority to guide and regulate the teaching activities in the school. A normal school timetable is usually divided into eight (8) periods per day and for five days (i.e., Monday–Friday) in a week, with each period lasting for 40 minutes. There is always an allowance for short and long breaks. The short break lasts for about 10 minutes, and usually it is between 10.00 a.m. and 10.10 a.m., while the long break lasts for about 30 minutes, and it is usually between 11.30 a.m. and 12.00 p.m. The short break is meant for the pupils to stretch their muscles and urinate, while the long break is for the pupils to take their refreshment that was brought from home or bought at the school canteen. However, in some schools, there is only one break period, which is tagged as a long break, but it will be for forty minutes between 11.20 a.m. and noon.

II. Types of Timetables

There are three main types of time tables:

(i) General Timetable

This comprises the whole school timetable, the various classes, and the various levels drawn for the school by a

designated staff or committee under the supervision of the school head. It is usually drawn and displayed in the office of the school head and/or assistant. A general timetable is a comprehensive timetable that consists of all the timetables of the different classes of the school.

(ii) Class Timetable

This type of timetable is meant for a particular class; it is extracted from the general timetable, and it is usually drawn or displayed on the wall, besides the class chalkboard or in a conspicuous place in an articular class.

(iii) Individual Timetable

This is a timetable prepared by the individual student to guide his or her personal reading and learning per day, per week. It is usually prepared by very few students.

III. Importance of the School Timetable

The following are the reasons why a timetable is a must in a school organization:

1. It helps the teachers know what subject, what time, and which class to teach.
2. It helps the students know which books and other learning

materials to take to school daily.

3. It helps the students know when a particular lesson will be taught and who will teach it.
4. It eliminates possible clashes in the teaching schedules, thereby preventing unhealthy rivalry among the teachers in the school.
5. It ensures maximum utilization of the time resources available for subject teaching and learning.

It assists in the implementation of curriculum through well-planned teaching and learning activities.

vii. It makes it possible to bring together the school subjects and other resources—humans (teachers), physical facilities (classrooms), and other supporting facilities—to achieve the goals of the school. and

viii. It reminds the students of the assignment, which could have been forgotten, and when to submit it.

IV. Guidelines for the Construction of a School Timetable

The school head must be guided by some guidelines in constructing a school timetable, as must the officer, group of people, or committee who is or is in charge of the school time. If the timetable is to serve the intended purposes, the following guidelines must be followed:

i. Allocation of Periods

Periods should be allocated to subjects based on their importance. For example, English Language and Mathematics are allocated the highest numeric periods in the week when compared with other subjects because these are the basic necessary subjects and prerequisites for any institution with a higher learning admission requirement. The two subjects feature on the timetable almost every day. In addition, subject(s) that need practical sessions are allocated double periods on the timetable (i.e., 80 minutes) to allow for effective practical exercise with the lesson. For example, subjects like fine art and agricultural science Home Economics, Technical Drawing.

ii. Scheduling of the Subjects

The nature of the subject will determine when it will appear on the timetable. Subjects that need full concentration and that involve calculation, such as mathematics and principles of accounting, should feature in the mornings on the timetable. Also, subjects with practicals that must be done on the field or on the farm, such as physical and health education and agricultural science, are better in the mornings than in the afternoon when the weather becomes hot. However, subjects that require less calculation and mental concentration, such as some humanities subjects (e.g., economics, social studies, literature in English, Christian/Islamic religion studies, etc.), can be taught in the afternoons.

iii. **Lengths of the Period**

The age of the students and the nature of the subject should be considered in determining whether a subject will be for a period or double period per day and the number of times such a subject will appear in a week. However, the standard time for a period at the primary school level is 35 minutes, while it is 40 minutes at the secondary school level. Double period at the primary school is 70 minutes, while it is 80 minutes at the secondary school level.

iv. Arrangement of the Subjects

The nature of the subjects should be taken into consideration when drawing the timetable. Subjects that require practical sessions, such as woodwork, typewriting, home economics, and fine art, should not be fixed close to some subjects that require physical activities, such as physical and health education and agriculture.

v. Break Period

There is government regulation guiding the break period. This is the standard practice and should not be deviated from by any school or the timetable committee. It is mandatory to observe a break session of 20–30 minutes before the commencement of the afternoon session. This should be noted when drawing the school schedule.

vi. Available Space

The available space in the form of classrooms, laboratories, libraries, etc. should be considered by the timetable committee at the

construction stage. The space determines the number of students that a class can contain. When there are enough and adequate spaces in the classroom, laboratory, library, etc., the task of the time-table committee becomes easier and more effective. A working timetable could be constructed in such a situation than in a school that has the challenge of space. In such a school, there will be overcrowded classrooms, which will have a negative effect on the teaching and learning of the subject.

vii. Availability of Teaching Staff

The number of teaching staff in a school must be considered when constructing a school timetable. This will be used to determine the school student-teacher ratio (STR) as well as the teacher's workload. If the number of teachers required to teach a subject is adequate, this could facilitate efficiency because the teachers will not be overwhelmed with extra classes without any form of incentive, as we have in a school where the number of teachers needed to teach a subject is insufficient. To ensure an effective timetable, there must be an adequate number of teaching staff for each subject on the timetable.

viii Availability of Supporting Facilities

The availability of supporting facilities should be taken into consideration when preparing the school schedule. Supporting facilities such as non-teaching personnel, electricity, water, generators, etc. These supporting facilities are very important in assisting in the

maintenance and security of the school and especially in the teaching and learning of subjects that require laboratory practicals. In a situation where these supporting facilities are not available or inadequate, it may be difficult, if not impossible, to teach these practical subjects effectively, as they may appear on the timetable.

ix. Number of Available Subjects in the School

The total number of subjects offered by the school will determine how they are allocated in the timetable and their frequencies. A compulsory subject, for example, at the school and class levels, must be identified and given priority if the teachers who are to teach them are available. This will also determine their frequency and time.

V. Timetable and School Effectiveness

The aims and objectives of preparing a timetable for school are to ensure that all the activities scheduled on the timetable are carried out as expected and that effective teaching and learning take place. When this is achieved in a school, all staff, both teaching and non-teaching, are said to be effective. For a school head to achieve this, he or she must take the following steps:

He or she must:

1. ensure compliance with government directives and policies with regard to the school timetable.
2. ensure that every teacher conducts his lesson as scheduled

on the timetable,

3. supervise the instructional activities of the teachers to ensure that they adopt the right teaching method,
4. ensure that every teacher makes the optimum use of the school resources,
5. ensure amicable resolution of clashes in the timetable between teachers,
6. put in place a time-table monitoring committee that will ensure strict adherence to the school timetable,
7. make the school environment conducive to teaching and learning, and
8. maintain discipline among staff and students.

REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Ajayi I. A. (2007). Issues in School Management. Lagos: Bolabay publishers.

Idoghor, I.S. (2001). Lecture and Counsels to Students and Practitioner. Effurum: Freebo

Printing co.

National Open University (2008). Principles of Educational Management. Abuja: National Open University.

Obi, E. (2001). Practicum in School Organization. Enugu: Computer-edge Publishers

Chapter Eifhteen

POLICY PLANNING IN EDUCATION

I. Meaning of Policy

The word "policy" is derived from the Greek words politeia and polic which refer to state and citizenship, and the Latin word politia, which means "administration of the commonwealth. Thus, policy refers to the regulation of morals, social order, safety and welfare of a "body politic" (that is, an organization, a community, state or nation). More broadly, policy represents the principles that guide present and future decisions. Policies may be stated or unstated, and policies may require action or non-action to achieve their purposes. 199 The term policy can be used to refer to specific proposals, which may be related to other proposals, or represent the "means" by which some larger purpose is to be achieved. The word policy is most commonly used as a label for a field of activity, such as "foreign policy" or "education policy". This usage describes the fields of government activity and involvement as opposed to any one policy. Because it usually covers past, current and potential activities, understanding policy in this context is worthwhile. However, it is not sufficient for policy analysis purposes. This

definition does not differentiate policy goals from policy achievement, or policy as an action or inaction. Further, broad policy fields often overlap, so that making clear separations among the fields is difficult. A more general use of the term "policy" is to express the broad purposes or goals of government activity in a particular field, often giving some indication of a desired state of affairs. Policy can also be used to describe the output or outcomes of government activities. Policy can also refer to the decisions of government that may arise from a particular "moment of choice", such as in a state of emergency. Often, in such cases, there is a need to look beyond crucial decisions and take a broader view of policy-making along a longer time horizon. The definition of policy that we wish to use is "a course of action or inaction chosen by public authorities to address a given problem or an interrelated set of problems". A policy serves the purpose of ensuring that every official action of an organization must have a basis or a backing. Terry considers that "a policy is an overall guide that gives the general limits and direction in which administrative action will take place". According to him, "a policy defines the area in which decisions are to be made but it does not give the decision. A policy brings about a meaningful relationship between business objectives and organizational functions as it discourages deviations from planned courses of action. A policy ensures consistency of action because an organization is governed by approved principles. A policy does not have to be rigid, as there should be room for adjustment if necessary, after its formulation. Perhaps this is why Hoy and Miskel in

Okoroma believe that "policies are not only formulated but also programmed, communicated, monitored and evaluated"? The non-rigid nature of policies is confirmed by Lindblom when he describes policymaking as a "process of successive approximation to some desired objectives in which what is desired itself continues to change under reconsideration". In fact, a good policy is one that can be reviewed as the need may arise. Lindblom believes that a wise policy maker cannot expect all their policies to achieve a one-hundred percent success. Regardless of how good a policy may be, its implementation may introduce some element of imperfection.

Simply put, policy can be described as a plan of action agreed upon or chosen by an individual, group of people, or government to solve a problem. policy can mean an explicit or implicit decision or group of decisions, which may set out directives for guiding future decisions, initiate, sustain, or retard action, or guide the implementation of previous decisions. Webster defined policy as "a definite course or method of action selected from among alternatives and in light of given conditions to guide and determine present and future decisions." It is taken to be the overall plan embracing the general aims, objectives, and procedures of a government or an organization. There are many other meanings of policy, but they are not relevant to the subject being discussed. Thus, we have a national education policy that encompasses the aims, objectives, and decisions concerning all aspects of education to

guide the nation.

II. Meaning of Program

The Advanced Learner Dictionary defines a program as a plan of things to be done or that are included in the development of things to be done. A program is usually a product of policy. Universal Basic Education is a policy program aimed at providing access to basic education for all. It also encompasses other sub-programs, such as: special programs for the nomadic population; education for the physically challenged; non-formal education; formal education at primary and junior secondary schools, etc.

II Meaning of Plan

A plan can simply mean an intention to do something. You may plan to build a house or carry out a project. It can also imply an arrangement of a set of things to be done in order to achieve a goal that has been considered in detail. It can imply a design, a drawing, or a 'road map' that has been technically conceived and ready to be implemented. It is usually an output of a policy program that is ready for execution. You can have the school plan, the work plan, the school building plan, etc.

III. Meaning of Project

A project can be explained to mean a planned piece of work that finds information about something. It is a piece of work that involves careful study of a subject over a period of time. The first meaning is the one that we are interested in, while the second meaning applies mainly

to research projects. A project can also mean a massive plan. There are several projects in the educational system. We can have a building project, a library project, and laboratory and workshop projects. A project may be seen as the concrete manifestation of a plan.

IV. Scope of Policy

Policies are of different types and kinds. They differ in their scope, complexity, decision environment, range of choices, and decision criteria. This range is diagrammatically explained by Haddad. He identified the following: issue-specific policies; single-program policies; multi-program policies; and strategic policies. The complexity of a policy can be low or high; the decision environment can be precise or imprecise; the number of alternatives can be low or high; and the decision can be narrow or broad.

An issue-specific policy is a day-to-day, short-term policy aimed at addressing a particular problem or issue. A policy may be made to solve the problem of lateness in a school. Lateness is just an issue.

A program policy is a policy that focuses on a single program. It is concerned with the design of a program in a particular area. For example, a policy addressing how school libraries should be sited in schools is a program policy.

A multi-program policy deals with decisions that address competing program areas. For example, a policy decision to address the primary and issue-specific program Multiprogram Strategic junior secondary education within the UBE program is a multiprogram policy. The strategy policy deals with large-scale decisions that require huge resource allocations. The UBE policy program is a good example. It involves decisions on childhood education, primary education, junior secondary education, non-formal education, and special education. It involves broad resource allocation for personnel, facilities, equipment, structures, midday meals, etc.

V. History Background of Educational Policy in Nigeria

Educational policy in Nigeria has passed through two significant stages, the colonial and post-independence eras. Prior to the British conquest of the area and the subsequent establishment of Colonial Government, most of the area to the northern and western parts comprised empires, kingdoms and some chiefdoms, while in the central parts and south eastern parts there were small chiefdoms with some semiautonomous communities. In the northern parts, Islam was deeply entrenched both in the religious belief and educational orientation of the people who had a uniform Qur'anic education policy. In the southern parts, each ethnic group had its own traditional form of education based on its own culture and tradition, whose aims and objectives were similar. The curricula which is informal comprises developing the child's physical

skill, character, intellectual skills and sense of belonging to the community as well as inculcating respect for elders, and giving specific vocational training and the understanding and appreciation of the community's cultural heritage. This was the scenario in 1842, when the Christian missionaries arrived on the coastal area of the southern part of Nigeria and introduced western education. The aims of education as given by the missionaries were to enable recipients to learn to read the bible in English and the local language, gardening and agriculture as well as train local school masters, catechists and clergymen. However, it is the amalgamation of the Northern and Southern protectorates of Nigeria in 1914 that brought people of different ethnic groups and faith together, as one country thereby creating a pluralistic society that necessitated the adoption of a federal structure for Nigeria. Also, British policy of indirect rule restricted the activities of the missionaries in the predominately Muslim Northern protectorate thereby, curtailing the spread of Christianity and western education leading to a considerable educational gap between the northern and the southern parts of Nigeria. Also, when grants in aid were given to missions and voluntary agencies schools, the Qur anic schools were excluded because of their peculiar curriculum. The colonial government needed vital personnel from amongst the natives and thus, the responsibility for the provision of western education in the northern parts of Nigeria, shifted to the colonial government . In this set up, three forms of education: Qur'anic, traditional and western education co-existed side by side with the north

and south each having a different pace of development in terms of western educational attainment. This was the scenario by 1944 which heralded the advent of globalization in the post Second World War period that coincided with the processes of democratic transformation and national liberation from colonialism. Since then, educational policy in Nigeria has been shaped by the quest for national development based on political, and socio-economic considerations

a. Objectives on Educational Policy in Nigeria

The second National Development Plan of Nigeria puts the national objectives of education in the country as:

1. The inculcation of national consciousness and unity;

2. The inculcation of right type of values and attitudes for survival of individual and the Nigerian society;

3. The training of the man in the understanding of the world around; and

4. The acquisition of appropriate skills and the development of mental, physical and social abilities and competencies.

b. Policy Analysis

Policy analysis is a technique used in public administration to enable civil servants, activists, and others to examine and evaluate the available options to implement the goals of laws and elected officials. The process is also used in the administration of large organizations with complex policies. It has been defined as the process of "determining which of various policies will achieve a given set of goals in light of the relations between the policies and the goals. Policy analysis involves processes before decisions are arrived at. It involves steps through which policy are made, implemented and evaluated. It also involves the examination and description of the causes and consequences of public policy on the target population. On the other hand, education policy analysis involves educational processes before decisions are arrived at in the educational system. It involves steps through which education policy are made, implemented and 200 evaluated. It also involves description of the causes and consequences of education policy on the target population. Policy analysis can be divided into two major fields:

Analysis of existing policy, which is analytical and descriptive – it attempts to explain policies and their development.

Analysis for new policy, which is prescriptive – it is involved with formulating policies and proposals (for example: to improve social welfare).

c. Five-E Approach to Policy Analysis

One model of policy analysis is the "five-E approach", which consists of examining a policy in terms of. Effectiveness: How well does it work (or how well will it be predicted to work)? Efficiency: How much work does or will it entail? Are there significant costs associated with this solution, and are they worth it? Ethical considerations: Is it ethically and morally sound? Are there unintended consequences? Evaluations of alternatives: How good is it compared to other approaches? Have all the relevant other approaches been considered? Establishment of recommendations for positive change: What can actually be implemented? Is it better to amend, replace, remove, or add a policy?

d. Policy Formulation

Policy formulation is the development of effective and acceptable courses of action for addressing what has been placed on the policy agenda. It has to be valid, efficient and implementable as authorized by legitimate decision makers. Educational policy formulation is the development of effective and acceptable courses of action for addressing what has been placed on the education policy agenda. It should be valid, efficient and implementable as authorized by legitimate education decision makers. Policy analysis is a technique used in public administration to enable civil servants, activists, and others to examine and evaluate the available options to implement the goals of laws and elected officials. The process is also used in the administration of large

organizations with complex policies. Policy Analysis is the process of identifying potential policy options that could address your problem and then comparing those options to choose the most effective, efficient, and feasible one.

VI. Education Policy-Making

Educational policy can be described as the explicit or implicit (written or unwritten) statements of actions that guide the future of education. Babalola asserted that educational policy is a general statement that contains the guiding principles and rules that govern many of the decisions that guide the management of education. In Nigeria, we have the National Policy on Education, a document that encompasses the aims, objectives, structure, and all aspects of the educational system. Educational policy-making is the process through which policies are made to guide the effective management of education. As aforesaid, policies are the written or unwritten rules, regulations, and guidelines that are made by the government or the authority of an educational institution or through their agencies or representatives. Educational policy-making has two major dimensions. They are the ACTORS and the PROCESS. The actors are the 'doers', that is, who make the policies? While the process is the 'how' of policy-making, that is, how policy is made, I will add the third dimension, which is: why is policy made? Or who is the policy meant to serve? This is very important because the 'why' and 'whose interest' of policymaking will

largely guide the formulation of the aims and objectives of policy.

Six steps have been identified by Kaufman as procedures in the process of policymaking. It is a system approach. They are:

i. needs identification
ii. problem selection
iii. identification of the requirements for a problem solution
iv. selection of a solution from alternatives
v. methods and means obtained and implemented
vi. evaluation of the results.

You can see that these six steps cover the planning, the design, the implementation, and the assessment and evaluation of implementation. With regards to the actors, that is, the makers of education policies, they usually occupy the highest echelon of the decision-making ladder. They are usually technically sound and politically empowered. The government at all levels can make policies to guide education management. The heads of educational parastatals, agencies, and institutions can also make policies. Their policies are, however, to be in tandem with the government's vision and aspirations.

VII. Framework for Policy Evolution in Education

The emergence of any policy begins with problem identification

and situational analysis and ends with policy plan implementation, assessment and evaluation, and policy readjustment. The process of policy evolution can be conceptually explained with a model, outlining the frame of analysis.

The policy evolution framework is a conceptual model meant to explain the reality of the elements that should be detected and analyzed to capture the process of any policy-making model.

The framework has highlighted eight processes of policy evolution. They are:

1) Identification of problems
2) Analysis of the identified problem(s)
3) Generation of options or alternative choices
4) Policy formulation
5) Planning for policy formulation
6) Policy implementation
7) Policy evaluation
8) Policy adjustment or re-design

1. The process of policy-making in education starts with problem identification. The problem could be funding, enrollment, facilities, and staffing, which may be

inadequate and consequently affect educational productivity.

2. The identified problem must be analyzed by the experts. The causes of the problem, the impact of the problem at the current date, and the consequences of the problem at a later date, if not addressed effectively, must be analyzed. The resource requirements to solve the problem and the possible expectations after the problem has been addressed should be analyzed. An analysis is done to determine the feasibility of alternatives.

3. The next thing to be done is to generate alternatives. Policy options are generated to identify the most feasible option for formulation. Here, policy analysts, who are technically equipped, rely on available data and information to generate options. Options can also be generated by using the existing body of professional knowledge, which is derived from conventional wisdom, research synthesis, comparative indicators, etc. However, certain intellectual, social, and political factors may constrain the range of policy options. We should also note that what is feasible is not always desirable, as policymakers are guided many times by opportunity cost. Sometimes, the

internationalization of education could guide the choice of option. This is a process whereby foreign experts can guide the choice of option.

4. Policy is formulated after evaluating the various policy options. The best and most feasible option is usually chosen. The feasibility of an option is a function of finance, personnel, time, and the needs of stakeholders. The operational and implementability of the chosen option must be considered.

5. Planning for policy implementation begins after policy has been formulated. The schedule of implementation should be planned. This is the time to put plans into action. The implementation plan must include how to mobilize people, financial, and physical resources. Plans must be developed to mobilize all the stakeholders on the need for such a policy.

6. Policy implementation takes place after it should have been well planned for. It is usually difficult to implement a policy, no matter how well thought out it is. It is a period of surprises and unanticipated occurrences, either due to overestimation or underestimation.

7. A policy must be evaluated after implementation by conducting an impact assessment analysis. This is to reveal the strengths and weaknesses of the implemented policy.

8. The framework ends at the policy adjustment level. Policy adjustment is a reaction to the weaknesses observed in the implemented policy during evaluation. Such weaknesses are equally analyzed and go back to the policy cycle for possible re-design and implementation.

VIII. Factors of Policy Emergence

In formulating any policy, there should be an analysis of the identified problem and the environment in which the policy would be implemented. In addition to the environmental analysis, the sector analysis should be carried out. This is to say that situation analysis should be done for both the community, local, state, and national environment, as well as the education sector itself.

The factors to be critically examined before any policy is formulated for implementation can be grouped as follows:

a) Environmental Situation Factors. Under this, we have:

- Politics of the Environment
- Economy of the Environment

- Population and other demographic factors
- Tradition
- Religion
- Cultural Values
- Social factors
- geography or physical terrain.

b) Education Sector Factors. They Include:

- Access and education opportunities
- Equality and equity factors in education
- education structure in existence
- The level of efficiency, both internal and external
- Management and organizational arrangements on the ground

(a) Environmental Situational Factors

It is generally believed that the general character of any geographical entity, be it a district, a local government area, a state, or a country, will definitely impact policy analysis, policy evolution, and policy implementation. These characters or factors have been stated above. Most countries are multi-cultural, multi-racial, multi-ethnic, multi-lingual,

and multi-religious in composition. There exists within these groups social and economic stratification, with an increasing general trend of stratification. For this reason, the business of policymaking is arduous in many situations. This is because of the various ways different groups accept and value education, especially western education. This is the Nigerian situation, and because of this, the demand for education differs among the people and across the nation. Therefore, to come up with any education policy in Nigeria, the situation analysis must be thorough so as to remove or reduce unnecessary tension, agitation, and unacceptability during implementation. The political environment must be considered to appreciate the ideology of the government and study the education-politics mix, especially the role of politics on education and education on the socio-political process. Economic and demographic factors are very important to policy evolution. The economy dictates the strength of any nation. Education policy without economic backing, especially funding, may fail. Similarly, the population of the country, its structure, size, and growth over time may affect the implementation of policy. Hence, these two factors should be seriously considered during policy analysis. The size of the financial allocation to education is largely determined by the country's wealth as well as its population.

(b) Education Sector Factors

Before coming up with new policies and plans for education, we should be able to identify, understand, and analyze the major factors

that drive education development, as we have enumerated above. The issue of access is important. It deals with how far a nation is able to provide education opportunities for school-going-age children and adults. Is the supply of education measuring up to demand? What is the pattern across the land? What are the factors that guide access to education in a country? All these questions and many more should be answered to assist policy evolution. The issue of equity is related to the issue of access. How far has the government been able to meet legitimate demand and deny supply? The extent of the supply of education to all, irrespective of sex, age, religion, or location of origin, is very critical to policy analysis. The structure of education, from the lowest to the highest level of education, the duration of schooling, and the resource requirements are very important during policy analysis. The efficiency of the system, both internally and externally, is very important too. We should know to what extent the school system is able to maximize the use of resources to reduce waste and also meet the aims and objectives for which it was set up. This will guide policy analysts in identifying areas of urgent need. Lastly, the existing management structure and institutional arrangements in the education sector should be identified and analyzed. We should understand how the existing structure can influence decision-making. The distribution of power should be analyzed so as to eliminate conflicts during policy implementation.

IX. Stages in Policy Planning Process in Nigeria

There are five major stages in the planning process in Nigeria. They are:

1. Policy Formulation Stage
2. Plan Preparation Stage
3. Plan Co-ordination Stage
4. Plan Implementation Stage
5. Plan Evaluation Stage.

1. Policy Formulation Stage

This is the first stage in the planning process. This is a stage where the background activities and problems concerning policy are made available to the government with regard to the individual ministries, departments, and parastatals in the states or at the national level. Each ministry or parastatal determines its policy objectives. In doing this, the ministry or parastatal critically considers the resources at its disposal and the overall interests and aspirations of society. At this stage, the program(s) for positive action for the realization of the policy objectives are also highlighted by each ministry and parastatal. Ideally, the program(s) highlighted are guided by the manifestoes or the ideology of the ruling political party. The policy to be formulated may also be initiated by the National Economic Council. Policy formulation is mainly political, especially at the macro level. For example, Universal Basic Education (UBE) is a government policy initiative with the main objective

of providing access to basic education to all. This policy, with various programs of action, was formulated at this stage of the planning process.

2. The Plan Preparation Stage

This is a crucial and technical stage. Because of the technicality, highly specialized skills and expertise are required for the effective translation of the general goals and objectives of the policy into reality. This is the stage where technocrats and policy analysts are involved. The government's functionaries and bureaucrats are also involved. Musazi , Adesina and Akangbou summed up the functions at this stage as the involvement of cost-benefit analysis, manpower analysis, social demand analysis of the policy initiative, and other constructs that are employed to devise alternative courses of action in order to arrive at a desired future state. This is the stage where the visions and outlined goals are matched with the resources available or to be made available, which are always scarce. This is a stage to analyze whether such a policy plan will be profitable, whether there will be enough teachers and other personnel in the right quantity and quality to implement it, and if not, what should therefore be done. It is a stage when the social acceptability of such a policy plan should be determined. Will the plan be acceptable to the public? It is very important to answer this question through analysis at this stage.

3. The Co-ordination Stage

This is a stage whereby a central coordinating body coordinates the various policy plans submitted by various ministries and parastatals. In Nigeria, the Ministry or Department of Economic Development, sometimes called Economic Planning, is responsible at the state level, while the Ministry or Department of National Planning is responsible for coordination at the federal level. The essence of central coordination is to ensure efficiency and consistency in the formulation of development programs. The coordinating unit goes through the submitted draft plans by the ministries and departments, reconciling them with the broad state or national planning goals and objectives, as well as the expected resources or income. Money is important in the implementation of any plan; therefore, the coordinating unit amends, reviews, or even reverses the draft plans submitted by some ministries or departments depending on the expected revenue or income. The national priorities—the laid-down rules and regulations by the government or decision-makers—serve as guides at this stage. This is to ensure that no ministry or department is shortchanged. After the drafts or proposals have been coordinated, they are thereafter forwarded to the Economic Planning Committee. The committee is made up of representatives of all the ministries and parastatals and is presided over by the commissioner or minister of the coordinating unit at the state and federal levels, respectively. The committee undertakes a final study of the coordinated draft plan and makes final submissions to the State Executive Council or

the National Executive Council for ratification and submissions to the Legislature for approval, where necessary.

4. Plan Implementation Stage

This is the stage where approved policies and plans are executed. It is the action stage of the planning process. It is the stage where the resources are mobilized for action. The implementation stage is very difficult because of errors in estimation and projection, as well as the instability in the prices of facilities and equipment. For example, the implementation of a policy plan in education may require the building of additional classrooms. You should know that the variation in the prices of cement, iron sheets, etc. and even workmanship could destabilize policy implementation. This is the stage when managerial competence and skills are challenged. This is the stage when original policy intentions can be muddled if great care is not taken. It is the stage where the ability to manage resources, which are usually limited, comes into play. This is when unnecessary politicization of programs and plan implementation should be avoided. When the intended beneficiaries of executed plans should not be denied contribution and participation in the success of implementation where they can, The politicization of plan implementation can be inimical to development. In Nigeria, many important policy plans have failed during implementation due to:

- Inadequate planning

- Under-funding
- Politicization
- Lack of continuity in government.

This stage therefore requires dedication on the part of the ruling class, which is the government; adequate data and information for effective monitoring; qualified personnel; adequate funding; competent planners and administrators; and adequate guiding rules and regulations. The department or ministry responsible for the execution of any plan, project, or program should constantly review such plans, projects, and programs and compile progress reports for the government.

5. The Evaluation Stage

The evaluation of the plan being executed constitutes the final stage of the planning process. This is a stage at which the achievement or otherwise of the plan is constantly reviewed and revalued to determine compliance with the plan specification and the degree of success in the implementation of the plan in meeting the overall policy objectives. It is at this stage that the shortcomings, inadequacies, and reasons for them are identified and analyzed. This is the stage of policy feedback from the people the plan being implemented is meant for. The result of the evaluation of implementation serves as background or input into the formulation of another policy plan; it could inform a possible re-design of the plan. It could also lead to a partial review of the plan, a plan revision, or a total reversal of the policy plan.

X. Planning as a Continuous Process

Planning is an ongoing process. A plan evolves much as the organization evolves, building upon what is known while providing a mechanism for incorporating what is unknown now but may be known later. A plan shows the overall direction, which includes goals but is not necessarily the step-by-step road map to be utilized in reaching the final destination. It is believed that internal and external factors will continuously impact plans and, hence, bring change to the plans of any organization or the organization's planning process. Therefore, continuous planning is induced by the following factors:

A) Internal Factors

i. Change in the operational methods;
ii. Change in organizational objectives;
iii. Change in the inputs of production;
iv. Change in output quality.

B) External Factors

i. Change in societal goals and objectives;
ii. Information technology;
iii. Growing awareness;
iv. International comparison and competition.

Internal Factors

i. It is believed that the operational method of production in any organization is very important to its policy directions. Because of operational changes over time, there is a need for policy planning changes too. If an organization is changing from a manual to a technological way of doing things, there is a necessity for policy revision. For example, if the Nigerian schools want to move from the "chalk and board" medium of teaching to the "technology medium," there is a need for policy planning adjustment.

ii. Changes in operational objectives can induce continuous planning. When the vision, mission, goals, and aspirations of any nation or organization change, there will be a need to evolve new policies and plans over time. Any human organization is dynamic, as are its vision, mission, goals, and aspirations. An organization's goal may be to expand its assets. The school may aspire to increase its enrollment. Definitely, there must be a change in its policy plan to cope with the increased enrollment. iii. Because of the ever-changing inputs in the production line of an organization, there is also the necessity to alter policy plans. Once upon a time, the Grade II Teacher's Certificate was the minimum teaching requirement in the Nigerian school system, but in

order to increase the quality of teaching in the system, the minimum teaching qualification was changed to the Nigerian Certificate in Education (NCE). It could change tomorrow. Hence, planning becomes a continuous process.

External Factors

i. The change in the overall goals of society, that is, the national goals, will continue to induce change in the planning process. Today, the national expectations for education are enormous and quite different from what they were forty years ago. The main expectations in the pro-independence era were basically to make citizens read and write. But today, national expectations from education transcend mere reading and writing to the acquisition of scientific and technological knowledge, skills, and innovation that can turn this nation around. Therefore, there is also a necessity for innovation in policy planning to meet the dynamics of time.

ii. The growing awareness of citizens and even communities will continuously impact the ways society is managed; awareness will trigger agitation, demand, and protest. Such agitation and demands may cut across all sectors of a

nation, including education. These demands, agitations, and protests always serve as the basic input in the policy-formation process. It is them that are aggregated, analyzed, and interpreted for future policy planning. Today, people talk about equality of access to educational opportunities from more than twenty years ago. People appreciate the value of education more than in the past few years. Because of changing awareness, there is a necessity for changing the policy planning process from time to time.

iii. International competition and comparison also induce continuous policy planning. The world is now a global village, where no nation wants to be left behind. Countries try to copy good and progressive practices from other nations in order to cope with the competitive world. Because of these reasons, policies keep changing, and planning is on a continuum. In addition, there are so many international bodies and agencies that influence the policy-planning process in member nations. For example, the UBE is a product of the United Nations-coordinated Conference on "Education for All" held at Jomtien. The conference agreed that nations should embark on basic education that will give access to all children of school age, adults, and

special people. That conference gave birth to various educational policies, programs, and plans in member nations, including Nigeria. It altered existing policy plans and made the government revise some policies.

XI. Resources Required for Planning

There are various resources required for effective planning functions. They are classified differently by different people. Dunham and Price used the "four I's"—information, interest, involvement, and initiative—as their own grouping of resources required for planning purposes. Hanson classified the resources as "money, manpower, and data." He believed that planning was a time-consuming and expensive undertaking. For our discussion, the following resources are very crucial for planning functions: They are:

1. Goals and objectives
2. Data and information
3. Funding
4. Qualified Manpower

1. Goals and Objectives

In any planning venture, the desired result or destination of such a journey would serve as a critical guide or road map for the smoothness of such a journey. Without the road map to a destination, such a "planning traveler" may get lost, miss his or her way, or spend longer time

perambulating about. Therefore, defined goals and objectives that will indicate the overall purpose of such a planning exercise are crucial ingredients for effective planning. for us to ensure a desired outcome for an educational planning process, it is imperative that the planners have clearly defined goals and objectives regarding the aspect of education they are planning for.

2. Data and Information

You should know by now that adequate and accurate facts, figures, and relevant information are the major ingredients for planning activities. Such data and information are both qualitative and quantitative in nature. They cover all areas and aspects of education, from students to teachers, movable and immovable facilities and equipment, income and expenditure, and so on. It also includes the vision, mission, goals, and objectives of education, the structure of education, the curricula of the school system, and so on. Planning requires the collection, collation, analysis, and interpretation of data and information to ensure policy formulation and decision-making.

3. Funding

The planning process requires adequate and regular funding so as to boost the usefulness of the emerging plan. Funds are required to accomplish and accommodate the directives and guidelines that emanate from the authority. financial backing is required for time, which they regarded as a vital resource. Money is required to pay relevant consultants during the planning process. We also require adequate

funding for the planning facilities, equipment, and support services. We need computers, both hard and soft, for data processing and the generation of information.

4. Qualified Manpower

Educational planning is a relatively new field in Nigeria. Educational planners are required in the educational industries and parastatals in the right quantity and quality. Planning is a technical area that requires specialized skills and expertise. Planning involves quantification, programming, simulation, and analysis. Relevant manpower in several inter-related fields is required in the planning process. A planner should be current, brilliant, and focused. He or she should be able to give meaning to other planning resources. Unfortunately, most of the education ministries' and parastatals' planning divisions or directorates are manned by untrained or partially trained officers. If other resources are available in the right quantity and the personnel resource is inadequate, the plans emanating from such a setup may not be able to stand the test of time.

XII. Education Policy Development Analysis

a) System's Approach to Educational Policy Analysis

A system can be defined as a component or entity made up of inter-related parts functioning together for a common goal or purpose. A policy or policy development is a product of the political system. Educational policies also emanate from the political system. Educational policies are made within the framework of the political system; hence,

they are related to the structure and components of any system. In addition, policy-making is a socio-political process, and as a product of a social system, we can conveniently study the educational policy process using the system's framework. The system's framework is easily explained by adopting the input-output model.

b) Policy-Making Inputs

The inputs of any system are the raw materials needed to keep the system functioning. Unlike the other systems, the policy-making inputs are somewhat abstract; that is, they are not in concrete terms. They come in as public demands and public support. The public demands could come in the form of:

- Agitations
- Protests
- Petitions
- Militancy
- demonstrations, etc.

These are done to draw the attention of the government or authority to past neglect, bad policies, the need for amenities, etc. The public's support may also come in the form of:

- Writings
- Physical expression

- advertisement, etc.

These could be done to encourage the authority or government to come up with a better policy. All these could originate from individuals, groups, or organizations through formal or informal means. The role of the mass media in the articulation of people's interests, views, opinions, support, anger, and petitions cannot be underplayed in sensitizing the government or its agencies. For example, the series of complaints regarding the quality of the JAMB University Matriculation Examination (UME) gave birth to the Post-University Matriculation Examination (PUME) being conducted by the universities. Already, there are complaints against PUME by the society. Don't be surprised if the PUME is again reversed by another policy.

c) Policy-Making Process

In the system's analysis framework and the input-process-output model, the processing of the inputs is important. Under the system's approach, the inputs are articulated, collated, amplified, and aggregated by the authority. The authorities could be political leaders, political parties, or government agencies. It could be the management of any institution or organization. The inputs (demands and supports) are sorted out using the criteria of reliability of their sources, importance of the inputs, and relevance of such inputs to the overall interests and aspirations of society. This phase involves the analysis of the substance of the demands and agitation. It could also involve organizing meetings

that could include several groups and government establishments. For instance, the agitation for access to secondary education by a community may involve the government meeting with the leadership of such a community. It may even cause a special committee(s) to be set up by the government to find an alternative solution. It may involve the education ministry and the legislature to set an agenda for rapprochement. The essence of such meetings is to reach conclusions as to what actions the political leadership (government) would take that would be in the best interest of people and society at large, as well as to calm down agitated nerves.

d) The policy-Making Output

The output phase is the third part of the system framework in the policy development process. The political leadership or organizational leadership could take one of the following options after the inputs have been articulated, collated, analyzed, and carefully sorted out: They are:

1. Make a deliberate policy to address the cause of agitation.
2. Follow precedent decision(s) in similar circumstances.
3. Impose its will on the people, that is, ignore such demands and agitations.

This phase shows the ability of leaders to lead effectively. It is also a phase that manifests the philosophy and ideology of the political

leadership. A leadership with social welfare will not ignore easily agitations concerning education for the masses. At this phase, the government takes decisions, which will involve passing through the legislative procedure for legal backing. At this phase, approved policies are communicated to the public through the government gazette and other publications. Subsequently, the policy output is implemented for the benefit of the public.

e) The Feedback Phase

In the input-process-output framework explanation of any system, there is often an imperceptible phase known as feedback. In the policy development process, the doors of public reactions, critiques, and criticisms should be kept open for policy improvement. The public may react to the inadequacies of the implementation of the policy plans. Such reactions could be again articulated to serve as input into a new policy. The reactions may also serve as a source of modification for the existing one. By doing so, the system's cycle is maintained. Below is the system's model of the policy development process:

Policy Input

- Demands
- Agitations
- Support
- Protests
- Petitions, etc., from individuals, groups, and the public

Policy Process

- Amplification
- Aggregation
- Analysis
- Synthesis
- Examination
- Meetings

Policy Output

- Legalization
- Legislation
- Sanctions
- Policy guidelines
- Releases to the public
- policy enactment
- Policy implementation

The basic assumption of the system's approach in the explanation of policy development is that policies often originate from the people through their interests and concerns. This may not be true in all situations, as many policies also originate from the political leadership as a result of its philosophy, ideology, and party manifestos. Some political leaders are naturally kind and hence come out with various welfare and progressive policies without being prodded by the public.

Sometimes, educational policies come from the authority as courses of action expedient to satisfy the needs, issues, and problems of

the education of society. Education policies evolve to satisfy two major objectives, which are: amplification, aggregation, analysis, synthesis, examination, and meetings; legalization, legislation, sanctions, and policy guidelines. Releases to the public; policy enactment; policy implementation Demands, Agitations Support, protests, petitions, etc. From - individuals - groups - public

1. Meet the demands of individuals and groups for their development, and
2. Meet the needs of society or the political system.

XIII. Criteria for Education Policy Analysis

These criteria include: analysis of educational policies. listed these criteria as follows:.

1. Level of Decision-Making
2. Experts and expertise involved
3. Training Involved
4. Type of Policy Involved
5. Authority Involved in Policy-Making
6. Sources of Policy.

XIV. Level of Decision-Making

In formulating educational policies, the level of policies that are to

be addressed should be identified and well defined. Is the policy meant for the government level or the institutional level? If it is at the institutional level, is it meant to address primary education, secondary education, basic education, and higher education? If it is at the governmental level, you need to know if it is meant to address the education ministries, departments, or agencies. An educational policy analysis should be guided by the level of decision-making. This would enable him or her to set credible and attainable policy goals. In Nigeria, policies vary by level of decision-making. Policies meant to address teachers' punctuality at the primary school level cannot be applied to the university level. This is because each level of decision has its own uniqueness and characteristics. At the primary school level, teachers are expected to be in school by 7.45 a.m. to organize the morning assembly. At the university level, teachers enjoy some freedom. There was no assembly, no definite resumption, and no closing time.

XV. Experts and Expertise Involved

An education policy analyst should be able to identify the types of experts and expertise that will be required in the implementation process. The numbers over time should be projected. These experts cover the technical and managerial aspects. This aspect of policy analysis is crucial if policy implementation is to be effective. The experts must be able to monitor and evaluate the plan implementation process. It will be a huge waste of beautifully conceived policies without experts to

implement them. This is one of the reasons why many well-drafted policies have failed in Nigeria. For example, the Nigeria Education Policy advocates for technical and vocational education. A move around the schools shows the gross inadequacy of teachers in these areas. In many situations, science teachers are assigned to teach technical education subjects. The implementation of the physical aspects of the education policy plan is very important. Experts to handle the construction should be part of the policy formulation process. A builder should build classrooms, not an unqualified contractor.

XVI. Training Involved

The quality, type, and level of training expected from personnel to handle the policy plan implementation should be outlined during policy analysis. How much low-level manpower is expected? How much middle-level and high-level manpower is expected? In the school system, this criterion is very essential for policy formulation and implementation; hence, it is considered a serious factor during policy analysis. We have different levels and types of education. We have pre-primary, primary, secondary, and tertiary (colleges, polytechnics, and universities), each with its own teaching and non-teaching personnel that require varying levels of training. At the primary level, Grade II/NCE teacher training experiences are required. At the secondary school level, NCE/degree-level training experiences are required. At the tertiary level, the training required by the personnel varies among the college personnel,

polytechnic personnel, and university personnel. At the same time, the training required varies between academic and non-academic staff. It also varies among the teachers as well as the non-academic staff. For example, the training required of a faculty typist is quite different from that of a faculty clerk. The training required of an ICT operator is quite different from that of an account clerk in the bursary or a librarian. All these should be well considered during policy analysis.

XVII. Nature and Types of Involved Policies

The objectives of policies vary. They vary according to the issues or problems being addressed. There are problem-solving policies; there are reform and innovation policies; there are policies that serve as rules and guidelines; there are policies for the execution of existing policy plans; and there are policies to correct existing practices in education. The policy analysis should be able to identify and understand the type of policy involved in a policy process or required to start a policy-making process. The drug that can only prevent may not be able to cure an ailment. We should understand the essence of any policy enactment. A policy of free and compulsory education may not, at the same time, provide for qualitative education. The policy type will define the scope of policy preparation. The policy of school plant renovation and repair will not be the same as the policy of education access improvement through the establishment of new schools.

XVIII. Authority Involved in Policy-Making

The authority that is responsible for policymaking should be identified. The unit and the line of authority within, between, and among the policymakers should be identified. Similarly, the degree of responsibility and power in the policy-making process as well as in the policy plan implementation procedure should be identified. The analysis should cover the possible areas of overlap, duplication, and conflict of roles in the policy-making process. For example, policy analysis should identify the possible areas of conflict among the Federal Ministry of Education, the National Universities Commission, and the University Councils in the process of formulating policies concerning the university administration in Nigeria. We cannot do without conflict in human organizations; however, we should try to minimize conflicts. This we can do through policy analysis, which should precede any policy-making process.

XIX. Sources of the Policy Plan

Babalola classified the sources of policy as implied, originated, appealed, and externally imposed.

a. Implied policy sources can be considered non-formal sources. This is because there are no defined rules or written guidelines about any issue. It is generated through people's feelings, instincts, and natural practices.

b. Originated policy sources are generated from the highest

echelon of an organization or a polity. It comes from the top, without the contribution of the subordinates. Many educational policies are products of this source. The political leaders formulate policies with little or no contribution from other stakeholders.

c. Appealed policy source: as the name implies, policies came through appeals and pleadings, which often came from people at the 'down' end to the people at the 'upper' end. Sometimes it could be in the form of protests, agitations, and petitions from the masses to change their situation, ask for a better condition, or change uncomfortable practices imposed on them. When school fees are considered too high and unaffordable to the masses, appeals can be made by the poor parents to alter the fee-paying policy to a free education policy.

d. Externally imposed policy sources are usually generated in other countries. It is done through total importation or imposed by some international bodies and agencies. In the education system, policies can be imposed by United Nations agencies like UNESCO and UNICEF on member nations, especially developing nations, to improve their education practices. Policy analysis is guided by the

evidence of the sources of the existing policies or a new policy to be formulated.

XX. Policy Analysis and Education Development

Policy analysis is considered to be socio-scientific research. The essence of conducting it prior to the policy-making process is to ensure rationality in the process and even in the implementation of the evolved policy. Policy analysis relies heavily on objective evidence. Because policy analysis relies on objective evidence, it is able to remove sectional interest, selfishness, and other subjective considerations in policy-making and, subsequently, in the implementation of policy plans. This is very important in a pluralistic country like Nigeria. Policy analysis relies heavily on data and information, especially the criteria discussed above and other parameters of education, to suggest possible options and likely consequences for policymakers and education development.

XXI. STRATEGIES FOR POLICY PLAN IMPLEMENTATION IN EDUCATION

a) Pilot Study Implementation

After a policy has been formulated and various plans for its implementation have been designed, it is better to conduct a pilot study to evaluate the feasibility of implementing the plans. If the feasibility is positive, the next strategy is to proceed with the pilot implementation. This is to enable the implementer to execute the plan at a small or

manageable level. The essence of this is to show the areas of strength and weakness so as to amend the plan before full implementation on a large scale. For example, the government may plan to introduce a tuition fee to the university as part of its cost recovery policy. It will be better for such a fee to be first introduced to the new students in order to assess the reactions of the larger student body. Such reactions may guide the government to amend the policy plan.

b) Scheduling the Movement of Resources

Many educational policies involve the massive construction of buildings, especially new classrooms, laboratories, and workshops, and the expansion of old ones, as well as the recruitment and training of personnel. As such, an effective schedule for moving physical objects, people, and funds should be drawn up. The schedule must be made clear and pay attention to details so as to give people directions on what to do, how to do it, and when to do it. The possible location of the physical resources, their contents, and their availability must be assured. The financial resources should be earmarked and appropriated to reduce delays in implementation. Also, the person and the power necessary to put plans into action must be directly committed to the course of action; he or she should not be saddled with other responsibilities that will distract from his or her commitment. The technical know-how necessary to guide the policy plan implementation must be identified, and the administrative system that will direct the policy implementation must be

clearly structured and in place.

c) Mobilization and Public Enlightenment

For a policy planning process to be effectively actualized, the need to mobilize political support must be recognized as necessary for every aspect of policy implementation. Mobilization support for any educational policy plan is very important, as a serious effort should be involved to publicize and advertise the purpose of the policy plan for total acceptance by the public, who are the major beneficiaries. This is very important in pluralistic nations like Nigeria, with diverse cultures, values, spatial distribution, and so many other diversities. Mobilization ensures value orientation. It will inform the public of the short-term and long-term benefits that the policy plan that will be implemented will provide for individuals and the nation. It is to energize the interest of the previously uninformed with regard to the policy to be implemented.

d) Who should be mobilized?

The mobilization of political support is essential because of the need to assure that both the providers and consumers of a new educational policy plan accept it with enthusiasm. Haddad (1994) advised that plans must be developed to assure that students and their families are aware of the goals and aspirations of a new educational plan. The communities should learn about the benefits in the collective interest. Teachers, educational managers, and their representatives,



which could be their unions, should be persuaded to embrace the new policy plan for the general interests of all. The laborers (the teachers and managers) should be persuaded because the new policy may bring with it several innovations and job redefinition. For example, if the state government decides to implement a policy that makes ICT compulsory in all government educational institutions, this implies that the entire typist and other workers that were trained with manual typewriters and have been working with them may not find it easy to adjust, which may cause resentment. This is because they may need to re-enroll in computer schools for training. Therefore, workers must adapt to the changes or be isolated. Workers should be duly mobilized to avoid industrial disharmony. Furthermore, political mobilization is required to assure that materials and equipment for classroom construction are provided as needed. The necessary institutional administrative adjustments should be carried out.

XXII. Strategies of Mobilization

There are various strategies for mobilizing support for the implementation of new policy plans. They include:

a. Involving the people

Involving the people and various groups that are the likely beneficiaries of a new policy initiative or affected by the new policy initiative in the planning process could serve as a strategy for mobilizing

political support. This should include the parents, communities, teachers, and administrators that will operationalize the policy plan. The employers of labor that will make use of the final products of the educational system should also be mobilized. Community leaders, religious leaders, political leaders, traditional rulers, traditional institutions, and the PTA are also important people to mobilize so that they can easily assist in mobilizing the people around them. This is because they are highly respected in their respective domains. The mobilization should also involve those who will play some roles or support roles in the process of providing certain necessities and services. This group includes the builders, the technicians, the artisans, etc. The mass media is the greatest means of reaching the far and near during mobilization and public enlightenment. The mass media should be an integral part of the mobilization strategy. Print and electronic media are very important. The traditional media, especially the town criers, are efficient in rural communities, where access to both print and electronic media is low. The print media include newspapers and magazines. Electronic media include the radio, television, and even computers.

b. Manpower Recruitment

Staffing is a serious strategy for implementing any policy plan. In staffing, the qualifications of the personnel and the training requirements for them to achieve optimum performance should be considered. There should be a clear description of expectations and the actual performance expected from each of the listed tasks. Teachers are

at the center of educational policy implementation. Many laudable educational policy programs failed in the past because teaching manpower was not duly considered a crucial factor. Therefore, in the planning of the implementation strategies, the role of a teacher as a major strategy for successful implementation should be carefully considered. The strategies here should include intensification and upgrading of the level of general and professional education that teachers are to receive. Teachers' associations at all levels are to be mobilized. All teachers' training institutions at all levels should be encouraged in the area of changing methods and skills of teaching curriculum and innovation. According to the Implementation Guidelines for the Universal Basic Education (UBE) program, teachers are to fully participate in the general decision-making process in policy implementation. A possible shortage of teaching and non-teaching personnel should be addressed through various innovative and creative approaches. The general and technical knowledge required to guide policy implementation must be mastered by those responsible for the implementation process.

c. Enabling Law

Enabling the law to guide the implementation process is a serious strategy that can protect the course of successful implementation. Enabling law is to plug all legal loopholes to improve enforcement and sanction regimes. Law is an ass and no respecter of anybody, group, or

even government in the policy implementation process. A government can be challenged if it defaults in the implementation process if there is an enabling law. In the same way, other persons, such as contractors, teachers, and even parents and the community, can be challenged under the enabling law if they default. For example, if there is a policy of building a school in every community without an enabling law, such as granting government power to acquire any community land as it deems appropriate for such a project, some communities may refuse to release their land, which may even result in litigation. If the government intends to implement the policy of compulsory education for all children of school age, there must be an enabling law to compel parents to abide by the policy plan. If not, nobody can prosecute any parent who decides to take his or her children to a farm or market. There should be an enabling law to guide all educational policy operations to ensure compliance. Most educational policy implementation actions are not backed by law. Where there are enabling laws, there could be a need to occasionally amend such laws to suit the dynamic nature of society and education itself.

d. Setting the Minimum Standard

To implement any education policy plan, we should aim for quality. Quality assurance is a factor in the standard set by whoever is the author or owner of the policy plan. Education policies may concern examinations, curriculum development and delivery, teaching and teachers, instructional materials, and so on. In all these and at all levels,

standards must be maintained. A strategy to ensure standards during policy plan implementation is "setting standards.". In Nigeria, minimum standard setting has become a practice at all levels of education. Minimum learning standards for certain ages and levels of education can be set to guide policy implementers. Such minimum standards should be officially compiled and made available to all the stakeholders in education. The document should be circulated to schools, principals, teachers, parents, inspectors, monitoring officers, and civil society organizations. Doing this will enable all stakeholders to be part of the monitoring process during policy implementation. They should also be able to evaluate the success or otherwise of such policies. The government and other policymakers should always establish a set of minimum standards for school plant planning. For example, there should be minimum standards for the school infrastructure (buildings, classrooms, laboratories, workshops, etc.) and other indices for measuring the quality of the implementation process of any policy plan. Such indices should include the size of classrooms, teacher-pupil ratio, etc. In addition, the content standards of the school curriculum at all levels should be determined.

e. Data Collection and Analysis

Implementing the education sector's minimum standard is largely based on accurate data. Hence, the collection and analysis of data have become strategic to the policy formulation process and plan implementation. The absence of reliable data inhibits capacity-building

efforts during the implementation process. In Nigeria, policies have been implemented without due regard to the accuracy of the available data. This has wrongly guided policy planners into adopting the right planning and implementation strategies. Data problems could come from a poor census base, lapses in the published statistical documents of many government agencies, weak technical capacity for collecting and analyzing data, low awareness about the relevance of accurate data to proper planning and national development, and non-agreement on statistical figures by various government sources. You may find that the figures of primary school enrolment in Nigeria differ among the Federal Ministry of Education, the States' Ministry of Education, the Local Education Department, and even the school records. Because of the strategic position of data analysis in the success of planning and plan implementation, there should be an increase in capacity building towards data generation, collection, and analysis.

f. Planning for Facilities and Equipment

For effective implementation of the education policy plan, the state of readiness of facilities and equipment is very crucial. Facility planning becomes a critical strategy for plan implementation. Facility planning in education can be described as the process of preparing a set of decisions about educational facilities in such a way that the goals and purpose of articulating instructional mechanisms will be sufficiently realized, especially in the implementation process. Educational facility

planning is considered to be a crucial implementation strategy because of the following:

- It ensures judicious use of the scarce resources meant for facilities and equipment for policy implementation.
- It ensures adequate predictions, projections, and forecasting of the required facilities and equipment for the plan's implementation.
- It guides against waste in facility preparation and utilization.
- It ensures alternative choices in the establishment of priorities.

During implementation, data on various aspects of the educational system, such as enrollment, teachers, non-teachers, geographical distribution of population, finance and cost, etc., is continuously required by the planner to guide the projection of facilities and equipment requirements for the implementation process. Facility planning is a serious aspect of educational planning that requires well-trained professionals to successfully operationalize. Many educational policy plans crashed during implementation because the facilities were not well planned by the government. We have seen situations when

students promised free education did not get seats and desks; there were no adequate classrooms to accommodate the projected enrolment; there were no books to go around; and so on. 88 Therefore, facility planning should be both a planning strategy during the planning process and an implementation strategy to sustain policy implementation.

g. Monitoring and Evaluation

Monitoring is the process of keeping watch over or track of an action, process, project, or object during the operational period of an implementation process. On the other hand, evaluation is the process of placing value on a project or event. It can also imply the determination of the value of an object, an event, etc. Monitoring and evaluation are interwoven as they play complementary roles in ensuring the quality assurance of implemented plans and programs. Quality assurance is a must in the design and implementation process of any program, and he believes that monitoring and evaluation should be a built-in everyday activity that should be carried out in a highly professional manner. As such, the officers and the ministries, departments, and agencies responsible should be well equipped and motivated. The units should, in addition, be well funded. In-school supervisors (head teachers and senior teachers) should also be part of the school monitoring and evaluation mechanism to ensure effective policy implementation.

Monitoring is mainly concerned with whether a project, program, plan, or policy is implemented in a manner that is consistent with its design and goals. Monitoring enables the policy implementer to determine if the inputs are delivered promptly and to the quality envisaged by the plan. On the other hand, evaluation secures the basis for passing judgment on the performance of the implemented plan at the end of a period and provides timely feedback to the stakeholders for possible review, improvement, or total reversal of either the plan being implemented or the implementation process. Monitoring and evaluation of the implementation process should be well-encompassing. They should cover the facilities, teachers and teaching, the school leadership, funding allocation and utilization, students' performance and activities, and so on.

The government should establish the minimum qualifications for monitoring officers and also develop a common monitoring and evaluation format and instruments for monitoring and evaluation across the nation. The government should also develop and implement an in-service training program for school leaders and other monitoring officers to ensure the success of policy implementation.

h. Funding

Funding is too strategic for implementation to be neglected. Because of this, enough funds must be mobilized for the success of

policy implementation. The use of allocated funds should be rationally prioritized to go around all the strategic areas and aspects of policy implementation. As money is earmarked to put up first-class facilities and equipment during implementation, teachers who will use the facilities should be adequately motivated and rewarded. Students' services should also be prioritized.

There should be a rational distribution of funds across the educational levels and types of education that are involved in the plan's implementation. Everything should be done to eliminate internal and external waste and misappropriation of funds assigned for plan implementation purposes. There should also be a periodic increase in the allocation of funds to education policy implementation, especially to bring innovation to the implementation process. The government should increase spending on education in general. The government should aspire to meet the 26% of GDP allocation for the implementation of education policies as advised by UNESCO.

Government agencies should develop and adopt funding mechanisms that are transparent to enhance accountability. The private suppliers of funds should be encouraged through transparency and accountability. The Education Tax Fund (ETF) should be made to be an enabler of private investment in education policy implementation. There should be an integrated student loan program to enable private

investment in fees at a higher level of education. Funding is a critical strategy for implementing any policy, whether in private or public educational institutions.

i. Introducing Motivational Packages

For the success of education policy implementation, the personnel involved at both the formation stage and the implementation stage should be well remunerated and motivated. Attractive incentives should be packaged for the would-be participants in the implemented policy. Education is a unique social sector with diverse participants in its operation. They include the teachers, students, inspectors, and parents. They should all be motivated to ensure cooperation, commitment, and support for policy implementation. As said earlier, a magnificent school structure with disgruntled teachers and unhappy students cannot be utilized to achieve its purpose. Teachers must be made happy through the introduction of various motivating incentives. For example, in an attempt to encourage pupils to embrace the implementation of the UBE program, the government has introduced a free, rich midday meal to attract children, especially those from poor and peasant homes. Teachers' salaries and allowances should be constantly reviewed to attract brilliant people to the teaching profession. The present way of treating teachers as second-class citizens in the workers' reward system in Nigeria is a bad strategy that will not help the policy implementation process in the educational system.

XXIII. RESPONSIBILITI ES AND STRATEGIES FOR POLICY IMPLEMENTATION

A. Responsibilities of the Government

Decision-makers are often faced with the issue of who takes responsibility for the general management of education, policy processes, and implementation. This is because the nature and implementation of education plans are greatly determined by the roles and responsibilities of all levels of government. To this end, various designs and suggestions have tried to resolve such issues as to who formulates policies and implements plans at the primary, secondary, tertiary, and other forms of education in the country. In addressing these issues, the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria recommends that all three tiers of government shall have a joint responsibility for all levels and types of education, with the exception of primary education, where the Federal Government's role is limited to the maintenance of standards. Generally speaking, the federal government is principally responsible for tertiary institutions and unity schools; the states are responsible for secondary schools and some tertiary institutions; and the local governments are responsible for primary schools. The various governments are to make policies and implement such policies in their respective domains. But in practical terms, the administrative lines are not so clearly demarcated in most cases. In addition, the role being played by the private sector in education policy

implementation today is very significant. We shall outline some of these responsibilities separately in the next section.

i. The Federal Government's Responsibilities

The responsibilities of the federal government in education provision cover a wide range of functions. They cover policymaking, resource provision, maintenance of standards, and policy and plan implementation. The federal government coordinates and supervises all education efforts in the country.

1. At the basic education level, the federal government formulates the policy and designs the implementation framework. The federal government also allocates resources through the Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC) and pays the 50% counterpart funds for UBE. Standards are also maintained through inspection and monitoring by the Federal Inspectorate System.

2. At the secondary education level (senior school), the federal government is also responsible for policy formulation, inspection, final examinations such as WAEC, NECO, and NABTEB, and the management of Unity schools and Federal Technical Colleges. It also funds the implementation of policy plans in these institutions under

its management at this level.

3. At the tertiary education level, the federal government is largely responsible for policy formulation and setting implementation guidelines for policy plans. It controls the federal universities, polytechnics, monotechnics, colleges of education, and research and academic institutes. These institutions are managed through several agencies. The National Universities Commission (NUC) manages the universities; the National Board for Technical Education (NBTE) manages the polytechnics and monotechnics; and the National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE) manages the colleges of education. They set physical and academic standards and benchmarks for these institutions. They regulate their activities. In addition, the federal government is responsible for the centrally conducted matriculation examinations in higher education institutions through the Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board (JAMB). The federal government also provides open and distance learning through the National Open University of Nigeria, which is also controlled by the NUC.

4. For adult and non-formal education, the federal

government is responsible for policy formulation and implementation frameworks. It is also responsible for the coordination and monitoring of the implementation.

5. Special education policy formulation and implementation guidelines are responsibilities of the federal government. The federal government is not really involved in the practical implementation of the special education policy. It, however, trains teachers for the majority of government and privately owned special schools. This is done through the Federal College of Education (special) and a few federal universities running special education.

6. Nomadic education policies are also formulated by the federal government, including the policy implementation framework. There is a federally managed Nomadic Education Commission, which is responsible for the day-to-day management of nomadic and migrant fishermen's education. The effectiveness of the federal government's education responsibilities will largely determine the nation's achievement of its aspirations. We cannot claim to have attained the national aspirations of democratizing education if the policy implementation framework for 'adult education','special education', and 'nomadic

education' is not faithfully followed.

7. It is also the responsibility of the federal government to define the national education policy objectives, design school structures, ensure uniformity of standards across the states, and set the conditions of service for teachers in the system.
8. The federal government, through the Federal Ministry of Education, is in charge of all aspects of international education, including foreign education aid, exchange programs, etc.

ii. State Government's Responsibilities

The detailed day-to-day management below the university and tertiary education levels largely rests with the respective state governments. Even today, the state governments are responsible for the management of several universities and other tertiary institutions owned by them. They also formulate and implement certain policies in the primary, secondary, and tertiary institutions owned by them in accordance with the requirements of the National Policy on Education. Section 12, Sub-Section 109, stipulates that the state ministries of education shall have responsibility for the following:

1. Policy and control over primary, secondary, and tertiary

institutions owned by the state;

2. Planning, research, and development of education;
3. Inspectorate services for monitoring and improving standards;
4. Provision of broad educational services;
5. Co-ordination of the activities of school boards and/or local education authorities as prescribed by law;
6. Examinations, testing, and evaluation at the primary and junior secondary school levels; and g. providing appropriate education laws and ensuring their enforcement. Specifically:
7. The State Universal Basic Education Board (SUBEB). The state pays 50% of the counterpart funds for the implementation of UBE in the respective states.
8. The state formulates policies for the management of the state secondary schools and technical colleges. The schools are monitored for policy implementation compliance by the state's ministry of education. The state's school board is responsible for the recruitment, promotion, and payment of teachers' salaries and allowances.
9. As mentioned above, some states are also responsible for financing their tertiary institutions and providing resources to meet the minimum standards set by the federally

established regulating agencies. 4. The state governments are largely responsible for the implementation of policies and guidelines on adult education and special education. They set up adult education centers across their respective states. The focus of these two types of education is not encouraging because there is no well-defined framework for policy implementation. They are not well organized and coordinated like the formal education system.

iii. Local Government's Responsibilities

The local governments are responsible for the implementation of educational policies and plans at the primary education level in their respective states. Education policies for basic education, which incorporates primary education, emanate from the federal government. The local governments manage primary education through their Local Education Authorities (LEAS.).

The NPE Section 12, Sub-Section 110 specifically states that local government shall, through their LEAS, have responsibility for the financing and management of primary education within their local government areas.

Sub-Section 110(a-f) particularly prescribes the following responsibilities for the LEAS:

1. the appointments, promotion, discipline, and transfer of primary school teachers and non-teaching staff within their areas of jurisdiction;
2. the payment of primary school teachers's salaries and allowances;
3. the payment of pensions and gratuities;
4. the re-training of teachers;
5. the overall management of their educational plans, and
6. supervision and quality control in all primary schools in their areas of jurisdiction with federal and state authorities.

The capability of the local governments to carry out the above responsibilities will largely determine the success of policy plan implementation at the primary education level. The quality of plan implementation will determine the quality of children at this foundation level, which will consequently impact the quality of students going into the secondary education level and subsequently the tertiary education level. Therefore, the realization of national aspirations through education starts with the quality of policies, policy implementation, and outputs at the foundation level of education.

B. Educational Reform

Occasionally, reform is necessary in education in order to do away with old practices and also to incorporate new innovations into the

educational system. Reforms usually address issues of efficiency and effectiveness as well as the reorganization of educational institutions in order to align the organizational structure with the specific roles and responsibilities for which various governments are responsible. Structural, institutional, and systemic reforms are required to address the nation's educational system, which has been described by many as being in a critical state. The following are the recent reforms going on to make the nation's educational system more effective:

1. Structurally, the Ministry of Education is proposed to consolidate the 21 parastatals under it into six broad strategic groups. The groupings are based on the following factors: · customers' focus; · nature of the specialized functions performed by each parastatal; It is hoped that this will yield the benefits of slimmer, streamlined, and more focused institutions.

2. The education sector is being packaged to benefit from a comprehensive ICT ecosystem with the following components.: Fully automated and ICT-driven processes for back office tasks, including examination management and learning delivery. One hundred percent computer literacy for secondary and tertiary sectors. One hundred percent computer literacy for teachers across the three

levels of education.

3. Increase in access to education at all levels through the active involvement of private participation in the establishment of schools.
4. Attempts to increase innovative programs and entrepreneurial courses, especially at the higher education level, to encourage the self-employment of young school leavers.

5. The funding pattern and structure of the educational system need reform to involve more participation from stakeholders and invent cost recovery mechanisms.

6. Some new policies and reforms may also require legislative reform.

XXIV. STRATEGIES FOR ACCOMPLISHING NATIONAL ASPIRATIONS

A. General Strategies

Generally, the policies that concern government involvement in the management of education will be effectively implemented by considering the following strategies so as to achieve national aspirations:

1. The provision of education must still involve strong government participation.

2. The ministry of education (federal and state) should be repositioned to focus on its core mandates of policy formulation, monitoring, and the implementation of formulated policies and designed plans; and setting and maintaining standards.

3. Monitoring mechanisms should be reviewed and enhanced.

4. developing and instituting monitoring mechanisms for education boards and parastatals

5. ensuring that persons appointed to various education boards and councils to manage educational institutions and agencies should be of high integrity, with relevant qualifications and cognate experience

6. There should be advocacy for attitudinal change in data collection, storage, and use.

7. eliminating gangsters and cultism from the school system by providing adequate extracurricular activities to positively engage students. Also, there should be a legal framework to facilitate sanctions and an enforcement regime against culprits.

8. The examination system should be ICT-driven, so that ICT will assist in plugging leakages and enhance efficiency in examination management.

9. There should be the creation of a data bank to facilitate easy access to the required data for educational planning, policy formulation, and implementation.

B. Specific Strategies

A series of strategies have been suggested for effective policy implementation at the various levels, types, and aspects of the nation's educational system.

1. Teacher Education

Teacher education should be driven for effectiveness through the adoption of the following strategies:

a. The quality of teachers at all levels should be enhanced by

raising the qualifications of teachers at certain levels of education. For example, primary school teachers should have at least NCE, and JSS should be taught by degree holders. The requirements of teachers in tertiary institutions should also be reviewed.

b. Making mandatory the training and re-training of teachers through in-service and on-the-job training at all levels of education will enhance teachers' quality. c. Raising the morale of teachers through enhanced remuneration and incentive packages and giving teachers a sense of belonging and self-recognition will also enhance the quality of their output. 1

2. Early Childhood Education

a. It has been suggested that the structure of education be revised to 3-6-3-3-4 to formalize pre-primary education so as to encourage attendance, but now there is a 9-3-4 system, which many states have yet to implement.

b. A policy framework and curriculum should be developed for preprimary education.

c. Teachers should be specially trained for early childhood

education.

d. Early childhood education should be integrated into primary education, and specialized learning and playing facilities should be provided.

3. Basic Education

a. Enrollment should be increased by expanding school infrastructure and increasing teacher recruitment.

b. The learning and working environment should be improved by providing adequate offices, laboratories, libraries, staffrooms, and classrooms to facilitate the work of all categories of pupils, students, and teachers.

c. There should be periodic reviews of the curriculum.

d. Improved funding to provide up-to-date facilities and equipment for teaching and learning is suggested.

e. Resource utilization to be effectively monitored by encouraging monitoring organizations like the Parent Teachers Association (PTA), NGO's, and civil society by increasing their capacity

f. There should be investment in ICT infrastructure, learning content, and teacher training at the JSS level.

4. Secondary Education

a. School infrastructure should be expanded, and teaching and non-teaching staff should be strengthened to increase school enrollment.

b. JAMB problems should be minimized by creating innovation-enabled institutions, vocational schools, and alternative centers.

c. There should be an offering of academic, vocational, and general education subjects and a regular review of the secondary education curriculum.

d. Introduction of entrepreneurship courses into the curriculum

e. Designing and implementing staff capacity-building programs that will include a package of motivational incentives, training and re-training of teachers, ICT awareness, a conducive work environment, etc.

5. Higher Education

a. Higher education institutions should be fully consolidated to make maximum use of the available space.

b. Increase access to higher education institutions to encourage enrollment.

c. Considering viable polytechnics for awarding degrees

d. Participation of the private sector to increase funding and access to higher education

e. Encourage science and technology by expanding facilities and modernizing teaching, learning, and research facilities.

f. Encourage e-learning, distance learning, and open learning by increasing the capacity building of the open and distance universities.

g. Encouraging internally generated funds

h. Introducing relevant programs that will encourage self-employment and entrepreneurship

i. Increase research efforts by setting up research and development centers.

j. Regular review of the curriculum

k. Regulating agencies (NUC, NBTE, and NCCE) should be improved and empowered through increased capacity building.

l. Encourage quality teaching and research by funding continuous training of lecturers, increasing teaching and research facilities, and increasing academic and non-academic motivation.

m. Make the acquisition of ICT skills compulsory for students, academic staff, and non-academic staff.

n. There should be visits conducted to the institutions. The reports of such visits should be implemented.

o. The accreditation of programs should be upgraded, and recommendations arising therefrom should be implemented. Minimum standards should be maintained.

6. Adult Education

a. Provision of education to adult learners and school dropouts

b. Adult education to encourage purely literacy, numeracy, and vocational skill acquisition in relevant areas to meet community needs

c. Engage motivated facilitators and instructors to motivate adult learners.

d. Provide an enabling environment and capacity building to encourage adult learners and out-of-school learners.

e. Delivery of adult and out-of-school programs can be done through radio and television.

7. Special Education

a. Provision should be made for children and students with learning difficulties and disabilities at all levels of education.

b. Provision of specialized infrastructure and learning facilities for people with special education needs

c. Teachers teaching categories of special students should be highly motivated and well trained. d. Provide job opportunities for educated special persons to encourage attendance.

8. Curriculum

a. Content standards for all subjects at all levels of education should be determined so as to align curriculum contents with national visions and aspirations.

b. A national curriculum framework should be developed and made available to schools and relevant agencies.

c. The curriculum should be periodically reviewed at all levels of education.

9. Inspection and Supervision

a. Employment of adequate and well-qualified inspectors to enhance educational policy implementation, monitoring, and evaluation

b. Training courses and certifications should be developed for inspectors and supervisors.

c. School heads should be trained through in-service training in the practice of inspection and supervision, as they are the intra-school inspectors and supervisors.

10. Standards

a. Minimum academic and learning standards should be developed for all levels of education.

b. Minimum standards should be put in place for all aspects of the educational system, which include funding, infrastructure, and teaching personnel.

c. Minimum standards should be fully implemented to enhance the quality of instruction and graduates.

11. Funding

a. The government should increase funding for education by

striving to meet 26% of the annual budget, as recommended by UNESCO.

b. Developing capacity to monitor the utilization of allocated funds by institutions to ensure accountability

c. Encouraging private participation in the funding of education

d. Re-consideration of the policy of giving loans to students and drawing up an effective cost recovery mechanism.

XXV. CHALLENGES AND PROBLEMS OF POLICY PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTATION

Introduction

It is only faithful and effective education policy planning and implementation that can facilitate the realization of the nation's goals and aspirations. Yet, there is a need for effective policy implementation, which is seriously hampered by various challenges and constraints in most developing countries, in particular Nigeria. These problems range from attitudinal to infrastructural.

a. Weak Data and Information Base

In Nigeria, a dearth of reliable data and a paucity of accurate information have constituted a serious limitation to effective policy planning and implementation. As discussed in the earlier units, data and information with respect to the major parameters for policy planning

and implementation are difficult to obtain. Because of this, it has been difficult to make accurate projections and forecasts of educational inputs and resources required for policy planning and plan implementation. The ministry of education and other agencies responsible for education most often keep outdated data, which may not be useful for planning purposes. Data and information needed for the policy planning process include data on population, enrollment, schools, personnel, funding, and so on. The quality of policies and their implementation rest largely on the reliability of the data used in the planning process as well as in implementation monitoring and evaluation. In addition to the weak data base in the country, many planners have not seen the need for the adoption of an innovative management information system (MIS). MIS requires the use of computers and other electronic means for data and information processing and analysis.

Various suggestions have been discussed in the earlier units of this course on how to improve the nation's database. They include conducting quality censuses, establishing a data bank, and widening access to necessary data and information from official sources.

b. Infrastructural Decay

There is unprecedented infrastructural dilapidation at the national, state, local, and institutional levels in Nigeria. It may be difficult

to implement any educational policy or plan effectively given the situation on the ground. The school facilities and equipment are in total disrepair at all levels of education. The school buildings are collapsing; the ones still standing have either leaking roofs or no windows and doors. Most schools have few good chairs and tables left for the use of teachers, and enrollment is ever-increasing. Many schools have no library, workshop, or science laboratory. Students are only exposed to practical classes in the sciences when final examinations are approaching. Many schools are not connected to electricity and water, and even where they are, the services are either epileptic or hardly provided.

In the face of this decay, it may be difficult to meaningfully implement any policy, especially in the nation's public institutions. For example, it may be difficult to effectively implement the policy of vocational and technological education without electricity and a functioning workshop. The security facilities are even inadequate for the protection of the few facilities and equipment available. 147 To realize the nation's aspirations in all ramifications, there should be serious infrastructural development, repair, and maintenance. The teaching-learning environment should be improved to facilitate policy implementation.

c. Inadequate Quality Manpower

It has been revealed that large numbers of the teaching staff in the country's school system are either unqualified or underqualified (FRN, 2006). At the same time, capacity building and staff development are inadequate. This problem varies from state to state; while some have surplus unemployed, trained teachers, others are faced with gross inadequacy. Teachers constitute a major factor in the implementation of educational policies and plans. The capacity of the training institutions to produce quality teachers is worrisome. The quality of students admitted to be trained as teachers is becoming worrisome. The mode of training at some institutions is also worrisome. Many of the part-time teacher training programs require urgent review. In addition, infrastructural support for teacher training programs is inadequate. Apart from the problem of the quality of teachers, there is no effective system of staff deployment, leading to many teachers being assigned to teach subjects or courses outside of their specialization.

d. Inequitable Education Opportunities

The National Policy on Education provides that access to educational opportunities should be made equal for all citizens of the country at all levels. However, the education sector has been found to display serious inequalities in terms of gender and geographical distribution of educational opportunities during implementation. The FRN (2006) noted that "there is a sharp divide between rural and urban

areas and between Northern and Southern states." Some states have as many as ten private and public universities, while others have none. This is the same practice with other educational facilities across states and the nation. Most quality teachers are posted to urban schools at the expense of rural schools. Schools in urban areas have more teaching and learning facilities than rural schools. Persons with special needs are not well catered for in the educational policy implementation. The equality of educational opportunities has become a serious challenge for policymakers and educational managers.

e. Poor Governance and Management

In Nigeria, government and educational management structures are overly bureaucratic. The federal ministry of education has the highest number of departments and agencies. In some situations, functions are duplicated, which could lead to confusion and conflict. Sometimes government activities are too centralized to give effective direction to policy implementation. All these could lead to ineffectiveness and a lack of decisive action. Situations like this could lead to the inconsistency of educational policies. According to Aghenta (2003), many educational plans have been abandoned before they are ready for implementation due to inconsistent directives and counter-directives from the government ministry and its many agencies. You will remember the policies of school takeover and handover between federal and state governments in the past, as well as between states and religious bodies.

f. Inefficient Resource Allocation and Utilization

Financial and physical resources are essential for policy planning and implementation. But observations have shown a gross inefficiency in the ways resources are allocated, and particularly how resources are utilized by the institutions and agencies responsible for policy implementation. We read daily of money stolen or misappropriated by officers of many institutions. Some are facing financial mismanagement charges at the ICPC and EFCC. The internal control of financial utilization is very inadequate in many educational institutions. To address the problem, a system of accountability should also be put in place, which should involve adequate monitoring and auditing. There should also be a stable mechanism for rational financial allocation and the judicious use of resources. If funds are judiciously allocated and utilized, it will positively affect the ways physical resources are also allocated, utilized, and maintained. In addition to the problem of allocation and utilization, there is the problem of the seemingly inadequate funding of education and the inability of stakeholders to agree on rational ways of funding education in the country. Adesina cited in Aghenta succinctly attributed the financial constraint to:

- lack of adequate funding
- underestimation of the cost of an educational program

- overestimation of the anticipated financial resources for education
- the inability of the government to mobilize the people's support for public education
- wastage or division of the money meant for education

g. Disturbing Standard of Education and Quality Assurance Mechanism

Today, there is serious dissatisfaction with public education at all levels in Nigeria. The argument centers on the falling standard of inputs into plan implementation, which, as it is today, cannot guide the nation's educational system to achieve its goals and national aspirations. This skepticism about the standard of the public education system has led to an unprecedented expansion of private schools at all levels, where things do not seem to fare better. Despite this problem, the quality assurance mechanism is not strong enough to coordinate the plethora of inspection and monitoring agencies and departments put in place at all levels of education. The inspection and monitoring units and agencies always list their own constraints, which include inadequate human and material resources to function effectively. This is why many institutions cannot even meet the minimum standards set for their operations and policy implementation. A lot needs to be done in this regard to improve the nation's standard of education.

h. Rapid Growth of the Nation's Population

Nigeria's population was 55.6 million in 1963. By 2006, a period of 43 years, the population had risen to about 178 million (more than a 30% growth rate). The structure of the country's population has always shown a large youth base. This is the group that requires education at all levels, and this gives rise to demand in excess of the capacity of education. Nwadiani concluded that the inability to cope with the explosion of learners in the nation's school system could affect the implementation of education programs and plans. Nwankwo also remarked that the result of the high rate of population growth is that bold educational targets and plans very quickly get out of hand. This is because various expansion targets and policy plans for their realization are often unrealistic because of the explosion in the youth population.

i. The Rising Cost of Education

The problem of inflation and the unstable performance of the economy often impact the cost of education. The cost of providing educational facilities and equipment and the salaries and allowances of personnel to implement educational policies and plans is always rising. In this situation, the unit cost of education will soar, as will the total cost. Very recently, a bag of cement cost less than $5,000.00, but today, the cost is $10,000.00. There is no implementation of policies on school expansion and building rehabilitation that will not be hampered,

especially during this period of economic meltdown across the globe. Teachers are equally demanding an increase in their wages to enable them to cope with the rising cost of living. In situations like this, decision-makers are forced to cut costs by amending plans and cutting targets. The implementation process is most often disrupted and aborted to save money. The rising cost is often a function of macro-economic indices and is internationally dictated, which makes internal cost adjustment and reduction efforts difficult.

j. Non-Implementation of Policies and Plans as Conceived

The educational system in Nigeria has witnessed various policy enactments and plans. Unfortunately, many of them never saw the light of day. In a few cases, they are implemented, but there is no full implementation. Many ends up on the papers on which they are prepared and designed, either as blue-print or white-paper. Many well-intentioned policies in the past were aborted in the course of implementation. This was common during military rule, when the polity was very unstable due to coups and counter-coups. A new regime of rulers always failed to sustain the implementation of the educational policies and programs of their predecessors. Instability of governance did a lot of havoc in this regard for a long time in the country. It is hoped that with the serious implantation of democratic governance, the situation may change for the better. However, it is envisaged that different political parties with different visions and manifestoes may not

implement educational policies and plans in the same way. For example, the recent teachers' salary adjustment has not been implemented or has been partially implemented by some states. Even the payment of the counterpart funds by states in the funding arrangement for UBE implementation has not been fully done. Many states have boldly antagonized the plan of providing the UBE children with a midday meal. Situations where educational policies are not implemented or partially implemented cannot usher in educational development that could aid in the realization of national aspirations.

REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Adeyemi, J. K. (1995). Stages in the Planning Process. Peretomode, V. F. (Ed.), Introduction to Educational Administration, Planning, and Supervision (pp. 145–155). Lagos: JOJA Publishers.

Aghenta, J. A. (1993). Principles and Practices of Educational Planning: Focus on the Developing Countries. Benin City: NSEP.

FRN (2004). National Policy on Education (NPE). Lagos: Federal Republic of Nigeria (FRN).

FRN (2006), National Framework for Education. Unpublished draft.

Nwankwo, J. I. (1981). Educational Planning: Theory and Methods. Lahore/Karachi: IZHARSONS.

Nwadiani, M. (2000). Economic Dimensions of Educational Planning in Nigeria: Theory and Practice. Benin City: Monose Amalgamates.

Chapter Nineteen

EDUCATION FINANCE

I. Terminologies in Educational Finance

The concern of school finance or educational finance is the relationship between cost and expenditure in the production of educational services. The real cost of an activity is not simply the money spent on it, but the alternative opportunities that have to be foregone or sacrificed when a particular choice is made. Resources allocated to an activity can either be measured in terms of expenditure (paid or money value) or in real terms (opportunity cost); it could be time put in by the teachers and students and services rendered by physical facilities (buildings, equipment, and furniture) with respect to an educational process.

The measurement of real costs is based on the opportunity cost concept. In other words, if a particular choice of an activity has been made, then the opportunity cost of that activity is the alternative opportunities that have been given up. For example, for a student, the opportunity cost of attending a secondary school is represented by the

alternative way he could have spent his time, among others. For the purpose of achieving quality education delivery, both institutional and student financing require adequate attention, and this is what education finance is all about.

The goal of education finance is to ensure adequate provision and effective utilization of available resources while at the same time exploring alternative strategies to ensure a continuous inflow of resources for sustainable education. Oguntoye defines educational financing as the process of procuring and disbursing financial resources for the provision of education to a given standard stipulated by a society. Olagboye defines education finance as a means by which money is provided for the development and maintenance of the entire education system. All activities that are geared towards the process of sourcing, allocating, and managing public school revenues in the production of educational services for the attainment of educational objectives constitute education finance.

Education finance can be further classified into two categories, namely, institutional finance and student finance. Institutional finance relates to the cost of servicing the various inputs into the educational system, such as human and physical resources. On the other hand, student finance can be defined as any form of assistance or aid by means of the provision of money or material resources (books, equipment,

stationery, or materials) given to the students in need to complement the limited resources available to them in the course of their studies or to help pay for their educational expenses. This can be in the form of scholarships, loans, grants, bursaries, graduate fellowships, foreign aid, donations, and exchange programs. Some of the basic terminologies that are frequently used during discussions on education finance will now be examined. These terminologies include public finance, budgeting, taxation, revenue, expenditure, cost, and investment.

a. Public Finance

This refers to the government's securing of financial resources to pay for goods and services that the citizens enjoy. It concerns the need for revenue, expenditure, and debt operations by the government and the impact of these on society. It also relates to the effects of collecting and spending money on the economy and society, with a view to bringing about reforms in revenue and expenditure processes. Public finance tends to concentrate on an assessment of how to reform the revenue and expenditure of the government and an examination of the reform of individual taxes.

b. Budgeting for Education

This encompasses the process of financial allocation built on the education plan of a nation, balanced with an adequate income plan and corresponding spending plan. A budget is meant to reflect the overall

plan of an organization (in this case, an education system) in addition to the requirements to achieve the plan.

c. Revenue

This is the money that governments receive from services they provide or through taxes. This implies that revenue can be internally generated or externally generated. It is external when money comes in through taxes, but it becomes internal when it is through the provision of certain services. It is, however, important to note that internally generated revenue is a rarity in government organizations. Therefore, the bulk of revenue accruing to the government is mainly through externally generated revenue, mainly through taxes and special levies.

d. Education Costs

The ways in which costs are classified vary greatly. Costs can be measured and defined in many different ways. Indeed, the classification of educational costs raises a lot of economic, financial, institutional, and technical questions: What has to be sacrificed? When does money have to be paid? Who has to pay? And what is the function of the inputs? The answers to these complex issues and problems vary with regards to the various bodies or groups of individuals who take decisions regarding the various aspects of costs and revenue within the educational system. Education costs are of various types, and examples include money costs and opportunity costs. Money costs refer to money spent on the inputs

that are used in the educational process. The inputs include items such as the time of teachers, students, and other staff, books, materials, equipment, and buildings. Money costs are also known as direct costs.

Opportunity costs of education refer to all the real values of the alternatives, which have to be foregone in order to provide or consume education. These include earnings forgone by the students in order to enroll in educational institutions rather than seek paid employment and sacrifices made by society in order to provide education for its citizens.

e. Cost and Expenditure

Cost, to a nonprofessional, is narrowly defined as the money value incurred in the process of production. However, to the economist, cost involves not only money spent but also the alternative forgone in order to produce a given item or service. The Dictionary of Modern Economics defined cost as a measure of what must be surrendered or given up in order to acquire, obtain, or produce an item. On the other hand, expenditure is viewed as the amount of resources that are directly spent or expended on the procurement of goods or services. Expenditure on education in the budgetary sense, therefore, is the monetary value of resources assigned to educational institutions during a given year. Nevertheless, this does not reflect the 'true cost' or 'real cost' of education. The 'cost' or 'real cost' of education is the alternative opportunities that have to be sacrificed or forgone in the process of

providing educational services. For example, the opportunity or real cost of building a new university is the alternative projects that are forgone, such as health, roads, telecommunication, building technical schools, primary schools, and so on. Thus, "cost in education represents the value of all resources, in terms of money and sacrifice, used to accomplish educational projects". Indeed, the inputs of education can be measured in terms of money or of real resources that are used up in the educational process, such as students, teachers, and other staff, as well as books, materials, equipment, and buildings, all of which have alternative uses.

f. Investment

This refers to the allocation and use of resources for the production of goods or services that will satisfy human needs. Examples include factories, machinery, and education, with the latter regarded as investment in human capital.

g. Institutional Finance

Institutional costs are incurred by educational institutions in the process of carrying out their activities. These consist of capital costs (expenses on durable items: building, furniture, electricity and water installation, land, equipment, etc.) and current or recurrent costs (expenses on consumable items: teacher and non-teacher salaries and allowances, maintenance, books and stationery, transport, scholarships, etc.). Inadequate institutional finance has implications for the ability of

various institutions to recruit a sufficient number of teachers and provide basic infrastructure. Some of the challenges of inadequate institutional finance include overcrowding, poor sanitation, poor management, and poor intra-sectoral allocation. Other features are abandoned capital projects, inadequate funding, and poor service quality, among others. These perceived inadequacies often lead to poor-quality teaching and poor-quality products. This implies that without a strategic plan for education finance, the quality of education is constrained.

h. Student Finance

It is, however, important to note that initiatives for student finance did not start with the government but with the efforts of the missionaries. Student finance is going to be discussed extensively in this unit because of its volatile nature, as students normally resent any move on the part of the government to introduce any form of levy on them. This is premised on the argument of most students that they are entitled to free education at all levels in view of the enormous wealth of the nation. It is observed that if there is any aspect of education finance that poses a serious challenge to educational administrators and government at various levels, it is student finance.

Student financing in Nigeria dates back to the introduction of Western education by the missionaries in the 19th century, when education was financed through church donations and contributions by

philanthropic organizations and individuals. The colonial administration later contributed through grants, and with the passing of the 1882 Education Ordinance into law, government financial involvement had started.

After independence, student financing by the three regional governments—North, East, and West—was vigorously pursued through financing students for higher education in Nigerian universities and higher institutions in the United Kingdom and the United States of America. This was occasioned by the need to provide high-level manpower for the running of an independent Nigerian state. The buoyant financial resources emanating from the oil boom of the early 1970s after the Nigerian civil war further facilitated financing students.

In order to facilitate student financing, the Nigerian Student Loans Board was established by Decree 25 of 1972 and reconstituted by Decree 12 of 1988, essentially to assist students in financing their education through loans. However, by the early 1980s, the fortunes of student financing began to witness a downward trend. This was mainly due to dwindling financial resources as a result of the economic recession, occasioned by the fall in oil prices and the reduction of export quotas by OPEC; political instability; overspending on other sectors at the expense of education; and the growth and expansion of higher institutions, coupled with the free education policy at all levels during the civilian

democratic regime.

The decade 1980–1990 witnessed a general decline in student financing, such that Federal Government-sponsored overseas scholarships were suspended in 1985; awards under the Bureau on External Aid (BEA) tenable in Eastern European countries were equally suspended due to the break-up of the Russian Federation; scholarship awards tenable in Nigerian higher institutions became reduced to one thousand (1,000) postgraduate awards only; and even then, payment of allowances was always in arrears. In 1993, efforts were made to revamp student financing with the establishment of the Nigerian Education Bank by Decree 50 of 1997. The Bank was to provide financial assistance to students in the country's institutions of higher learning, as well as individuals in both the public and private sectors that participate in the educational sector; to make provision for all inadequacies of the defunct Students Loans Board; to provide loans to students to finance their education in institutions of higher learning; and to approve and disburse loans for educational purposes. The defunct Nigerian Education Bank could not take off effectively due mainly to insufficient finance, administrative bottlenecks, and low repayments from student beneficiaries. With the phasing out of the Nigerian Education Bank, the student loan scheme was equally suspended, thereby narrowing the opportunity for students' assistance towards their education (Bello, 2002).

In 1999, at the inception of another civilian administration, attempts were made to improve student finance, with some funds committed to the resuscitation of the Federal Scholarship Board to aggressively pursue proactive student financing programs for the benefit of teeming qualified Nigerian students. However, there were indications that more avenues for sourcing funds must be explored to meet the growing demands for financial assistance by the numerous qualified students desiring to further their education.

The three tiers of government, namely, the federal, state, and local, through the award of scholarships and bursaries by their agencies, assisted in student financing in Nigeria. At the federal level, the Federal Scholarship Board formulates policies on student financing, implements various scholarship programs of the Federal Government tenable in the country and abroad, and coordinates the policies and programs of state scholarship boards in order to guide and streamline scholarship programs nationwide. The Federal Government Scholarship Awards are for students who are in the various institutions in their second year of study and above and who have scored a minimum of 3.0 Cumulative Grade Point Aggregate (CGPA) in the previous academic year's examination. For a scholar to continue to enjoy the award, a 3.00 CGPA must be attained. The people in difficult circumstances (the handicapped) are given automatic scholarships after participating in the

due process of the award, that is, attending school, attaining a CPGA of 3.00 or more, completing and submitting a duly endorsed application form, and attending an interview. The awards are targeted mainly at indigent students to help them gain access to higher education.

II. Financial Resources in the School System

The National Policy on Education sees education as an expensive social service that requires adequate financial provision from all tiers of government for successful implementation of educational programs. Education is not free. It has become abundantly clear that government sources alone cannot meet the country's educational needs. The concept of education has far-reaching financial implications for other competing social services and the ordering of national priorities. Eresimadu posits that it has become absolutely necessary to proficiently exploit other avenues for generating school funds as well as embark on cost-saving devices to be followed by prudent management. These include;

1. **School Fees:** The serious financial constraints in the face of widespread demand for education call for the contribution of beneficiaries of education in terms of payment of fees. It was in this regard that O'Donogline asserted that it would be quite feasible to specify a period of compulsory education and still charge fees. In this case, a fee is charged

to every child that attends school.

2. **Education Levies:** This is a sort of education levie imposed on every taxable adult. This may be referred to as our capitation or education rate.
3. **Taxes:** In countries like the U.S.A., more funds accrue to education from taxes; income, profit, and property taxes have substantial contributions to make to education; others are wealth taxation and value-added taxation to help supplement the government's efforts.
4. **Endowment Fund:** Rich citizens could assist education by means of endowments. These are funds made available by individual citizens who have the resources, especially for the advancement of education.
5. **School Commercial Activities:** Students should be partially self-supporting so that they may develop a sense of financial responsibility, dignity of labor, and an understanding of the cost of education. A survey conducted in Lagos in 1975, according to Adesina showed that schools make up to half of the total returns in fees from such activities as sales of agricultural products, arts and crafts, raffles, etc. Schools could also raise money from the sales of uniforms, books, the rent of halls, etc.
6. **Non-Monetary Measures and Cost-Saving Devices:** Schools could receive support from both internal and

external sources, such as UNESCO, UNICEF, USAID, etc. DULE 1: Introduction to Educational Management and Planning.

These forms include:

i) Supply of expatriate teachers as well as teaching and learning materials.

ii) Scholarships for studies abroad.

iii) Financing of institutions in cooperation with the government, communities, or private individuals.

7. **Federal Aid:** Since the Federal Government has a more powerful taxation ability and since oil revenue has boosted its financial strength, a percentage of Federal Government revenue should be allocated to each state in the Federation for educational purposes.

III. Constraints on Student Financing in Nigeria

In Nigeria, student financing, primarily reliant on government scholarship and bursary schemes, faces numerous challenges arising from a lack of diversified funding sources and agencies. These issues manifest in various ways:

1. Finance stands as the cornerstone of student financing, yet funding for award programs remains a significant

constraint. The allocation of funds for scholarship programs is contingent upon the economic climate and the prevailing political will.

2. The Federal Scholarship Board, tasked with administering student financing programs on behalf of the Federal Government, grapples with dwindling financial allocations. This decline is intensified by:

- A surge in the number of students seeking advanced qualifications, leading to heightened demand for financial assistance and diminishing availability of foreign bilateral and multilateral awards.
- Stringent criteria for foreign awards, including proficiency in a foreign language, impeding the optimal utilization of available awards.
- Absence of effective coordination among various scholarship programs.
- Incomplete development and coordination of cost-sharing mechanisms between the government and the private sector, hampering private sector and commercial bank involvement in student financing initiatives.

- Ineffectiveness of the Nigerian Student Loans Board and the Nigerian Education Bank.

Bureaucratic bottlenecks within the Federal Scholarship Board, situated as a department within the Federal Ministry of Education. These bottlenecks hinder collaboration with non-governmental, private, and commercial entities, as well as government agencies and corporations, thereby restricting the expansion of student financing programs.

IV. Solutions to the Constraints Facing Student Financing

According to Aminu prior to 1975, the government had nothing to do with fixing fees and charges for the universities. The government supported their own candidates, and others sponsored their candidates. In 1975, the Federal Government decided to step in because there was oil money. Universities were ordered not to charge fees for undergraduate courses and pegged feeding arrangements at 15 kobo per meal and lodging at N30 per session. In 1977, the government discovered that it could not sustain the misguided generosity, and a review was ordered. A national crisis, following attempts by the government to increase the cost of a meal from 15 kobo to 50 kobo and lodging from N30 to N45 per session, erupted in April 1978. Many Nigerians lost their lives in the ensuing crisis. He added that by first abolishing fees and pegging feeding and lodging charges in most educational institutions, governments have lost enormous sources of revenue for education. It is doubtful if any

civilian government in this country would wish to face the commotion that could follow any attempt to reintroduce tuition fees or to increase charges in our educational institutions.

The reality on the ground is that the government cannot cope with the financial demand of the educational sector in Nigeria. Therefore, a realistic funding strategy is required to ensure the quality delivery of educational services. The model that has worked in other developed nations around the world might be considered, bearing in mind the peculiarities of the situation in Nigeria. For instance, the Federal Government in principle agreed that parents should share part of the cost of financing their children's education, but not until the financial status of their parents has improved. The question is, when is their financial status going to improve, or how do you determine whether there has been an improvement in their financial status?

The following recommendations are therefore suggested for the improvement of student financing in Nigeria:

- The private and social benefits of education require that the government, students and/or their families, and other stakeholders, such as employers of labor, contribute significantly to student financing.

- There is a need for all the stakeholders in education to agree on a realistic cost-sharing formula. For instance, parents must be willing to bear part of the cost of sending their children to school instead of expecting the government to shoulder the entire responsibility.

- There should be diversification of sources of funding through the active participation of banks, public and private enterprises, foundations, World Bank agencies, the Education Tax Fund, and other relevant agencies.

- Proper estimation of the unit cost of education at all levels is necessary to ensure adequate provision of the necessary financial support.

- Effective coordination of the various activities of the stakeholders is necessary to ensure a harmonious relationship.

- Restoration of scholarships, loans, and bursaries with consideration for the real unit cost of training at different levels of education to cater for less privileged students.

- Introduction of tax holidays as an incentive for various employers of labor to support student financing.

- Resuscitation of the Student Loans Scheme, but with active involvement of the family. Some banks are already doing this as part of their social responsibility, but a syndicated loan scheme from which parents can take loans at very low interest should be put in place.

- Reviving and reviewing educational bilateral agreements with friendly nations (such as the United States of America, France, Germany, Japan, India, Eastern Europe, South and North Africa, the Middle East, and Latin American countries) to include scholarship award articles in the agreements.

V. Methods of Funding Education

The increasing cost and increasing public expenditure on education, especially in developing countries, have given rise to what observers and education economists regard as the financial crisis in public education. Therefore, there is a need to consider who the beneficiaries of educational investment are and who bears the burden of education costs. Most studies reviewed revealed varied opinions on who

should bear the burden of education financing. Eze for example, noted that financing education has been a controversial issue on which no consensus has been reached among economists on how best it can be done. Kayode argues that in deciding how to distribute the burden of education expenditure in Nigeria, the national objective should be taken into consideration. Thus, for example, in order to realize two of the national objectives: building a just and egalitarian society and a free and democratic society, he felt that primary education should be provided without making private individuals bear the burden.

The private sector should be actively involved beyond this level. In the same vein, O'Donoghue believes that if education were treated as an activity of purely personal concern, then the students and their families would be made to pay the cost of their own education, but if it is viewed as having returns that accrue to the community, then public sector financing, both on the demand and supply sides, would be adopted in the form of subsidies. While justifying the need for subsidies in education, Woodhall asserts that in most countries, higher education is financed by a combination of public and private sources of funds. According to Woodhall, the cost per pupil in higher education tends to be much higher than the cost per pupil at any other level of education. He went further to say that even if universities charge fees, these generally do not represent the full cost of tuition, so some form of subsidy is required to finance the current and capital expenditures of universities. Mbanefoh and Shared

(1979) share the same view on determining the share of the burden of education through the consideration of the beneficiaries of educational investment. According to Mbanefoh, though the private return to higher education is high, the externalities are equally high.

Therefore, the public sector should continue to aid students through subsidies and loans. Sheehan notes that various levels of education are largely financed by the public sector because of the increasing emphasis on issues such as the education-manpower link and social returns to education, as well as the fact that there has been a widespread political commitment to educational opportunity and making education available to those who cannot afford to pay. There appears to be a consensus that, because of the peculiar nature of education, which makes it a'merit' good (that is, neither purely private nor purely public good), the provision of education funds should be a joint responsibility of the private and public sectors.

The Federal Government of Nigeria, for example, asserts that education is an expensive social service. She thus believed that the three tiers of government as well as local communities, individuals, and other organizations should participate in the financing of education. Osisioma notes that fees constitute a means of getting parents and guardians to participate in the financing of their children's education. It should be noted, however, that the level of education exerts influence on the

degree of participation between the public and private sectors, as suggested by Kayode. It has been observed that a major issue in many developing countries is how the cost of education should be shared between public and private sources of funding and what mechanisms should be used to allocate resources between institutions.

Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development

There has been considerable research in recent years on alternative methods of financing education institutions and providing financial support for students. Studies have revealed significant changes during the 1980s in methods of financing higher education. For instance, a survey by the OECD examined the trends and patterns of finance in thirteen OECD countries and showed that in most countries, higher education faced increasing public funding due to the economic recession and shifting public priorities, and that universities and other higher education institutions were required to respond by seeking new sources of funding and adopting a more "market-oriented" approach to funding and income generation. It has been found that universities in developing countries face severe financial constraints. Hinchliffe shows that this is particularly severe in Africa, but an examination of the patterns of finance for developing countries by the World Bank shows that everywhere, higher education institutions faced dwindling budgets, increased pressure on resources, and an urgent need to improve

efficiency and tap new sources of finance.

A number of recommendations have therefore been made for the reform of higher education finance in developing countries. These include a shift in the balance between public and private funding, increased cost recovery, and greater reliance on loans rather than grants as a form of financial support for students. Some of these changes are being considered or introduced as elements of the Structural Adjustment Programs (SAP), while in other developing countries, governments are also experimenting with new sources and mechanisms for funding institutions and students. The question of whether student support should be provided by means of grants, scholarships, loans, or other means, or whether cost recovery through fees or a graduate tax is feasible or desirable, on the grounds of efficiency or equity, has provoked considerable controversy in many countries.

The role of education in the socio-political and economic development of a nation, as discussed in the preceding sections, is indispensable. To this end, individuals, institutions, and the government participate in financing education. There are two basic methods by which an education system can be financed, namely, a centrally versus locally financed education system and a publicly versus privately financed education system.

1. Centrally Funded Versus Locally Funded Education Systems

A locally funded education is centrally financed if the financial burden of education is borne by the central or federal government with no financial involvement from the regional, state, or local governments. On the other hand, education is said to be locally financed when the financial burden of education is borne by the regional, state, or local governments. For example, in Nigeria, education is placed under the concurrent legislative list. This implies that the financial burden of education is the joint responsibility of the state, federal, state, and local governments. It is important to note that education that is centrally funded will enhance uniform standards, while locally financed education is prone to political pressure in many aspects, thereby leading to variation in standards.

2. Public versus Privately Financed Education System

Education is said to be public-financed when it involves primarily the use of general tax revenue. In several cases, tax revenue is supplemented by user charges. For education to be solely public-financed, the following conditions must hold:

3. Joint and Equal Consumption

A solely publicly funded education system must not generate gains or losses that can be assigned to any individual. The consumption of education should be necessarily joined and, at the same time, equal.

Equal consumption implies that the more there is for one person, the more and not less there should be for another. The joint consumption implies that the benefits or losses of education are not divisible and, as such, make it practically impossible to assign the benefits or losses to any particular person. Therefore, everybody is motivated to avoid paying for public education.

4. Imperfect Market Condition

Under this condition, education bears no price tag, and therefore it is very difficult to put into the market. To this end, there will be a need for education to be publicly financed. In other words, if an individual decides to pay for education and such payment does not affect the quantity of education provided, then such an individual will not be motivated to pay, thus necessitating that education be publicly financed. It must be noted that under normal conditions, a rise in price ought to lead to a rise in quantity supplied as well as a fall in the quantity demanded by the price of education. There is a need for public-financed education.

5. Deregulation of Administrative Control

There must not be any administrative rationing of the supply of education if education is to be publicly financed. Any limitation on the quantity of education supplied is technically equivalent to pricing education or selectivity, which implies rejection and discrimination

against some people. This will lead to a breakdown of joint and equal consumption conditions. Where the conditions discussed above cannot hold, there is a need for education to be privately financed. It is glaring that the government cannot solely finance education without the involvement of private individuals who benefit from it. It thus implies that education should be publicly and privately financed.

6. Private Financing of Education

The use of direct user charges as the main source of educational funding is referred to as private financing of education. Usually, consumers of educational services are asked to supplement taxes by paying part of the cost of educational services; this may tend to increase private costs of education, thus reducing private net benefits of education. It should be noted that, directly or indirectly, the burden of educational finance falls on parents. Direct finance is in the form of monetary and material provisions for children's schooling, while parents contribute indirectly through taxes, levies, rates, donations, etc. to fund education.

7. Rationale for Private Financing of Education

The following are some of the conditions that make private financing of education inevitable. a reduction in national income. This has led to dwindling budgetary allocations to the education sector. Thus, fees are being charged, and meal subsidies have been removed,

especially in tertiary institutions. b. c. d. inter-sectoral competition for public funds. Other sectors, such as defense, transport and communication, sports, etc., have competed for public funds in recent times. There is thus a drastic curtailment in educational investment. Private sources are therefore sought to supplement public expenditure available for education. The expenditure factor in the share of education in public spending is usually large. Population and enrollment increases have the tendency to increase this trend. A larger share may not be feasible with time (see b above). There is therefore a need to supplement private financing. A selective system of user charges is necessary in countries where subsidy on education benefits 'wealthy' children more than others. This is on the basis of the equity principle, which demands that subsidizing education should neither make the poor poorer nor the richer.

VI. Conditions Under Which Private Financing Can Succeed

Private financing of education is likely to succeed if the following conditions are met: a. b. c. d. Where there is fiscal constraint on the expansion of a heavily subsidized educational system

Where social payoffs are low, there is a tendency for overexpansion, a mismatch, and an eventual incidence of unemployment. Private financing may be used to discourage enrollment. Where there is an inefficient incentive structure to be made prudent.

Private financing tends to make users more investors than consumers by scrutinizing costs more closely and reducing waste.

Where there is a need to generate additional revenue to supplement government expenditure on education.

VII. Factors Influencing the Allocation of Resources to Education

Economics and educational planners have over the years shown greater interest in resource allocation problems. Consequent upon increasing financial constraints on educational investment, the search for alternative sources of financing educational investment has been embarked upon and intensified in developing countries. According to Fafunwa public financing of education started in 1877, when the colonial administration provided an annual amount of 200 pounds to each of the three missions involved in the establishment of schools in Lagos Colony. Since then, successive governments have been allocating a given amount to education in view of the need to use education for the needed scientific, technological, socio-political, and economic reawakening of the country. The government usually allocates a sizeable proportion of its revenue to education in order to enhance national development. According to Ajayi the proportion of national revenue that will be allocated to education is influenced by several factors, among which are the growth rate of the national economy, the world market condition,

competition from other sectors of the economy, the nature of the sources of revenue, and the nation's policy on education.

a. The Growth of the National Economy

Education contributes to economic growth through increased gross domestic product arising from the additional training of the labor force. To this end, the government devotes resources to education. However, the proportion of national resources that will be devoted to education will depend on the rate of economic growth of a nation. If the economic growth rate is low, it may be difficult for the government to devote more resources to education.

b. The World Market Condition

Agriculture is the mainstay of most African states. As a result of this, the price of agricultural products in the world market determines their national income. However, fluctuations in the world price of agricultural products make it difficult for these countries to decide the proportion of national revenue that should be allocated to education on an annual basis. Presently, the dominant source of national revenue in Nigeria is oil. Therefore, the federal government's budget is usually predicated on the price of oil in the international market. For instance, Adelabu observed that the world-wide shortage of many raw materials experienced immediately after the Second World War resulted in a phenomenal increase in the export trade of Nigeria. As a result of the

increase in revenue, the then colonial government freed a large sum of money as government grants-in-aid towards expanding the existing inadequate educational facilities while improving existing standards. The current crisis in the Niger Delta area of Nigeria that culminated in the invasion by the Joint Task Force and the subsequent amnesty program put in place by the federal government are meant to ensure steady oil exploration, which is the mainstay of the nation's economy. This is because once there is a disruption in the production of oil or if there is a setback in the price of oil in the international market, there will be a negative impact on the nation's economy.

c. Competition from Other Sectors of the Economy

The revenue of a country is distributed among the various sectors of the economy in order to foster national development. Education is one of these sectors, and its share of the national revenue depends on the needs of other sectors of the economy. When other sectors call for more attention from the government, the proportion of national revenue devoted to education may decrease. For instance, 13.5 percent of the gross public investment during the Second National Development Plan was allocated to education. The reduction in the proportion of revenue allocated to education could be attributed to competing demands from other sectors of the economy.

d. The Nature of Sources of Revenue

This determines a country's budgetary allocation to education. If a country relies on only one source of revenue, it may not be able to adequately finance education when compared with other countries that diversify their sources of revenue. For example, Nigeria's sole reliance on oil revenue could retard educational development in the country due to fluctuations in oil prices in the world market, which could adversely affect the government's financial commitment to the sector. If there is diversification of the nation's sources of revenue, the federal government would have more sources from which to derive revenue. This scenario would guarantee greater allocation to education.

e. The Nation's Policy on Education

The educational policy of a nation is a statement of educational aims and objectives and the procedures for achieving them. It creates a sense of direction and unity of purpose among the individuals and various agencies involved in the administration of education in a country. If the main focus of the educational policy of a nation is on the provision of technologically-based education rather than literary education, a greater proportion of the government's revenue may be devoted to technologically-based education. Similarly, where the government is expected to play a dominant role in the attainment of educational objectives, a greater proportion of its revenue will be devoted to education than where the private sector is expected to play such a role.

REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Ajayi, I. A & Ayodele, J.B (2002). Fundamentals of Educational Management. Ado Ekiti: Greenline Publishers.

Borode, M. (2006)." Cost Benefit Analysis of Education." In: Babalola, Ayeni, Adedeji, Suleiman & Arukewuyo (Ed) Educational Management: Thoughts and Practice> Ibadan: Codat Publications.

Ibadin, V.O. (2004)." Economics and Financing of Education," In: Nwagwu, Ijeoma & Nwagwu (Ed) Organisation and Administration of Education: Perspective and Practices.

Longe, R.S. (1988). Fundamentals of Educational Planning. Akure: Fagbamiye Publishers.

National Open University (2012). Education Finace. Abuja: National Open University. Olagboye, A.A (2004). Introduction to Educational Management in Nigeria. Ibadan: Daily Graphics (Nigeria Limited).

Chapter Twenty

SCHOOL BUDGET

Introduction

The three major financial functions in education budgeting, accounting, and auditing—are separate, discrete operations, but they are nonetheless closely interrelated. They are required to provide reliable fiscal information, guidance, and accountability in the use of the allocated funds. Budgeting is a process and plan for determining how money is to be raised and spent, as well as documenting the budget developed and approved during the budgeting process. Money is organized and spent according to an accounting system, using a general ledger that standardizes each spending category and accounts for its use. Auditing, however, is a formal or official inspection of an organization's books of account.

I. The Meaning of a Budget

Every reasonable individual and organization all over the world plans for the present and future. Part of the plan is to forecast how much an individual or organization would realize over a period of time as well

as how much to expend. A forecast of income to be realized and expended is known as a budget. A budget is an itemized summary of estimated or intended expenditures for a given period, along with proposals for financing them. A budget is a two-way proposal, i.e., a proposal on income and a proposal on expenditure. This is why budgeting is given special attention in everyday life, because no organization can perform without income generation and expenditure. At least, every organization must source or generate the salaries of its work force. A budget can also be said to be an analytical financial statement of income and expenditure for a specific period of time. It can also be said that it is a systematic plan for the expenditure of a usually fixed resource, such as money or time, during a given period. From this point of view, time can also be regarded as one of the resources that must be budgeted for, just like we budgeted for money. The budget could be deficit, surplus, or balanced. It could be a deficit when the proposed expenditure is more than the proposed income, but when the proposed income is more than the proposed expenditure, the budget is a surplus. However, when the proposed income equals the proposed expenditure, it is referred to as a balanced budget.

II. The Meaning of the School Budget

Hartman defined the school budget as a working tool for the successful operation of state and local schools and a significant opportunity to plan the mission, improve their operations, and achieve

their educational objectives the school budget is a financial blueprint for the operation of the school for the fiscal year. Musaazi in his own view, perceived the school budget as a financial plan through which educational objectives are being implemented and translated into reality. Edem posited that a school budget is a statement that describes how various educational objectives outlined for the year or another stated period are to be achieved. According to Adesina a school budget is an outline of the plan for financing the school program for a given period.

Okeke pointed out that it is one thing to make funds available for education; it is yet another thing to spend the money wisely. It is imperative that the providers of money for education be satisfied that the spending is legitimately wise; otherwise, if they are not satisfied, they will refuse to make more money available, or else they will specify how the money should be spent. Roe defines an educational budget as the translation of educational needs into a financial plan that is interpreted by the public in such a way that, when formally adopted, it is willing to support financially and morally for a year. Adesina sees the school budget as a plan for financing the school system for a given period and groups it into three parts:

i) Education plan
ii) Expenditure plan
iii) Revenue plan

In a more technical sense, a school budget is a statement of the total educational programs for a given unit, as well as an estimate of the resources to carry out the program and the revenues needed to cover those expenditures. The various definitions show that a school budget is concerned with procedures for funding a school system to accomplish its pre-determined objectives over a period of time. It is an estimated financial standard meant to guide the activities of a school administrator toward the attainment of the aims and objectives of the school system in the financial year. School budgets, like those of local governments, state governments, and federal governments, usually cover a period of one year. The budget reveals the expected income and intended expenditures for a school. The school budget is usually prepared by the school head, though the duty may be delegated to the bursar of the school.

Preparation of a school budget is neither a one-man affair nor a one-department affair. All the departments of the school must be involved in the preparation of the school budget. The school head has to collect information on various activities and the financial needs of each unit from the unit heads and heads of departments so as to incorporate it into the draft of the school budget. In a large school, a budget committee may be appointed by the head of the school to review the various departmental demands and make sure that they are in line with the school objectives. Involvement of a committee or staff in budget

preparation ensures better budgeting and will also serve as encouragement to the staff as well as cooperation when the budget is to be implemented. A school head should not monopolize the preparation of a school budget in order for the budget to incorporate the needs of the various departments of the school.

The budget could be vertical or horizontal. A budget that includes the various income and expenditure estimates by line item, function, and object in a given fiscal year is known as a vertical budget, but when the budget includes current estimates for a given fiscal year compared to prior audited income and expenditures and a projection of costs, it is a horizontal budget.

III. Purpose of a School Budget

The following are some of the reasons why there is a need to prepare a school budget:

(i) to forecast the activities, services, and programs that the appropriate school governing body or council has approved for a given period,

(ii) to reveal the anticipated revenue for a given period and the source

(iii) to show the details of the intended expenditures for the school for a given period,

(iv) to control the official financial activities of the school head, be it at the primary, secondary, or tertiary institution levels.

(v) to reduce to the bearest minimum the level of wastage or reckless spending of approved funds for various educational facilities in the school, and

(vi) to reveal other contributions and pressures on the budget that are expected during the given period.

IV. Methods of Preparing a School Budget

There are various methods of preparing a school budget, some of which are discussed below:

(i) Line Item Budgeting/Traditional Method

This is a method whereby specific items of revenue and expenditure are listed on a line-by-line basis. In this type of budgeting, proposed revenue and expenditure are done in tabular forms showing the detailed items for the budgeted year and one or two previous years. This method allows each unit to continue with the implementation of existing projects because it is backward-looking in preparation and is based on certain increases or decreases in the amounts granted for the preceding year. This method makes the preparation and auditing of budgeting easy and guards against misappropriation of funds. However, it is lengthy to prepare, not good for planning or management, and does not relate to specific projects because the functions of the expenditures

are not explained. For example, teachers' salaries are a budget line item, but it will not explain which teachers, at which schools, teach which type of students.

(ii) Zero-Based Budgeting (ZBB)

Method This method of budgeting was popular in the 1950s and 1960s. However, unlike line-item budgeting, it does not take cognizance of the previous year's budget. It began with the assumption that the school system starts out every year on a clean slate. It puts each program under review every year, and its cost is computed from scratch as if the program never existed. With this assumption, every unit has to justify its expenditures annually by relating all costs to system goals and objectives to prevent arbitrary spending. This method enables the school head to allocate resources to programs based on their importance. Nevertheless, the method is very expensive to implement and could make some school administrators exaggerate the benefits of pet projects in order to have them funded.

(iii) Performance Budgeting Method

This method of budgeting emphasizes the performance of the work to be done. There are ways of measuring the achievement of each program. It is possible to ascertain performance based on each unit of work. For example, if the budget is for the construction of a block of classrooms, the performance budgeting method would not only show

the total amount of money to be spent on the whole block, but it would also show the amount to be spent on the foundation, the setting of blocks, roofing, plastering, wiring, plumbing, painting, etc. This budgeting method is very informative and makes it easy to control school spending, but it requires elaborate accounting, data processing, and a lot of paper work. The inflation rate could also be a treat with this method.

(iv) Program Budgeting Method

When this method is used to prepare the school budget, all the programs to be executed are provided for, but they will be prepared according to the functions, programs, and activities of each unit or department in the school. This means that the school budget will be classified according to the various units and departments in the school. For example, in school, we have units or departments like Business and Vocational, Science and Technology, Language Arts, Humanities, Bursary, Expenditure and Control, General Administration, etc. The program budgeting method will reveal how funds are distributed for various programs in the units and departments of the school. This method reduces the goals and objectives of the school system into specific operations, and the method to accomplish them is determined. However, the type of management information system required may take several years to be developed, thereby delaying its takeoff.

(v) Program-Planning-Budgeting System (PPBS)

This is a new method of preparing school budgets; it requires the school head to spell out or identify the goals and objectives of a school in measurable terms, lay out alternatives to achieve the stated goals, attribute cost to each alternative, analyze the cost implications, then select the best method for achieving the goals, build the budget around the selected option, and finally feed data back to adjust the cost to results. This method was first used by the U.S. Defense Department during the Vietnam War; it seeks greater efficiency by attaching spending to particular programs. The method enables schools to eliminate costly programs that can waste resources; it also helps the school administrator identify and define the goals and objectives of the school, on the basis of which appropriate programs are designed to achieve such goals and objectives. However, while this method sounds ideal, it is too complex for developing countries such as Nigeria, where there is inadequate data to plan with and a shortage of skilled manpower.

V. Importance of the School Budget

The role of the school budget in the administration of a school cannot be overestimated. Some of the importance of the school budget is listed below. Eresimadu in Bosah and Eneasator posits that the following points are the importance and purposes of a budget.

i) The budget helps to project educational programs for the

next year.

ii) It helps to indicate the main sources of funds for the educational program.

iii) It enables variability in prices between one year and the next to be detected for a particular program or item.

iv) It guides the school administrators in disbursing school funds with reference to financial regulations.

v) The public is informed through the budget about the kind of educational program for the children.

vi) It helps the public, individuals, and governments evaluate an academic session's program and recommend improvements for the following years.

vii) The knowledge and experience gained in the implementation of the budget this year will help in better planning and more effective control measures next year and other years.

viii) The budget shows the contributions of individuals, organizations, and local, state, and federal governments to the funding of education. Finally, the success of the school budget should be judged by the extent to which its estimates of receipts and expenditures agree with the actual amount received and expended. Under favorable conditions and in the absence of emergencies, a well-made budget will agree very closely with the actual figures

shown in the annual report.

(ix) The school budget is an instrument of planning and control in the school system because it specifies the financial procedures through which the goals and objectives of the school system can be achieved.

(x) The school budget also serves as an instrument of control because it is an established standard against which the performance of the school system is evaluated.

(xi) The school budget makes it easier to ascertain the extent to which the school has achieved its aims and objectives through the implementation of various programs budgeted for in a year.

(xii) The school budget also reveals the possible inability of the school to implement or achieve some of the programs budgeted for, as this will enable appropriate action to be taken to ensure their implementation or achievement in the future.

(xiii) The school board encourages teamwork among the staff as they work together to achieve common goals and objectives.

(xiv) The school budget also enhances the coordination of the activities of the school by giving financial direction to the various activities being carried out by the school for the purpose of achieving the aims and objectives of the school

system.

VI. Challenges of the School Budget in Nigeria

There are various challenges facing the preparation and implementation of the school budget. Some of them are identified and explained below:

(i) Lack of Accurate Statistical Data

In order for the school to make a working budget, there must be accurate data on past projects and budgets. In some schools, these records are not properly kept, and they are not even available. This makes it difficult for school heads to make accurate financial projections for the school programs, and with this problem, the preparation and implementation of budgets in a school are difficult.

(ii) political instability.

The unstable political environment and policies, as well as the lack of continuity in all government policies in Nigeria, give room to a poor economy. This led to a reduction in the allocation of funds to the public schools, which had an adverse effect on the reparation and implementation of the school budget.

(iii) Inflation

This is a situation whereby too much money buys fewer

goods; inflation is a persistent fall in the purchasing power of citizens of a country. This situation makes the preparation and implementation of the school budget so difficult in Nigeria, where an accurate rate of inflation cannot be ascertained. As a result of this, some budgeted projects may not be implemented due to the rising cost of materials. This makes the preparation of the school budget faulty and makes the implementation very difficult.

(iv) Dependence on Government Grants

The largest source of revenue for public schools in Nigeria comes from the government, while very insignificant financial resources come from other sources and internally generated revenue. The government gives both recurrent and capital expenditures to public schools. Whenever there is a delay in the allocation, the implementation of the budget becomes so difficult to the extent that schools are grounded, and in Nigeria nowadays, government allocation is unpredictable, especially with the trend of the economic situation in the world, where prices of oil, which is the major source of revenue for Nigeria, are fluctuating. This and other problems had reduced the school budget to mere paper work and no longer a working budget.

(v) Insincere School Heads

Most of the school heads in Nigeria are not sincere and are greedy; they misappropriate the allocated funds and also

commit other forms of indiscipline, such as embezzlement, in their schools. This will jeopardize the attainment of the objectives of the school system as contained in the school budget.

(vi) Lack of Orientation for School Heads

Most of the school heads are not given induction training on the assumption of headship positions. They only use their residual knowledge gained when assisting their school head to prepare their budget when they eventually become the school head. To those who do not assist before assuming the headship position, this is a serious threat. Most school heads give this function to their bursars or other delegated staff; this practice does not give room for realistic budgeting.

REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Adesina, S. (1981). Some Aspects of School Management. Ibadan and Abeokuta:

Educational Industries Ltd.

Clab augh, R. E. (1988). The preparation and administration of the budget, in S.

Adesina, and E.O. Fagbamiye, (ed s) Educational Administration. Ibadan:

University Press Ltd .

Edem, D. A. (1987). Introduction to educational administration. Ibadan: Spectrum

Books ltd.

Hartman, W. T. (1999). School district budgeting. Reston; V. A. Association of

School Business Officials International

Musaazi, J. C. (1982): The theory and practice of educational administration.

London: Macmillan Publishers ltd.

National Open University (2008). Principles of Educational Management. Abuja: National Open University.

Chapter Twenty One

SCHOOL DISCIPLINE

Introduction

Discipline in Nigerian schools has long been an issue that is of main concern not only to the government at all levels but also to educational practitioners (private and public). The parents are also not left out when the issue of discipline in school is brought up for discussion. To a very large extent, good schools are usually known for their high level of discipline among their students. The frequent occurrence of students' unrest in Nigerian universities, polytechnics, and colleges of education is a reflection of the level to which discipline has degenerated. It should be noted that, year-in and year-out, people change with time. Students are influenced by their peers and their immediate environment. This type of influence in students' lives is manifested in their relationships with schools and the environment.

Oniyama and Oniyama posited that a problematic child is the one who cannot adjust to socially acceptable norms of behavior and consequently disrupts his or her own personal academic progress, the

learning efforts of his or her classmates, and interpersonal relations. Thus, problematic children denote children with unacceptable behavior. They are found in many schools at various levels, influencing other students negatively and constituting a major source of worry for all educators. The citizens of the country are governed by the laws of the land. These laws also affect all agencies, whether government, inter-ministerial, parastatal, or educational, for the purpose of promoting peace, justice, and equity. It is evident that the purpose of the law is to ensure orderliness in society. So also, the school system needs a conducive teaching and learning environment that is peaceful at all times for functional and productive school work.

I. Meaning of Discipline

The word discipline is derived from the Latin word discipulus, which means to learn. It means a group of people are bound by rules and regulations toward the attainment of common goals. The term discipline is construed in different forms, such as punishment, control, training, and learning. Umukoro posited that discipline is training or learning by an individual to attain self-control, self-will, and self-direction to act in a proper or right manner at the right time and place without being deceived or forced to do so. Idoghor opines that discipline implies procedures and rules, which lead a child to manage his or her behavioral patterns by himself or herself in order to be able to act in a socially acceptable manner. Olagboye has also posited that discipline may be

considered the readiness and ability of students and teachers to respect the constituted authority, observe and obey school rules and regulations, and maintain a high standard of behavior necessary for the smooth running of the teaching and learning process. Discipline, as conceived by various authors, is an internal state of the mind wherein an individual thinks and acts in the proper manner anytime, anywhere, without anybody urging him or her to do so. This is against the discipline that comes forcefully from an external factor so that the individual carries out the intended behavior. The first form of discipline is the positive type, while the second form, which results from external control or force, is the negative type of discipline. The willingness of the students to obey school laws and regulations is expressed in the second form. Therefore, that type of discipline is not desirable. The best form of discipline advocated for the school is self-control, which leads to good behavior without any external force. It is this type of discipline that can foster stability in schools, thereby paving the way for qualitative education.

II. Meaning of Indiscipline

Indiscipline is the direct opposite of discipline, i.e., a lack of discipline. Dittimiya defines indiscipline as any act that does not conform to societal values and norms. Otu also defines it as unruly acts and behaviors, acts of lawlessness, and disobedience to school rules and regulations. From the above, it can be inferred that indiscipline refers to

behaviors that are capable of impeding the achievement of the goals set for institutions. In other words, indiscipline is a violation of school rules and regulations. Indiscipline is capable of obstructing the smooth and orderly functioning of the school system. It can be summarized that indiscipline is any form of misbehavior that the student can display in the following ways: general disobedience to constituted authority, destruction of school property, poor attitude toward learning, abuse of seniority, immoral behavior, drug abuse, stealing, lateness, truancy, dirtiness, quarrelsomeness, use of abusive language, rudeness, etc., as the forms of indiscipline are inexhaustible. Indiscipline can also be said to be the unwillingness of students or teachers to respect the constituted authority, observe, and obey school rules and regulations, and to maintain a high standard of behavior conducive to the teaching and learning process and essential to the smooth ruling of the school to achieve the educational objective with ease. It can also be said that an act of indiscipline is when the students or teachers refuse to obey the rules or a code of behavior set aside by a constituted authority within the educational system or school.

III. The Purpose of School Discipline

1. To facilitate and enhance the attainment of the goals of the school,
2. To create a conducive teaching and learning environment,
3. to produce cultured citizens who will have respect for

themselves and others in society,

4. to help individuals do the right thing all the time without any compulsion,
5. to produce loyal and respectful citizens,
6. to help students develop and have respect for the constituted authority, and
7. to facilitate the creation of a disciplined society where people of various interests learn freely and apply the norms and values of that society.

IV. Causes of Indiscipline in Schools

There are many factors responsible for indiscipline acts among the students in the schools. The behavior of the students usually reflects the society in which they are brought up. Since they are products of society, they mostly exhibit and share in its values and beliefs. The causes of indiscipline in schools are therefore traceable to the parents at home, the headmaster, headmistress, or principal, the teachers in the school, the peer group, the government, and the general public.

i) The Parents

Many parents have abandoned the responsibility of taking care of their children. Some parents have little or no time for the children who are left in the care of house help; hence, many of these children pick up the behavior of the house help, which they exhibit in school. Many

parents are not disciplined either in terms of moral behavior. Some of them embezzle money in their various places of work and tell various lies in their places of work. Everybody knows it is easier to copy bad behaviors than good ones. As the children watch their parents' bad behavior, they practice it, and with time, they become perfect at putting up such bad behaviors.

(ii) The School Staff

The attitude of teachers to work, their appearance (i.e., dressing), their illicit relationships with students, their failure to prepare for class work or lessons, their involvement in examination malpractices, cultism, illegal school fee collection or other fees, their poor learning environment, and the like breed indiscipline among the students.

(iii) The School Head

The inability of the school head, master, mistress, or principal to provide, influence, or have a say in the provision of adequate facilities, employment of qualified staff, encouragement to teachers, and admission of students with poor academic standards into schools may degenerate into various acts of indiscipline on the part of the students whenever there is a need to show their disagreement with some of the policies of the school head.

(iv) The Peer Group

Once a child is of school-going age, he or she spends more time

with peers outside the family where the child is exposed to various pressures from the peers, and with this, there is the possibility that the child may be more influenced by the peer's character where he or she spends most of the time than at home, where less of the child's active time is spent because the peers are in the same age bracket as him. The pressure from peers as well as students characteristics plays a strong role in shaping children's behavior. Some peers have formed gangs that recruit members from among children who have experienced adjustment problems at school and at home. Gangs and peers often create problems for schools by using drugs, encouraging violence among their members, and participating in illegal acts.

(v) The Government

Frequent changes in the government's educational policies, poor funding, a lack of sustainable plans, a distorted value system, corruption, embezzlement, favoritism, nepotism, record alteration, and all negative actions by government agencies, office holders, and mass media breed indiscipline among the students and in society as a whole. The policies that affect the principles and practice of education in Nigeria seem to lack consistency. Different administrations always come out with different policies instead of consolidating the existing ones. This inconsistency does not only affect teachers's morale; it also affects students's interests and wastes their time. Frequent strikes as a result of inconsistent police waste human and material resources, which can also

lead to students' protests and demonstrations.

V. How to Control Indiscipline in the Schools

Indiscipline is an act that can be better prevented than corrected. The following precautions are necessary to prevent the occurrence or re-occurrence of indiscipline acts among the students in schools:.

1. Basic Managerial Skills

The school head should acquire basic managerial skills through training and seminars to improve the technical skills of the school head as well as the knowledge of school head administrative techniques and procedures in order to foster and enhance discipline in school.

2. Appointment of Dedicated, Trained Teachers

Dedicated, professionally trained teachers are those with professional competence who can bring the desired level of professionalism to teaching by ensuring that students comply with the laid-down rules and regulations and that culprits are brought to book.

3. The school Head Should Lead by Example.

Indiscipline can be reduced in schools when the school

heads and other staff members are disciplined, and those who are not disciplined among them should be ready to lose the right to force others to be disciplined.

4. **Prioritize Student Welfare.**

The school management must give high priority to the welfare of the students by providing health centers, sports facilities, a conducive learning environment, water, and regular electricity. They must also meet with the students on a regular basis to know their needs and let them know why some of their demands may not be met, if any.

5. **Establishment of a Guidance and Counseling Service**

This service will promote discipline in schools because it will assist maladjusted students in emotional, social, and personal adjustments. This will reduce frequent indiscipline acts among the students.

6. **Teaching of Moral and Religious Studies**

In schools where we have moral and religious education, more emphasis should be laid on it, and where there is none, it should be introduced. This will instill the fear of God in the students, draw them more closely to God, and make them more obedient than before. Establishment of a

Parent-Teacher Association (PTA). This is a forum where the school head can brief the parents and guardians of students on various acts of indiscipline found among the students, and issues related to disciplinary matters could also be discussed. This forum will allow parents and the school staff to work together to enforce discipline on the students.

REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Dittimaya, I.A. (1995). Discipline in schools in V.F. Peretomode ed s. Introduction to

Educational Administration, Planning and Supervision. Lagos: Joja Educational

Research Pub lishers Ltd .

Idoghor, I.S (2001). Lecture and Counsels to Students and Practitioner. Effurum: Freebo

Printing co.

National Open University (2008). Principles of Educational Management. Abuja: National Open University.

Oniyame, H.O. and Oniyama, E.A. (2002). Introduction to Sociology of Education. A

Social Psychology Analysis. Warn: COEWA Publishers.

Otu, D.O. (1998). Handbook for Headmasters of Primary Schools.

Samaru, Zaria;

S. Asoukome and Co.

Umukoro, J.O (1997): Parents Sup reme Duty and the Society: A Book of Inspiration

and Guidance of developing child ren. Lagos: Joja Educational Research and

Publishers.

Chapter Twenty Two

PATRISTIC EDUCATION

INTRODUCTION

This chapter is a master piece of work by Prof. Clement Chinkambako Abenguni Majawa, from

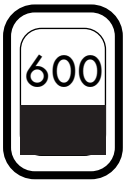
The Catholic University of Eastern Africa, Nairobi, Kenya. The aim is to introduce this area of patristic education into the Nigerian tertiary education system as part of the pedagogy. *Patristic studies* focus on the teachings of the Fathers and their interpretation in different situations. However, since any study has a philosophy (theory) and a practice (spirituality), therefore, patrology (theory) and patristics (experience) are complementary. Although patrology is essentially a theological science, it is also valuable as an auxiliary science to other branches of study such as church history, theological disciplines, philosophy, catechesis, law and jurisprudence, education, social science, politics, economics, counselling, art and architecture, linguistics (Latin, Greek, Hebrew), archaeology, Christian literature, etc. These disciplines involve the methodological application of Patristic science to various life contexts in order to achieve holistic transformation.

Patristic education is not totally new to Africa's intellectual heritage because of some historical similarities in the learning and teaching of wisdom. The scope of the evolution of Patristic education in history covers the development of quality education from the origin of humanity (creation) and gaining intellectual wisdom from the 'Fertile Crescent' region, which stretched from Egyptian, Hellenistic-Roman, Asian, Semitic, and Jewish experiences, climaxed with the Gospel of Jesus Christ and the Christian teaching and intellectual heritage of the Church Fathers. This Christian heritage was passed on throughout centuries to the present as a means of evangelization and social transformation of people.

MISSIONARY CHURCH FOR QUALITY EDUCATION

In the third millennium, education faces new challenges that are the result of losing something original that God had given to humanity at creation (Gen. 1:28–31). Today, education is experiencing a new socio-political and cultural context, manipulated by various social evils. First and foremost, we have a crisis of separating values and religion from education. This is often exalted by the main-stream social media, ideologies, and praxis of secularism, materialism, consumerism, relativism, subjectivism, atheism, and nihilism. Secondly, the extreme pluralism pervading contemporary society leads to behavior patterns that are at times so opposed to both the natural law and the divine law.

The One, Holy, Catholic, and Apostolic Church is essentially missionary in its origin, identity, mission, and destiny. A Comboni missionary ecclesiologist, Benito De Marci, argues that the church is a mystery and will always be evolutionary and revolutionary in its mission. The Church will always be pneumatically and historically revolutionary because she must send people on missionary missions to preach to the world that the Word has to be heard (AG 11; Rom 10:14). St. Paul puts it so strongly: "Woe to me if I do not preach the gospel" (1 Cor 1:16). The preaching of the gospel in missions is therefore not optional but incumbent upon the entire people of God. All must cooperate in the missionary evangelization (EN.75; RM.71–72; LG.17) because it is the command from the Lord (Mt. 28:19). The children of God scattered everywhere must be gathered together (Jn. 11:52; AG:2) and taught the truth about Jesus Christ, His kingdom, and the common good in society. The gospel must be proclaimed and spread to the ends of the earth (Acts 1:8). Paul VI commends that the missionary evangelization "in this time of uncertainty and confusion, missionaries may accomplish this task with ever-increasing love, zeal, and joy (EN. 1–5). This is realized through quality education based on God's wisdom, for the fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom (Prov. 1:7), and the person who has divine understanding, insight, and wisdom seeks true knowledge, which transforms people (Prov. 15:14).



RELIGION AND QUALITY EDUCATION:

Religion is a determining factor in education because it is a way of life. Religion defines the quality of life in society. Religious content encourages faith and morals in life. Religious beliefs, practices, and language serve diverse functions. Religion encourages ethical attitudes and righteous behavior. Its goal is to effect personal transformation and social reorientation (community, liberation, development, fulfillment, and salvation). All these religious aspects require more total personal involvement than merely scientific and technical inquiry. Religion also fills psychological needs, including the integration of spirituality and personality and the envisioning of a larger framework of identity, meaning, purpose, and mission. Religion is guided by divine wisdom. This exemplifies the fact that religion affects human life holistically. Thus, religion affects the identity, integrity, and mission of education.

"Religion is the primary basis of good education." Education is true only when it orients man, woman, and everything in the order of divine providence towards the sublime end in view of which they are created. In fact, religion, or at the very least, religious morality, is indispensable to the very notion of modern education. There is no adequate morality without religious values; the insistence that education be without religious inspiration and religious elements, even on the part of those who speak of the relationship between education and integral living, constitutes one of the most baffling contradictions of our modern social, moral, and educational thinking.



Because of its religious and moral content, Christian education is profoundly supernatural. Christian education, by essence and nature, is divinely instituted and Christologically defined. The Church, both in theory and practice, is always committed to the promotion of quality and holistic education that also has religious and moral contents. In his educational doctrine, Pope Leo XIII affirms the supernatural character of Christian education, which must have religious and oral contents. He said that:

> *Without religion there is no moral education worthy of the name or really effective, since the very nature and force of every obligation derive from those special duties which unite man with God, with God who commands, who prohibits and who gives a sanction for good and evil. For this reason, to want souls imbued with good morals and at the same time leave them lacing in religion is something as meaningless as just calling on one to live virtuously after having undermined the basis.*

Christ defines Himself as "The Way, the Truth and the Life. No one comes to the Father except through me" (Jn 14:6). That is why Christ prayed, "Consecrate them in the Truth. Your Word is the Truth" (Jn 17:17). Education that forgets a fundamental principle of Christian life and neglects to draw from its practical consequences for itself, especially and

also for those for whom it concerns, would not be certainly a good guide." Christian education is essentially religious. It originates from God and directs human beings towards their proper end, God. Therefore, Christian education with a socio-anthropological nature has to be supernatural in character. Patristic education has a Christian character rooted in the Gospel values and Catholic intellectual tradition, which were defined and shaped by the early Church Fathers. This tradition, which is Christocentric in essence, has a long history that goes back to Creation.

Despite the fact that a Christian education expounds the moral-religious orientation and holistic civilization of a human being, education in principle inculcates moral-religious and civilized values in the integrated educational process of the human person. Education is able to have a credible Moral Authority in society if it has a religious foundation. Christian education teaches about methodologies that uphold Natural law and Divine Law in society. Throughout history, the Church has insisted on the compatibility of the natural and the supernatural, of Faith and Reason, as well as on the fruitfulness of their union. The Catholic intellectual tradition and the Catholic social teaching belong to this tradition.

To correspond fully to the nature of man and woman, the subject of education in Christian education (Patristic education), however, must be equally and integrally human with a divine vision within the universal

worldview. Christian education has a mandate to facilitate the evangelization process, and development is part of world history. Pius XII's teaching about the importance of Christian education in today's world pointed out:

> *A society that is really interested in intellectual and moral values, a society that does not want to slip and slide toward that materialism, secularism, and consumerism to which it is being drawn by the weight of the ever more mechanical life of technical civilization, holds on to quality and credible education and must show the esteem that it has for the profession of the teacher, assuring him/her a righteous return that corresponds to his/her quality social position. Let us not forget that educational labor, which produces spiritual values, is real labor and, even in its kind, more lift than manual labor or work. This should be taken into consideration in calculating a just wage and in the holistic development of the educational system.*

Religion is very important to the righteous, ethical, and conscientious mission of true education. Christianity laid a firm foundation for informative, formative, and transformational education. Christian educators benefited more from the reflection on the grammar, mode, and style of Jesus' teaching, for it is clear that Jesus was an effective and efficient teacher. He taught using the Old Testament

Scriptures, Jewish law, religion, and cultural categories of his time.

What Jesus taught was not fully understood until the learners saw Him involved in actions. Actions speak louder than words. "Words without actions are like diseased teeth that cannot chew anything (*Ndeto itena meko nita maeo mawau mata tanyuka kindu*)", says the Kamba proverb in Kenya. Thus, the effectiveness of the teachings of Jesus cannot be disconnected from the good deeds of his life. "Be doers of the word and not hearers only, deluding yourselves" (James 1:22). Exemplary and holy teaching is done through the good actions of the teacher. True teaching is that words are not enough. Teaching needs actions; meaningful or symbolic actions are to be understood and appreciated. There is often danger in an excess of words that are not steeped in life and action. Words and actions must go together.

Religion entails action. Religion is faith in action. Education entails action. Education is knowledge and truth in action. " The ultimate proof of learning is that people will do something. Once the disciples of Jesus learned that the Lord had spoken and taught them, they felt compelled to carry the message to others. Learning is something contagious that needs to be shared with others. Today, education is still highly valued. It unites, shapes, and gives identity, meaning, and destiny to people. As humanity continually changes in history, education too must always find means and ways of making it relevant to changing times, but the values of education remain.

NATURE OF CATHOLIC EDUCATION AND MISSION OF EVANGELIZATION

The Church's Sacred Congregation Catholic Education (1998) identifies ***Five Benchmarks*** of quality education:

- Origin in Trinitarian Vision, Mission and Wisdom,
- Founded on Christian Anthropology,
- Animated by the community of faith, hope and love,
- Rooted in Catholic Church Intellectual Tradition/Heritage,
- Inspired by the Holy Spirit and Gospel witness

The Catholic Intellectual Tradition focuses on life-long integral education rooted in Christian values. The Catholic academic institution is a place of integral education for the human person through a clear and holistic international project of which Christ is the Divine Foundation. Its ecclesial and cultural identity, its mission of education as a work of love, peace, and justice, its transformational service to all, and family traits should characterize the educating community and spirituality.

JOHN PAUL II ENCYCLICAL LETTER: FAITH AND REASON (*FIDES ET RATIO 1998*)

Informative, formative, and transformative education quests for the truths, which integrate faith in Christ and righteous reason (wisdom), upholding relevance to all historical contexts and becoming a way of life responsible for witnessing Christianity and holistic civilization. In this letter, the Pontiff upheld the Catholic intellectual tradition of "*Fides et*

Ratio" (faith and reason) in defining the importance of quality education in contemporary times. The Encyclical points out the weaknesses and dangers of misguided reasoning in our era, which attack the core of true, quality, and holistic education, which is willed by Jesus Christ. These dangers include *Secularism, Relativism, Positivism, Human Scientism, Religious Atheism, Materialism, Modern Rationalism, Religious Atheism*, etc. In the same vein, St. Pius X (*1903–1914*) stressed that the basis of Modernism which were philosophical claims, was phenomenologists, agnostics, and immanent.

In the Encyclical "*Humani Generis,*" Pope Pius XII (*1939–1958*) warned against mistaken interpretations linked to evolutionism, existentialism, historicism, Marxism, fideism, etc. These theories are dangerous to the Christian faith. Therefore, the encyclical "*Fides et Ratio*" challenges philosophy to become truly a quest for truth and wisdom. Faith and truth do not contradict each other. Both phenomena originate from God, so they are complementary. These are the determining factors for Patristic education. Christian education provides a reasonable answer to these misleading theories. Through education, the Church places great value on reason's drive to attain goals that render people's lives more worthy. The Church sees philosophy as the way to learn fundamental truths about human life.

The encyclical teaches further that men and women are on a journey of discovery and transformation (through true education and ethical research). This is unstoppable in human terms. It is a search for

the truth and a person to whom they might entrust themselves. Christian faith, through education, comes to meet them, offering the concrete possibility of searching for the goal that they seek. Catholic intellectual heritage, which has the wisdom of the Sacred Scriptures, the Church's teaching, the Egyptian-Graeco-Roman, secular and Jewish, cultural and Asian teaching and learning experiences, has contributed to the civilization of world educational systems.

CHRISTIAN EDUCATION FOR TRANSFORMATION OF PERSONS, CHURCH. AND SOCIETY

A German dogmatic theologian and educationist, Hans Burk Rutherfold (1986), explicates that Christian Education is founded on Jesus Christ 'the Truth, the Way, and the Life" (John 14:6). and Catholic Education is founded on the Church's teaching, spirituality, and Praxis as taught by Jesus Christ. The Christian religion played a significant role in Christian education. What the Apostolic period contributed to Christian Education were fundamental modes of education in the Christian faith: Education for enriching and growth in Divine Wisdom; Education for community building; Education as proclamation of a message; Education as a prophetic witnessing to the truth; Education as moral instruction; and Education in service of the material and spiritual needs of the individual and community. Thus, Christian education has the mission of evangelization and the transformation of all people.

Benedict XVI teaches that Patristic Education has contributed greatly to the excellent precedents of quality and holistic teaching and learning that respect both the Natural Law and Divine Law today. The precedents are sometimes arranged in "catena" (Latin for *Chain*) going back to the early Church Fathers, with a credible link to Evangelization and progress for every generation in between. Catholic Education is rooted in the Gospel values and Catholic Intellectual Tradition which includes Patristic teaching, learning, spiritual experiences, and transformational values from other educational systems. Since Patristic epoch, Catholic education has always played an important role in relevant evangelization, human civilization, and societal transformation. All the world's continents, and Africa in particular, have benefited more from the wisdom of the Catholic intellectual tradition.

PATRISTIC EDUCATION AS A MODEL OF ALL LEARNING INSTITUTIONS

Patristic Science studies the Church Fathers' philosophy and theological thought, interpretation, and its application in life. It is the methodological presentation of the intellectual tradition of the Fathers of the Early Church concerning matters of faith, morals, and ecclesiastical discipline to fit different contexts in the process of historical development of Christian literature, evangelization, and transformation. It determines and employs its wisdom and principles in the lives of the Church, society, education, and social and pastoral works.

Patristic education is a quality, holistic and value-oriented education for all in the dynamic rhythm of life defined by early Church Fathers based on Christ's Teaching which was defined, developed and interpreted in the Church's Intellectual Tradition, Magisterial Propositions with discerned consideration of historical righteous Classical Paideia (*Greek-Roman-Egyptian-Jewish educational values*) for the advancement of informative, formative and transformative encyclopedic knowledge and witnessing of an individual and society for the highest common good (*i.e. integral meaning, integral liberation, integral evangelization, integral development and integral salvation*); and whose teachings and experiences are relevant today.

Paideia refers to philosophy, values, and virtues from all cultures and religions that form the universal (cosmic) intellectual heritage for civilization and the transformation of humanity; these can have foundations in Christian, European, American, Asian, and African worldviews. *Christian paideia refers to the system of education in the faith that the early Christians created through a combination of Biblical revelation and the cultural patterns suggested by Hellenistic, Egyptian, Roman, and Semitic literature and philosophy, that is, Greek paideia. It had as its objective the achieving of the wisdom of God through spiritual formation under the divine pedagogy, the Logos, or Word of God. Christian paideia looked to the formation of (conscience) character and appreciation of virtues as much as it did the acquisition of divine knowledge. Its final aim was the true knowledge of Christian philosophy, worldview, and*

spirituality, whose end was the common good and imitation of Jesus Christ's life. Christian paideia helps to achieve personal integrity, holistic transformation, and eternal salvation. (Dr. Davey Naugle, Dallas Baptist University, USA) St. Augustine (354–430 AD), when he set himself to write his classic De Magistro in 389, was already in the position of perceiving this intellectual orientation of the Christian "Paideia." Thus, in the post-Constantine period, we could undertake, at a much higher level, the task of quality and holistic education for transformation undertaken during the preceding period by Clement and Origen together.

The words "Patrology" and "Patristics" are often confused or used interchangeably today. *Patrology* presents three main elements:

(a) The life of the Fathers of the Church
(b) Their works
(c) Their theology.

PAIDEIA ACADEMICS – THEORY OF WHOLISTIC EDUCATION

Educating the "Whole Person with Whole knowledge from all Cultures" is at the heart of Paideia academics. Educating the whole child with knowledge is a value that is acknowledged, sought after, and preserved by many cultures. *Paideia (py-dee-uh) comes from the Greek pais, paidos, which means quality and righteous upbringing of the whole child in order to be a responsible person in the community. Paideia* academies create a structure within the schooling community to support

parents, families, religious leaders, and all stakeholders in the integrated upbringing of the child with human and divine wisdom. This empowers students to achieve success in college, career, citizenship, religion, marriage, and social life for personal transformation and the common good.

Six Paideia Pillars of Education: There are six tenets called the Paideia Pillars of a holistic education. The pillars are:

(a) *Values*

(b) *Critical thinking*

(c) *Leadership*

(d) *Integrity*

(e) *Religiosity*

(f) *Innovation*.

These pillars are specifically designed to create a solid foundation and student-centered learning environment to produce a well-rounded, complete educational experience that addresses the specific needs of each learner in the light of both human and divine values. Some schools focus on test scores and "curriculum-in-a-box" solutions to education. The Paideia system of teaching and learning takes into consideration all the transformative qualities of all the stakeholders in education so that they all contribute to the wellbeing of the common good.

In this regard, paideia education envisions providing students with an opportunity to learn broadly and deeply and to add value to new contexts. It works for ethical, relevant, and soundly proven curriculum

programs that combine cultural values and classical learning with the best of innovative technology, ingenuity, and methodology, giving learners premium access to the best education across all disciplines. Students are required to gain a deep understanding of core educational study areas in mathematics, the sciences, language arts, and social studies. Paideia schools instill Christian values, leadership skills, critical thinking ability, goals, skills, character traits, and the ability to think independently, reason, and communicate clearly. Paideia schools offer training in six fundamental areas:

[1] Values
[2] Critical and independent thinking
[3] Leadership skills
[4] Integrity, Character & Exemplarity
[5] Religious and supernatural relationship
[6] Innovation and Developmental orientation.

PATRISTIC EDUCATION IS CULTURALLY-ORIENTED

Patristic educational philosophy guiding a Catholic school also seeks to be a place where "faith, culture, and life are brought into harmony." In the light of Patristic paideai, Catholic education appreciates and inculcates transformative values from all cultures, thus making it have a universal redemptive character. John Mary Waliggo (1989) stated that the African continent is very rich in cultural values and intellectual heritage, which can enrich Christian schools through an authentic

process of inculturation. In his 1982 pastoral pilgrimage to Africa, Pope John Paul II appraised the African culture and urged agents of evangelization to respect the African values and use them in the processes of evangelization through education, health, and social services. He said that "Africanization and inculturation are part of the 'indispensible' effort to incarnate the message of Jesus on African soil. Catholics have a duty to give corporate witness in the culture in which they live. A Ugandan Biblical scholar and one of the editors of the African Bible, Professor Victor Zinkuratire (1989), highlighted that Catholic schools in Africa are a favorable place for teaching the '*African philosophy and cultural heritage*', and for doing genuine inculturation at the grassroots. Clement Majawa (1997) calls the totality of African worldview, intellectual heritage, and cultural practices '*Africana Humana*', which defines the nature, identity, mission, morality, spirituality, relationship, and destiny of African experience. This African phenomenon should be taught in schools and researched in institutions of higher learning for reformative evangelization and sustainable development on the African continent.

In his book, '*The Holy See's Teaching on Catholic Schools,*' Michael Cardinal Muller mentions an important principle governing all Catholic education: '*cultural integrity in schools*.' He observes that from the apostolic age down to the present, there is the notion that the faithful should be engaged in transforming culture in light of the gospel. Schools should respect and teach cultural values. Schools prepare students to

relate the Catholic faith to their particular culture and to live that faith in practice.

Furthermore, the nature of the Catholic school also stems from one of the most significant elements of its educational project: *the synthesis of culture and faith*. The endeavor to interweave reason and faith, which has become the heart of individual subjects, makes for unity, articulation, and coordination, bringing forth within what is learned in a school a Christian vision of the world, of life, of culture, and of history. Schools form students within their own culture, for which they teach an appreciation of its positive elements and strive to help them foster the further inculturation of the gospel in their own situation. Yet they must also, when appropriate according to the students' age, be critical and evaluative. It is the Catholic faith that provides Catholic educators with the essential principles for critique and evaluation. We should guide students, according to their intellectual development level, to understand the intimate relationship between faith and culture. "We must always remember that, while faith is not to be identified with any one culture and is independent of all cultures, it must inspire every culture." Catholic schools in Africa should have a friendly curriculum and agenda focused on culture and traditional values.

PATRISTIC EDUCATION IS ESSENTIALLY RELIGIOUS.

Patristic Education is essentially rooted in and founded on the Christian religion. It is Trinitarian in essence, identity, and mission.

Patristic education, like other true forms of education, begins with a divine common denominator (God). Leo I the Great (440–461) taught that "*if we remove God and spirituality, religion and values, virtues and morals, natural law, and discipline from education, then there will be anything but true education*." In this regard, education will continue to suffer from interior wholeness, which is void, meaningless, and untransformative.

This expression should embrace the understanding that education is a life-long process of growth in knowledge and development toward a responsible maturation through which human society passes on its cultural tradition from one generation to another towards the highest common good (God). Many definitions of education manifest a spiritual gap and interior dissatisfaction. The definitions need to be discussed and interpreted, considering divine wisdom and spiritual opportunities, so as to identify their gaps and limitations. A leading contemporary educationist, John Elias (1991), makes a transformational Christian contribution that noble education of righteousness, transformation, and redemption founded on Christ's wisdom has the knowledge, the mission, the skill, the geography, and destiny of leading every man and woman to the common good and to God.

Patristic education explores the values of the Christian faith:

Education is essentially the teaching, learning, and experience that bridges and integrates theory and practice, secular and sacred, in

the light of philosophical, theological, and historical thematic creation, with a special interest in Christian Education. In various aspects, this employs interreligious, intercultural, and interconnectedness for personal and societal progress. *In a logical and mutually informed way, education must connect secular and sacred, theory and practice, religion, and the world.* The sharing experience between knowledge, dialogue, and conservatism has to continue in contemporary life. This education has roots in Christian Education which is Christo-centric (*Christ-centered*) and Pneuma-centric (*Holy Spirit-centered*).

Throughout history, education has always played a vital role in shaping the people of any nation. It has been the torchbearer of human progress and transformation, and as a result, it has essentially remained a natural component of all societies. Through Christian education, men and women from the East and West, as well as the global north and south, have dedicated their lives to the betterment of their societies. South African philosopher of education, Noel Bakhalawula Maranke (2009), comments, "Catholic education with Egyptian, Greek, Roman, and Semitic Mesopotamian and Christian intellectual traditions is the true yeast, salt, and light of the world (Mtt. 5:13–14). It has contributed more to the integration of civilizations around the world. Every global context should experience this type of education. Asia, Africa, and Latin America should put in place policies, curricula, strategies, methodologies, and systems so as to maximize the intellectual utility of

the Christian learning process, thus making Catholic education relevant to their contexts.

The Church derives part of her philosophy, spirituality, and mission of education from the universal mandate of Christ: "Go therefore and make disciples of all nations, baptizing them in the name of the Father, the Son, and the Holy Spirit, teaching them to observe all that I have commanded you, and thus I am with you always to the end of times" (Mt. 28:19–20). The Church has played a major role in the history, evolution, and development of education as an important component of human civilization and evangelization. The Church's historical survey of educational theory and practice shows that Christian teaching, ethical values, and witnessing prophetic ethos are necessary for the holistic development of quality education for all. This type of integrated education was defined by the early Fathers of the Church and is still relevant today. This education with a difference based on Catholic Intellectual Tradition is recommended for institutions of higher learning in Africa and global contexts.

Divine Wisdom as the Origin of Patristic Education

God is the Creator of everything (Gen. 1:1). God is the source of all knowledge and wisdom. He is all-knowing (*omniscient). God intended for religion and education to transmit this knowledge from one generation to the next.* This Divine Wisdom and Knowledge is the Source of God's

Revelation and Salvation of humanity. This Wisdom forms part of the essential content of what is taught in various traditions in schools and colleges. The Sacred Scriptures give a divine historical-moral-prophetic Word on how God revealed and communicated His divine knowledge and wisdom to humanity for the transformation and salvation of all people. The Divine Wisdom of God defines, guides, preserves, and transforms human beings and society through Patristic Education.

St. Thomas Aquinas (1225–1274) taught in his thesis that God is the beginning and destiny of wisdom and education. "God exists in Himself. He is the beginning (Alpha) and the end (Omega) of all things. This explains why all creatures proceed from God, depend on him, and have destiny in him. Therefore, at the beginning of everything, God wanted to reveal himself to humanity (creation) and transform it through the processes of education and religion. In human history, we see God's revelation and manifestation of 'Three Theological Virtues' (*Faith, Hope, and Love*), which were developed and interpreted into more than '50 Moral Virtues', organized around the 'Cardinal Virtues' of Prudence, Justice, Temperance and Fortitude. These are the values or the Wisdom from God that are imparted in various cultures at different times through quality education. These are the intellectual and societal values that are inculcated in Catholic education and are to be upheld by all at all times.

Francis Johnstone Hughes (2003), a leading educational scholar, commented that there are virtuous actions in education that originate from God and are in accordance with the right reason. As human beings,

our end is not so much in material happiness but in beatitude (righteousness). We can only reach this through actions helped by grace and education through Jesus Christ (the God-man), who is our Way of returning to God, our End. Thus, we perceive education as a virtuous journey of wisdom, leading us from God to God. Prof. William Cassidy (1996) calls such Christian/Catholic/Patristic education the process of God's revelation to created beings for transformative recreation of the face of the earth in the history of salvation.

Patristic Education as a Sacred Life Continuum

Education designed, defined, and destined by God is an uninterrupted *continuum* of knowledge and transformational activity, resulting in the righteous accumulation or utilization of intellectual and experiential human connections and relationships from the divine origin to the divine destiny for the highest common good. Since God is the sacred origin of education, all its historical endeavors aim to uphold and serve the sacredness of life, the sacredness of humanity, the sacredness of nature, and the sacredness of religion.

St. Thomas Aquinas taught that "education forms a continuous chain ad infinitum of knowledge, and so its substance does not end. Education originates from Divine wisdom, and at birth it continues as an interpretational (hermeneutical) process in temporal life from one generation to another, and at death it transforms itself and continues its mission of informing, forming, and transforming people in a

supernatural way through one's credible legacy as a model of meaningful existence in the society leading to Divine destiny." The paradigm of education as an on-going process of righteousness and excellence was developed by Aquinas in his 'Summa Theologica'. This paradigm is founded in Jesus Christ, who is the Way, the Truth, and the Life (Jn. 14:6), and it leads to holistic knowledge and experience of love for life (Biophilia).

Patristic Education explores the continuous chain or evolution of knowledge and transformational experiences from God that began to be revealed at Creation and passed through various cultural worldviews, philosophies, theologies, and praxis, reaching its highest revelatory expression through Jesus Christ's Mystery of Incarnation, and then being defined and formalized by the Catholic Intellectual Tradition in Church history while having a civilized impact on humanity up to the present time and will continue up to the divine destiny. Therefore, from the beginning, various educational experiences worldwide have made progressive contributions to quality and holistic education, deemed as *Patristic* in history.

Scope of Patristic Educational Heritage

The scope of the evolution of Patristic education in history covers the development of quality education from the origin of humanity (creation) and gaining intellectual wisdom from the Fertile Crescent region, which stretched from Egyptian, Mesopotamian, Greek, Roman,

Jewish, Asiatic experiences and climaxed with the Gospel of Christ and the classic Christian teachings of the earliest church fathers.

The scope and genre of the Church Fathers are technically considered to run from the end of the New Testament, around 100 AD, until the eighth century. We generally divide the writings of the Church Fathers into Ante-Nicene Fathers, referring to those who wrote before the Council of Nicea in 325 AD. Then there are the *Nicene Fathers,* who experienced the deliberations at the Council. The post-Nicene Fathers, who wrote after this ecumenical council, followed them.

Furthermore, the apostolic era, during which the Church Fathers met and immediately succeeded the twelve Apostles of Christ, defines the scope of Christian education. They were followed by the second-century apologists who defended the church's doctrine. The third-century fathers followed in their footsteps. The time of the fourth and early fifth centuries is referred to as the Golden Age of the Fathers because it was the epoch of "Pax Romana." There was relative peace in the church. Finally, there was St. John Damascene, who died in 749 and is widely regarded as the last of the Patristic Fathers in the East.

As the Church continued to evangelize people from other cultures, it brought with it Catholic intellectual tradition and orthodox educational paradigms, making the Christian faith relevant to all times. The vast scope of extraordinary contributions to the contemporary development of education, science, law, medicine, engineering, art, music, economics, politics, etc. arises from Patristic education and

Catholic civilization. The Church Fathers' Catholic intellectual heritage was preserved and continued throughout history to the present.

Patristic Education as the Yeast and Model of Transformative Education

There is a Biblical precedent and Catholic intellectual heritage for using traditional values from other cultures to communicate the gospel. Inculturation is a classical methodology of both education and evangelization processes that inserts gospel values into local cultures, which are defined by natural law. Natural law is the obvious way in which God manifests Himself to humanity. This law regards the realities of the earth as having their own proper natures, so it makes sense to speak of the "logical nature" of a thing. We must respect these natures, which mirror the Eternal Law (Divine Law) in God's mind, when we utilize earthly objects. Education helps us understand the nature of each thing we use in life and direct that thing to the purposes that are appropriate for it. Education strives to extract the maximum value from every natural or cultural object that God has created, utilizing it for personal growth and the pursuit of the highest common good.

The Christians cannot be satisfied as long as any human activity is either opposed to Christianity or out of all connection with Christianity. The Christian, therefore, cannot be indifferent to any branch of earnest human endeavor. All must have a connection to the gospel. We must study it either to expose its falsehoods or to contribute to the advancement of God's Kingdom. We must not only advance the kingdom

extensively, but also intensively.

The Church must seek to conquer not only every man or woman for Christ but also the whole person. So, an acceptance of the classical educational tradition does not mean an uncritical acceptance of the worlds of Egypt, Greece, and Rome. It entails using the unique insights of ancient times to gain perspective and better prepare for an engagement with our own culture. The evolution of education commenced at the beginning of reality. It developed over time and embraced the educational values of other cultural integrities and heritage maturities.

The Scriptures and Patristic Teachings, along with the experiences of a Pilgrim Church and encounters with other great spiritual traditions, form the foundation of the real history of Christianity. Clement of Alexandria (160–215 AD) compared the church to a great river, receiving affluence from all sides. The great river sometimes flows impetuously through a narrow channel; sometimes it spreads like a flood; sometimes it divides into several streams; and sometimes, for a time, it seems to have been driven underground. Prof. Bruce (1957) confirmed that the Holy Spirit is the real wisdom of Christian education. He is always present with Christ's Church, guiding and inspiring the church's mission, including quality education for humanity. The Holy Spirit has never left himself without witness. Since Pentecost, the Holy Spirit has always been with the church. He is always teaching, inspiring, guiding, and advocating for it in history. He is the one who accords with the truth and makes it transform the Catholic intellectual truth. He is the one who helps continually in the

renewal and contextualization process through education, evangelization, and development.

THEMATIC CONTRIBUTION OF PATRISCTIC EDUCATION TO SCHOOLS AND UNIVERSITIES

The Catholic intellectual heritage is rooted in Classic Paideia which has Traditional intellectual wisdom and Christian intellectual wisdom. Some of the major educational themes discussed by the Church Fathers for the present and future generations include:

- ***Clement of Rome (88-100AD)*** *– Discipline and Integrity in Education (Majawa, 2014:178)*
- ***Clement of Alexandria (160-215AD)*** *- Divine Wisdom, Religion & Truth in Education (182)*
- ***Origen (185-254AD)*** *– Theory, Spirituality, Professionalism and Practice of Education (188)*
- ***Basil of Caesarea (329-397AD)*** *– Philanthropic and Compassionate Education (CM, 2014:194)*
- ***Augustine of Hippo (354-430AD)****- Quality & Holistic Education for All - EFA (CM, 2014:198)*
- ***Gregory of Nyssa (395-AD)*** *Education for common good & Society Transformation (2014:136)*

- ***Jerome (347-420AD)*** *Educational Ethics and Intellectual morality (CM, 2014:207-210)*
- ***John Chrysostom (345-407A****D) Administration and Evaluation in Education (2014:210-219)*
- ***Leo I the Great (440-461AD)*** *Education not for Examination but Quality life (2014:136)*
- ***Isidore of Seville (636-AD)*** *Education for Preservation of Historical & Cultural Heritage (136)*
- ***Gregory the Great (604-AD)*** *Education entails Suffering, Crucifixion & Resurrection (2014:36)*
- ***Thomas Aquinas (1225-1274AD)*** *Education main stakeholders: Church, Parents & State (222)*
- ***Thomas Aquinas (1225-1274AD****) Education is a Vocation, Profession & Witness (2014:222-38)*

Catholic education upholds the intellectual wisdom of the past, pre-historic, Scriptural, Patristic, Scholastic, middle-aged, and contemporary ages. This is important because Patristic education entails going back to the roots, old sages, early Church wisdom, and historic-intellectual heritage that has not been influenced or contaminated by some historical vices or modernity. Like Placid Temple, the essay revisits

and appreciates the historical intellectual heritage of the church, revitalizes it, and makes it relevant to the present context. This intellectual nostalgia for the past, for the "lost paradise, lost wisdom" as in the dark ages, can take over from a commitment to the existential educational challenges of the African continent today. Clement Majawa (2014), in his book, Patristic Education, explicates that 'unless we consciously and rationally understand and take control of the present moment, we cannot appreciate the Church's past intellectual tradition nor move to the future quality education. Present educational analysis cannot ignore or deny the African worldview and our historical heritage. African and Church's intellectual heritages must be seen as living and inspirational traditions, dynamic wisdom that continues to move with the times, not static and frozen while the rest of the world moves on.

CHALLENGES FACING EDUCATION IN AFRICA

A Malawian educationist Paul Chirikwako Dzungulawola (2003), observes that one of the major challenges in the education sector on the African continent is the phenomenon of *tribalism, negative ethnicity, nepotism, and religious discrimination.* In almost all countries, be it Malawi or Zimbabwe in Southern Africa, Kenya or Uganda in Eastern Africa, Nigeria or Cameroon in Western Africa, Egypt or Morocco in Northern Africa, DR Congo or Rwanda in Central Africa, negative ethnicity and corruption are eating the moral fiber of education. Our educational institutions do not cultivate a universal humanitarian

outlook and do not emphasize moral values. There is a trend of thought in academic institutions to promote a Euro-American majoritarian ethos of materialism, appraising uncritical capitalistic ideologies, glorification of social media and ICT enterprises, and demeaning of spiritual and moral values. There is a failure to inculcate African values in many systems of education fail to instill African values.

Education in Africa needs to be open, inclusive, and holistic in its vision and mission. Education has to have a multicultural ingredient. The study of cultural and religious diversity, or individual differences, in schools is not new. Indeed, in history, there have been differences between people for quite some time. The question is: why is cultural intolerance, tribal or religious discrimination, and negative ethnicity cropping up in our education systems today? (Diamante and Giglen, 1994). Professor of Education Iles (1995) emphasizes that quality education entails cultural diversity and inclusivity; that is, true education is founded on '*unity in diversity*' for higher intellectual goals of transformation. The composition and interaction of teachers and students in today's institutions of learning have changed significantly. Many academic institutions are already appreciating and benefiting from cultural inclusivity; however, much research still has to be done. Culture influences the nature of educational renewal and development. Matthews Chiuzaphoyo Mwakasungula (2001) cites, 'Africa needs to promote quality education with a multicultural niche.'

There are many Christian, religious, or private-owned schools in Africa. Many political and religious leaders on the continents are beneficiaries of these institutions. Although many Catholic schools and academic institutions in AMECEA (AMECEA refers to the Association of Member Episcopal Conferences in Eastern Africa) This ecclesiastical region is comprised of the following countries: Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Sudan, South Sudan, Tanzania, Uganda, and Zambia. While the region and beyond perform well, it is evident that in general the educational standards are deteriorating. There are many reasons attributed to this. There is concern about the lack of permanence in the quality of higher education in Africa. Education quality is said to be compromised by some aggressive views and functions of secularism, relativism, and 'unethical' globalization in an effort to expand the institutional commercial enterprise by expanding enrollment at the expense of quality and integrity.

Furthermore, statistics show that there are growing complaints by some churches, civil authorities, and employers that some graduates are poorly prepared for the workplace. A survey conducted by Charles Phiri and Robert Mughogho in 2008 examined the views of different professionals and practitioners on quality in higher education in Zambia and Malawi. 33% reported that quality education is deteriorating because of the disconnect between religious values and the educational system. Bishop Patrick Kalilombe, a Biblical and pastoral theologian, observed that the other pastoral challenge regarding 'Disorientation in Catholic

Education' is that the Church has not taken seriously, indiscipline in schools, politicizing and commercializing Catholic educational systems, and the challenge of 'low education standards' in our diocesan schools and colleges. This has led the government to take advantage of the weakening Catholic educational structure. The Church should wake up, engage governments with divine wisdom, reclaim what is righteously hers, and collaborate with state machinery to enhance quality education in all schools. After all, both the church and state are God's instruments, serving the same people of God to recreate the face of the earth.

Augustine Ndeukoya expressed concern about the quality of education in the AMECEA region in 1988. He observed that the problem with most modern Christian education in Eastern and Central African countries is that often it is not very different in its core educational philosophy from secular education. Courses on Christian and religious education are not taught as profoundly as they used to be in the past. There is a worrying gap between Christian values and the educational system in this region. What we know as “liberalism” in the church is called “progressivism” in education. Our education policies and systems in Catholic institutions in AMECEA have to provide quality and holistic education that is truly Christian in content, identity, mission, and spirituality. This is an expression of evangelization for what Patristic Education experiences. As John Paul II emphasized, 'Catholic schools participate in the Church's evangelization mission in the world'

A dogmatic theologian and cum educationist, Clement Majawa (2014), observes in his book, *Patristic Education* that Catholic education, from primary schools to institutions of higher learning, is facing bottleneck-diversified challenges: from institutional and administrative discontent to religious, moral, and social gaps in education. On the threshold of the third millennium, education faces new challenges that are the result of a new socio-political and cultural context. First and foremost, we have a crisis of values that, in highly developed societies in particular, assume the forms often exalted by *the media*: *subjectivism, moral relativism, and nihilism*. The extreme pluralism pervading contemporary society leads to behavior patterns that are at times so opposed to one another as to undermine any idea of community identity. Rapid structural changes, profound technical innovations, and the globalization of the economy affect human life more and more throughout the world. Rather than the prospect of development for all, we witness the widening of the gap between rich and poor, as well as massive migration from underdeveloped to highly developed countries.

The phenomenon of multiculturalism and an increasingly multi-ethnic and multi-religious society is at the same time an enrichment and a source of further problems. To this, we must add, in countries of longstanding evangelization, a growing marginalization of the Christian faith as a reference point and a source of light for an effective and convincing interpretation of existence.

Such an outlook calls for courageous renewal on the part of the Catholic school. The precious heritage of the experience gained over the centuries reveals its vitality precisely in its capacity for prudent innovation. And so now, as in the past, the Catholic school must be able to speak for itself effectively and convincingly. It is not merely a question of adaptation but of missionary thrust—the fundamental duty to evangelize—to go towards men and women wherever they are so that they may receive the gift of salvation. Catholic education needs serious evaluation, a constructive pastoral approach, strategic collaboration with the government, and a renewed educational curriculum that will incorporate the original values of Catholic education, like Patristic Intellectual heritage.

VATICAN II's DECLARATION ON CHRISTIAN EDUCATION (GRAVISSIMUM EDUCATIONIS)

The Vatican Council noted that true education aims at the formation of the whole human person with respect to his or her ultimate goal (to be with God). It teaches that parents have prime responsibility for the moral training of their children. It clearly defines the mission of patristic education in the world, and as a result, it becomes the anthropological, philosophical, theological, and ecclesial basis of Catholic education at all levels. This foundation forms the basis for the development of Catholic higher education.

All people, regardless of race, condition, or age, have an inalienable right to quality education for quality living because of their dignity as human beings. This education should be appropriate to the individual's particular destiny, adapted to their ability, sex, and natural cultural traditions, and conducive to fraternal relations with other nations in order to promote world peace, progress, and unity. The African continent is questing for such 'down-to-earth education that dialogues with everyone in all status quos and addresses all needs and aspirations of all people.

Gravissimum Educationis teaches about the primary and complementary roles of the stakeholder groups in education: the parents, the church, and the state. The Declaration addresses the state's proper educational duty to "ensure that all its citizens have access to an adequate education and are prepared for the proper exercise of their civic rights and duties, to safeguard the rights of children to adequate education in schools, to be vigilant about the ability of the teachers and the standard of teaching, to watch over the health of the pupils, and in general to promote the work of the schools in its entirety.".

This Declaration on Christian Education (*Gravissimum Educationis-GE*) is the *Magna Carta,* or Great Document, of Christian or Catholic Education. The declaration establishes the transformative foundational parameters and teaches the official Church's stance on holistic and quality education for all individuals created in God's image and likeness. As part of the process of deeper evangelization and holistic

development in society, the declaration aims to ensure quality education for all, regardless of context. Catholic schools and colleges in Africa need true implementation of '*Gravissimum Educationis*' if they are to become true Catholic institutions of learning with Catholic identity and excellent at providing quality education. The foundation of this declaration lies in the Catholic intellectual tradition and the constructive intellectual heritage of other cultures, including Africa. This process is what Pope Clement of Rome (88–100 AD) termed '*Classic Paideia*' with '*Dual (or multiple) intellectual heritages*.' It means that for Christian education to be what it is (complete, total, whole, and all inclusive), it had to borrow and use all good values from other cultures, traditions, and heritages. Thus, African transforming intellectual heritage has more to offer Catholic education.

In its earliest contexts, through the paradigm of 'Classic *paideia*', Christianity has always appreciated the good values of other cultures. It has borrowed, purified, interpreted, and perfected some non-Christian elements, using them to deepen the Christian message and interpretation of Christian mysteries in its mission of evangelization. The Christian adoption of Greek and Latin languages in the church is a remarkable example of this kind of inculturation. "The early generations of Christians had not worked out clearly any specific Christian form or system of education, any more than they had worked out a Christian system of politics" or a Christian system of legislation, or economics, or administration, or diplomacy, or health, or transportation, or military,

etc. Early Christians had to put things first. They had to use the wisdom, the language, and the categories that were in use at that time." With this approach of integrating Christianity with good values from other cultures, they laid solid-bottom foundations for any Christian civilization to come: a system of dogma, a system of morals, a system of canonical discipline," a system of education, a system of economics, a system of law and justice, etc. These Christian approaches, especially the Patristic paradigms, have contributed more and are still relevant to many cultural, religious, socio-political, economic, scientific, and legal international structures today.

The six African historical paradoxes that should be taught in our schools are:

1. Africa is the birthplace of humanity, but it is the last place to be made habitable today.
2. Africans, although the first in history, are the most exploited and humiliated people.
3. Africa is the most different from the West culturally, but it is also the most rapidly westernized.
4. The African continent is the richest with natural wealth, but it has the poorest people.
5. Africa is huge in size, but it is the most fragmented.
6. Africa is geographically central but politically marginalized and peripheral.

As Catholic schools in Africa teach global and African church history and the history of Catholic education, they should also teach the true history of the African continent. In this regard, it should include what scholar Ali Mazrui is recommending. We should never lose African history and cultural heritage. St. Augustine of Hippo (354–430 AD) said: *Reality which has lost its history, has ultimately lost its identity, meaning, and destiny in life. A reality that has lost interior values is a danger to itself, community, nature, and the divine, and so its renewal is determined by its own inner self enriched by religious guidance in a historical base.*"

Reforms of education in any form—traditional or modern, religious or secular—shape society's destiny. No education is permanent; thus, its paradigms change for relevance to people. The African continent needs education that appreciates the African cultural heritage, develops new paradigms of relating, dialoguing, and complementing with worldly cultures, and presents its unique transformative values to enrich the universal systems of education and processes of human globalization.

RAPHAEL THOMSON PHAZILANYALUGWE (1997): 'EDUCATION FOR VIRTUOUS HERITAGE'.

Raphael Phadzilanyalugwe's (1997) research on 'Education having a strong and positive effect on religious participation' revealed that education with strong religious and virtuous heritage inculcates human values in both learners and teachers and influences strategies of

transformative action, and these strategies of action are relevant and bring transformation and the common good to society. In the process of education to engage with African intellectual wisdom and virtuous heritage, there must be genuine listening, a process of conversation, and interaction among all the stakeholders in education. Furthermore, it should be known that any education devoid of values and virtues destroys the self, harms the community, and fails to have an have an impact on life in schools and society.

In this regard**:**

1. Education distancing itself from religion and ethics, values and virtues, conscience and character becomes a catalyst for ignorance, tension, corruption, under-development, exploitation, shallow faith, and the culture of death in society.
2. Throughout centuries, at times education became a vulnerable heritage to religious, socio-economic, and political contexts whenever schools lost link with historical foundations, mission, and identity.
3. Education distancing itself from religion and ethics, values and virtues, conscience, and character becomes a catalyst for ignorance, tension, corruption, underdevelopment, exploitation, shallow faith, and the culture of death in society.
4. Throughout centuries, at times education became a

vulnerable heritage to religious, socio-economic, and political contexts whenever schools lost link with historical foundations, mission, and identity.

5. Christianity with Patristic wisdom is a necessary intellectual catalyst and standard for renewing, reforming, and measuring policies and systems of education in today's world.
6. Some questions regarding quality education in the Catholic Intellectual Tradition are more challenging and older than the tradition itself, stretching back before Christianity. All cultures and religions, before, during, and after Christ, have intellectual values that contribute to Christian education and life.

Pius XI (1922–1929): Teaching on Catholic Education

The great Catholic educationist, Pope Pius IX, taught that true education is Christo-centric and is defined and preserved by the Church. Christian education is naturally geared to educate man and woman according to the model of Christ, the teaching master, from the crib to the tomb. The Catholic education has a unique revelatory and redemptive reformatory pedagogy that brings Christian mysteries closer to human beings and makes them true images of God and responsible re-creators of the face of the earth.

This academic phenomenon is evident in the preaching and teaching, typically pedagogical, of John Chrysostom (344–407), who is also the author of the most ancient exposition of systematic *Christian Education and Pedagogy* (*La vanità e l'educazione dei figli,* in the year 380 AD). This analysis is in parallel with some unique pedagogical treatise that borrowed some educational wisdom from pagan antiquity, like that of Pseudo Plutarch ('Come educare i propri figli' dating back to the second century of Patristic times), although it is quite different either in form or in substance and in the spirit. This was in line with the intellectual wisdom of 'Paideia': the good, wisdom, and values from other cultures worldwide (*multiculturalism*) should contribute to the building of quality education guided by the Gospel. Pius XI used this teaching as a point of departure for later documents on Catholic education.

DIVINI ILLIUS MAGISTRI (ON CHRISTIAN EDUCATION OF THE YOUTH, 1929)

The document articulates the importance of promoting and preserving quality education in Catholic schools as a means of evangelization and transformation of people. Christian education as rooted in Gospel values should be taught, interpreted, and contextualized in all situations so that people see its relationship with the past, present, and future redemptive histories, as well as the mutuality between the living, the living dead, the ancestors, and the Creator. Pius XI teaches that Christianity with Patristic wisdom is a

necessary intellectual catalyst and standard for renewing, reforming, and measuring policies and systems of education in the worldly changing times.

Some questions regarding quality education in Catholic Intellectual Tradition are more challenging and older than the tradition itself, stretching back before Christianity. All cultures and religions, before, during, and after Christ, have intellectual values that contribute to Christian education and life.

Commenting on Pius XI's Teaching on Catholic Education in the '*Church, Evangelization, and Education' Michael* Cardinal Miller said in a special way that the duty of offering holistic education is an ecclesial responsibility: "*The Church is bound as a mother to give to these children of hers an education by which their whole life can be imbued with the spirit of Christ.*" It is a divine mandate that Catholic schools participate in the Church's evangelizing mission of bringing the Gospel to the ends of the earth. More specifically, they are places of evangelization for the youth. They serve as truly ecclesial institutions, providing a privileged environment for Christian education. Catholic schools also have a missionary thrust, by means of which they make a significant contribution "to the evangelizing mission of the Church throughout the world, including those areas in which no other form of pastoral work is possible".

In Africa, the Catholic bishops, priests, religious, and lay faithful have the pastoral responsibility of ensuring that Catholic schools are

managed according to Catholic intellectual heritage. Cardinal Miller makes it clear that Catholic schools under the ecclesial authority of local ordinaries should administer schools and see to it that they uphold Catholic values and identity. The Catholic school, therefore, should play a vital role in the pastoral activity of the diocese. It is a pastoral instrument of the Church for her mission of evangelization. The bishop's leadership is pivotal in lending support and guidance to Catholic schools: "only the bishop can set the tone, ensure priority, and effectively present the importance of the cause to the Catholic people." Note, however, that parents do not surrender their children to the Church or State, but share a common undertaking of ensuring quality education in schools. As St. Thomas Aquinas mentions, quality education will be realized when all the stakeholders in education—students, lecturers, family, the church, and the state—work together.

Certainly, the Church was involved in education before she established schools. Nonetheless, today, the principal approach that the Church offers families is by establishing Catholic schools that ensure the integral formation of children. Catholic schools participate in the Church's evangelizing mission of bringing the Gospel to the ends of the earth. More specifically, they are places of evangelization for the youth. They serve as truly ecclesial institutions, providing a privileged environment for Christian education. Catholic schools also have a missionary thrust, which means that they make a significant contribution "to the evangelizing mission of the Church throughout the world,

including those areas in which no other form of pastoral work is possible."

Precisely because of this evangelizing mission, our schools, if they are to be genuinely ecclesial, are to be authentically Catholic and must be integrated within the organic pastoral activity of the parish, diocesan, and universal Church. "*Unfortunately, there are instances in which the Catholic school is not perceived as an integral part of organic pastoral work; at times it is considered alien, or very nearly so, to the community. It is urgent, therefore, to sensitize parochial and diocesan communities to the necessity of their devoting special care to education and schools.*"

FACTORS DELIENATING AFRICAN VALUES FROM EDUCATION

Clement Majawa in his Book, 'Patristic Education (2014) points out that Patristic Education which is rooted in Christian intellectual heritage, is one of the constitutive elements of the Catholic Church since its origin with Jesus Christ who founded it on Apostle Simon Peter (*Petrine Ministry)*. Furthermore, its educational philosophy and practice take place in history and must respond to the concrete challenges of the people without losing focus and fidelity to the Gospel and Teaching of the Church.

Merdado Cardinal Mazombwe of Lusaka Archdiocese in Zambia, former Chancellor of the Catholic University of the Catholic University of Eastern Africa (CUEA) in Kenya, identified three issues which oppress the realization of quality education in Catholic schools and universities.

Three oppressive forces (skeletonic syndrome) that prevent transformation in Catholic schools are:

- *Skeletonic Education,* which ignores emerging deconstructive issues in schools.
- *Skeletonic Deafness* to the cry or voice of the marginalized, the poor, the oppressed and ignorant in school and society;
- *Skeletonic Slavery* to irrelevant curriculum and intellectual colonial & foreign ideologies in schools.

Catholic schools and universities in Africa should live the Catholic identity if they are to be centers of intellectual excellence. The horizon of theologico-educational reflection from African perspective is not merely Catholic in name with long historical tradition, but Catholicism with the past, the present and future intellectual heritage and legitimations for true Christian-cultural academic pursuits in Africa. Cardinal Mazombwe then challenged the Faculty of Theology of CUEA to pursue specialized theological studies on African culture and worldview, and show how the Christian sciences can ensure the dynamic assimilation of Christianity by African cultures. The conclusions of research findings should help schools, other universities, families, small Christian communities and dioceses to value African culture for national and international mutual enrichment. Secondly, the continued research at CUEA, other Catholic colleges and Universities, and major seminaries in Africa should be seen

to stimulate Church leaders, Church personnel and agents of evangelization involved in various pastoral ministries to improve methods of Christian evangelization in order to bring out more clearly the rich heritage of African local cultures in the on-going process of their interaction with Christianity.

POPE FRANCIS' TEACHING ON CATHOLIC SCHOOLS AND UNIVERSITIES

Addressing the plenary session of the Congregation for Catholic Education on 13th February 2014 in Clementine Hall Vatican, Pope Francis says: "Quality education should be at the centre of human life. Education determines the culture of people, is at the heart of human communion and relationship with God. This view is articulated by other pontiffs. "*The importance of implementation of the Apostolic Constitution "Sapientia Christiana"* (John Paul II) and the 50th Anniversary of Vatican II's Councilor Recleration: Gravissimum Educationis (Paul VI) and 25th Anniversary of Apostolic Constitution Ex Corde Ecclesia (John Paul II). These three documents give the teaching and spirituality of the origin, nature, mission and Identity of Catholic intellectual heritages in the Catholic Schools and Universities.

Pope Francis acknowledges the challenges facing Catholic education today. Catholic education provides opportunity of quality life, quality education for all and quality communion for all people. Deterioration of education is one of the most important challenges for the Church today as she is engaged in the implementing the new

evangelization in a historical and cultural (dual) context which is in a constant flux. If we preserve the following characteristics, Catholic schools and colleges will realize quality education.

1. Value of inter-cultural –dialogue and religious-pluralism in Catholic schools
2. Call to realistic engagement with non-Christians and non-believers for integral development of the whole person, for Jesus Christ the Lord of the cosmos and history calls everyone to salvation.
3. Value of quality preparation and training of *Catechist and Formators* in Catholic Schools and Universities
4. Education directed at changing time & generation so every educator and the Church as mother Educator is called to change & do things differently
5. Value of unique spiritual and cultural growth to be consistent the Catholic Schools and Universities
6. Need to experience on-going spiritual formation & prayer and witness
7. Value of promoting and witnessing a living presence of the Gospel, of Science and of Culture in Catholic School and Universities.
8. Catholics Schools & Universities not isolate themselves from the world; but are called to know the emerging issues and challenges today, providing transformative

solutions.

Thus, Education is great open building site for all in which the Church is present through the institutions and projects. There is need for commitment to quality education on all levels and to renew the commitment of all people engaged in the new evangelization. Furthermore, there is quest for on-going reformation and renewal in pedagogy through new educational paradigm in Catholic schools and universities. In the light of this, Pope Francis challenges Catholic schools & universities to read the signs of the time & make Catholic education become relevant to the changing time.

GREEK TRANSFORMATIVE TEACHERS TO EXCELLENCE IN SCHOOLS

Greek system of education was Teacher-centered. Teacher-centered method is an intellectual and experiential strategy of generating and imparting knowledge where a true teacher leads, disseminates, shepherds and engages the learners for the personal and common good. German historian cum economist, Grigardson Winklemann (1947) observed that Greek philosophy, culture, education and life have been instrumental to the world civilization and transformation of peoples. According to Sifuna and Otiende (2009) the Egyptians taught and inspired the Greek thinkers such as Pythagoras and Archimedes, the great Greek mathematicians. Others include Herodotus, Father of European History; Socrates, Plato and Aristotle, the Great Greek philosophers and educators, thereby setting forth a firm

basis for western education and culture. Majawa (2014:62) adds that Socrates (496-399 B.C), Plato (428-348 B.C) and Aristotle (386-322 B.C) contributed noble wisdom to intellectual, moral, religious, social and experiential heritages in the Greek world and global contexts. These four philosophers came up with the philosophy of "*Quality Education through Quality Teachers*" (QEQT) (64). Such an education is relevant and transforms any context, even for students with autism.

Patristic Education which is cosmic (universal) in its scope, takes good intellectual heritage from all worldly cultures *(paideia)* and transforms them in the light of Christian wisdom is what Catholic schools in Africa should strives to realize. Patristic education illuminates and preserves the historical '*Greek Anthropocyclic Sophictanomics'* of a True, Noble, Wise and Holy Teacher who is transformed and transforms with Christ's philosophy, vision and mission of a teacher. Pius XI (1922-1939) taught that 'Real education becomes real when there are real Teachers. True and holy teachers are Christo-centric; they take Christ the Ideal Teacher as their model; they employ Jesus' educational curriculum, pedagogy, and discipline of teaching. Catholic schools' identity in Africa as elsewhere is rooted in Jesus who is the Way, the Truth and the Life (Jn14:6) and is renewed and reformed always by Divine wisdom, which says, "*All Scriptures are inspired by God and are useful for teaching, for reproofing, correction and training in holiness of life* (2 Tim. 3:16).

PATRISTIC TEACHERS IN CATHOLIC SCHOOLS FOR CATHOLIC IDENTITY

The main challenge facing quality education in schools in Africa and in Catholic schools in particular lies with the teachers. Professor Alexander Zachazacha Mlenga (2002) of University of Zambia echoed; "Show me your teachers and I will tell you what kind of schools you have." Professor Patrick Kafu from Moi University, in his research '*Challenges of Teacher Education in the 21st Century: The Kenyan Experience*' revealed that there is a rapid deterioration of quality teacher standards because of poor teacher training colleges in Africa, and this is having a negative impact on shaping the destiny of society. Teacher education is an integral component of quality education. It involves the preparation of properly identified and selected individuals for the teaching profession. Generally, this program of education is designed and administered to produce a cadre of component teachers to serve a prescribed system of education with integrity and professionalism (*Cohen and Manion, 1992; Nwankwo, 1982; Robinson, 2011; Majawa, 2014; Wilkins, 1973; Bogonko, 1992; Nsabweyakuda, 2001; Erickson, 1998).*

The Church Fathers, who defined and taught the wisdom of Patristic education, borrowed and learned a lot from the cultural worldview and intellectual heritage of the Egyptians, Greeks, Romans, and Semitics. The historical development of Greek education from Homer to the classical period of the Hellenistic age of Socrates, Plato, Aristotle, Isocrates, and others represents the high point of ancient transformational education. This epoch taught about the significant role

played by quality teachers. Teaching was a noble vocation, profession, and witnessing that was regarded highly in religion and society. Through the process of Paideia (borrowing and learning from other heritages), the Church Fathers undertook transformative hybridization, symbiosis, and inculturation of Egyptian, Roman, Greek, and Semitic intellectual heritages with the Gospel and Christian culture.

Patristic education teaches about the importance of Christ-like teachers who are called and set apart to be trained in human-divine wisdom and impart true knowledge to others as a means of evangelization and witness for personal and societal transformation. Patristic Education defines teaching as having three essential sacred dimensions: *a vocation, a profession, and a witness*. Furthermore, both religion and society viewed teaching as a noble vocation and held it in high regard. They were able to impart more knowledge through their exemplary lives of integrity. A Greek philosopher, Lupus Lubanus (1914), commented on a quality teacher becoming *bronze* in wisdom, *silver* in passing on wisdom, and *gold* in witnessing to that wisdom. He says, "*A teacher can be blind, deaf, dumb, lame, or poor, but society falls in love with him and looks up to him for guidance through his exemplarity of teaching from his warm heart, spiritual grandeur, righteous deeds, and intellectual acumen. Such a teacher leads his class to democratic leadership and transformational citizenry*."

Patristic education, through the intellectual hybridization of Paideia pedagogy, learned and borrowed many teaching categories

from Egyptian, Greek, Roman, Semitic philosophy, anthropology, sociology, and ethnology and presented them as a matter of interest to study the way in which teachers are smartly trained and carry out their profession. The Greek Love Classical Education stressed the mission of teaching with the heart, experience, and character. The training of teachers must adhere to transcendental norms of efficiency and discipline.

Teachers were called to know, love, and witness their profession. They were called to have great love for their students, love for their religion, and love for the future of their society. Their method of teaching was to inform and train the whole person. Effective character, spiritual integrity, and social mutuality were the focus of their teaching. They made sure that brilliant students got excellent wisdom and were prepared to become professional people and ethical human beings whose social, religious, and commercial success bore witness to intrinsic religious value and social transformational utility.

Patristic Educational Teachers are called to be trained professionally in the four Paideic Dimensions of a Quality Teacher: [1] Patristic-Socratic Noble Teacher. [2] Patristic-Platonic True Teacher [3] Patristic-Aristotelian Wise Teacher and [4] Patristic-Isocratic Credible Teacher. These are the qualities of an informed, a formed, a transformed, and a witnessing-righteous teacher that Patristic education borrowed from Greek-Roman intellectual heritage purified and inculcated in its understanding of a (Christian) teacher or teacher as a Vocation, a

Profession and a Witnessing based on Divine Wisdom:

1. Socrates (496-339 B.C.) Contribution to Qualities of a Noble Teacher:

As a teacher, Socrates stressed human conduct and encouraged constructive criticism. Educationally, his contribution included: learning objectively through conversations; learning subjectively through reflection and classifying one's experience; seeing the moral and universal value of knowledge; understanding education in terms of the development of the power of thinking rather than the transmission of knowledge (Sifina and Otiende, 2009: 62; Majawa, 2014:65); and explicating further with Socrates' *Philosophy of a Noble Teacher* that: teaching is a noble profession needing noble teachers who are not contaminated by the errors and falsehood of society.

- A noble teacher should be the apex of goodness, justice, and peace, guided by divine wisdom.
- A noble teacher is the epitome of the of the architect of everything in society.
- A noble teacher leads himself or herself and others to the truth of God, humanity, and life.
- A noble teacher is a designer, constructor, protector, and transmitter of wisdom for the transformation of society.

- A noble teacher sees more, hears more, feels more, smells more, and speaks less for cultural existence in education.
- A noble teacher integrates natural with supernatural wisdom and feminine with masculine ideas in the light of functionality for the good of the past, the present, and posterity.
- Catholic schools attain Catholic identity in the atmosphere of Catholic teachers and administrators who are trained in the Catholic intellectual heritage, spirituality, and discipline.

2. Plato (428–336 B.C.) Contribution to Qualities of a True Teacher:

Plato, like Socrates, sought to draw up a new ethical or moral bond to take the place of the new emergent individualism of the Sophists. Because of his inclusive education strategy, Plato defended quality education for all women. (Sifuna and Otiende, 2009, 62) To this argument, Majawa (2014:66) adds The Philosophy of a True Teacher:

- A true teacher is the one who knows the difference between teaching and learning.
- A true teacher's vocation, mission, and identity are based on goodness, truth, justice, and responsibility.

- A true teacher is an intellectual instrument who puts wisdom on the educational skeleton.
- A true teacher is a philosophical king who shepherds and controls the education system.
- A true teacher knows his limitations and teaches with humility, civility, and commitment.
- A true teacher avoids corruption, favoritism, and indifferentism at all costs by being truthful, transparent, a sojourner, and an advisor to oneself and society.

3. Aristotle (386-322 B.C.) Contribution to Qualities of a Wise Teacher

Aristotle studied and taught at Plato's Academy. He was a disciple of Plato and became the tutor to Alexander the Great, son of King Phillip I of Macedonia. Together with his students, he wrote his great encyclopedic works, covering all areas of knowledge through quality education (Sifuna and Otiende, 2009: 64). Majawa (2014:68) emphasizes Aristotle's Philosophy of a Wise Teacher:

- A wise teacher has divine and natural wisdom to accept what is and what is not in education.
- A wise teacher bases his profession on logic, reason, and common sense and not on emotions or bias.

- A wise teacher discusses ideas and facts, not personalities or rumors.
- A wise teacher transcends beyond himself and meets students on equal and unbiased footage.
- A wise teacher accepts his or her students as they are together with their familiar and cultural background and assists them from within.
- A wise teacher focuses more on students coming from broken, wounded, sick, and contaminated backgrounds.
- A wise teacher is a person trained in leadership, truth, scientific assets, moral wisdom, common sense, and the common good.
- A wise teacher should be in an academic profession with the highest ideals of life (truth) in every context, whether people will accept or reject him or her.

4. Isocrates (436-388) Contribution to Qualities of a Credible Teacher

- A lawyer-athletic credible teacher must be thoroughly informed and knowledgeable if he or she is to succeed both in his profession and in life.

- A lawyer-athletic credible teacher must be able to read, understand, and interpret both natural law and the law of gods for the good of students and society.
- A lawyer-athletic credible teacher must teach, interpret, and defend the law of teaching and institutions with his or her intellectual acumen and own life (exemplarity of life; model of others).
- A lawyer-athletic credible teacher is the conscience of the law, courts, society, military, religion, and nature until death.
- A lawyer-athletic credible teacher must have a noble marriage and prudent sexual appetite so as to model his or her students according to the spirit of the law of religion and society.
- A lawyer-athletic credible teacher must manage his or her FIVE senses (touch, taste, sight, smell, and hearing) according to the spirit of the inner law (conscience) so as to inculcate discipline and civility in his or her students and followers.
- A lawyer-athletic credible teacher should have practical knowledge of doing economic and production business in

order to direct his or her students to practical ways of living a decent life.

- A lawyer-athletic credible teacher will be pressed by religious, military, political, and business leaders, as well as by public opinion, to see that real training for life is in preparing the students to fit properly into the religious, military, social, and economic structures of society.

VISION OF THE DUAL INTELLECTUAL HERITAGE

Since missionary settlements in Africa, African and Christian cultures have coexisted and engaged each other. The two heritages do not conflict with each other. What should be the vision of the Church and African worldviews for the educational and cultural development of African institutions of higher learning and for societal progress?

The re-emergence of 'Patristic Education', which is fundamentally Christian and 'Paideian (*with intellectual values from other* cultural *heritages),* has a mission of critiquing and renewing various educational systems to become world-class human and divinized institutions of learning. Patristic education, which envisions being a true agent of evangelization and stimulation of African values for the common good, gives people a way to understand themselves and their world, to develop their logical imagination and self-identity, to establish instruments of justice, peace, and liberation, and to provide quality skills

for working productively for transformation for all.

Dual educational heritage will be brought into harmony with the specific challenges of ignorance, poverty, disease, negative ethnicity, bad governance, abuse of human rights, relativism, consumerism, radicalization, and underdevelopment in Africa, and hence provide a quality solution to these vices. Thus, Patristic education cultivated in African intellectual heritage will ensure deeper evangelization and sustainable development in Africa.

UNESCO MISSION AND AGENDA: ROOTED IN PATRISTIC EDUCATION

The United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) is a specialized agency of the United Nations (UN). Its purpose is to contribute to peace and security by promoting international collaboration through educational, scientific, and cultural reforms in order to increase universal respect for justice, the rule of law, and human rights, along with the fundamental freedom proclaimed in the United Nations Charter. UNESCO's aim is "to contribute to the building of peace, the eradication of poverty, sustainable development, and intercultural dialogue through education, the sciences, culture, communication, and information." Other priorities of the organization include attaining quality Education For All and lifelong learning, addressing emerging social and ethical challenges, fostering cultural diversity, fostering a culture of peace, and building inclusive knowledge

societies through information and communication. All schools in Africa should be familiar with UNESCO's mission.

Education in Africa and elsewhere needs a new paradigm of reform so as to be relevant to changing times. The International Body in-Charge of Education, UNESCO, has developed "norms" supposed to orient the process of education reform at the global level. UNESCO argues that the so-called 'quality education' envisions substantially transforming both the content of education and the strategic process of education.

The Six Stages of Quality Education: According to UNICEF, quality education comprises six stages and conditions:

- *Assessment:* The first stage of quality education consists of assessing the social and ethical baggage that learners and stakeholder groups bring to the institution of learning.
- *Environment*: The school's, academy's, or institution's environment where quality education takes place must be conducive and favorable to the transformation of education and the progress of humanity.
- *Teachers:* Those who impart knowledge to the learners and are their role models should get the best training in the philosophy, spirituality, and practice of education.

- *Curriculum:* Quality education requires schools' and institutions' curricula to be reformed so as to address the emerging challenges.
- *Democratic Ethos*: Institutions of learning should promote democratic space for all stakeholders and realize the rule of law and respect for human rights by all stakeholders in education.
- *Monitoring*: The school's and academy's progress and results must be evaluated not only on the basis of objective knowledge gained by learners but also on their life moral beliefs, skills, and attitudes.

Their 'positive participation' in society is to be seen in the context of national development agendas, which are often created with the guidance of international organizations like UNESCO, UNICEF, WHO, IMF, World Bank, etc. African schools should be taught the nature and mission of these organizations and their relevance to the African cultural milieu for quality humanization and holistic development.

UNICEF upholds that quality education is circular; it starts and ends with an assessment made according to the criteria of the socio-educational ethic. Majawa, in his analysis of Patristic intellectual heritage, considers that re-discovering and inculcating Christian wisdom in education leads

to genuine reform of the system. Thus, Patristic education always considers UNICEF's six intellectual values of educational reform. Africa needs such a paradigm.

VALUE OF PATRISTIC EDUCATION FOR SCHOOLS AND SOCIETY IN AFRICA

Patristic education and literature provide an intellectual and life experience in uniting divine wisdom and institutions of learning in various cultural contexts. This Christian education integrates heart and mind, knowledge, and daily experiences for quality life and sustainable development. This explains why early Church Fathers maintained that education should form conscience, transform knowledge, and lead people to the holiness of life. Hammell cites that "*the study of the Church Fathers presents a unique portrait gallery of holiness, learning, and evangelization."* Their value to preachers, educators, and models in life is immense. Majawa (2014) comments, "If Catholic schools in Africa introduce and promote Patristic learning and teaching in their educational curriculum, then quality and holistic education will be there to stay and help in the realization of true evangelization and sustainable development on our Continent".

The Church Fathers were passionately committed to divine investigation (theology) and engaged with excellence in the holistic transformation of society (development). These two approaches were seen in light of the question of salvation. This preoccupation provided

patristic literature with its principle of unity and all-encompassing theme. It is this issue of personal and societal salvation that made and continues to make their theology so profound, interesting, relevant, always appealing, so powerful, and so thoroughly connected with daily life.

The patristic literature and teaching are fundamental to both ecclesiastical and secular institutions. All Christian churches today hold the Fathers in high esteem because, in their ecumenical efforts, they came to realize how the study of patristic investigations and treasures can bring Christians together. They give them an objective and better knowledge of Christ's mind, heart, and life and promote unity. They lead to a holistic transformation.

CALL TO TEACH ETHICS AND WITNESS MORAL INTEGRITY

St. Jerome (347–420 AD) is a renowned church father of 'Ethics and Moral Integrity' in schools. He cited that the culture of ethics, morality, and integrity makes an institution of teaching and learning a place for portraying the true image of God and recreating the face of the earth. Every school needs ethical teachers, ethical students, an ethical ethos, and an ethical environment for a righteous journey into a future excellent community, productivity, transformation, civilization, and happiness with God.

St. Jerome's teaching on the importance of Christian ethics in schools was rooted in the Bible (*Biblical Educational Ethics*). He was a

great scholar of Scriptural texts and the classical languages of Greek, Hebrew, and Latin. He revised the Four Gospels in Latin, then the Psalter and a large part of the Old Testament. With collaborators, Jerome produced the 'Vulgate', the 'official' text of the Latin Church, which was recognized as such by the Council of Trent. He showed the validity, importance, and relevance of biblical texts and Christian literature in life. He composed the famous *'De Viris Illustribus',* which contains the biographies of more than a hundred Christian authors on various themes.

One cannot remain silent about the importance that St. Jerome gave excellence to Christian pedagogy based on the ethics of Jesus Christ. He made a significant contribution to the '*Foundations of the Bible for Christian Education.'* There is a need for classical Education to educate the heart, the soul, the conscience, the conviction, and life in the light of the Word of God. Quality education was one of Jerome's primary interests. The purpose of education is to form the heart, the soul, and the body to become the '*Temple* of *the Lord.'*

Jerome taught that educational ethics are rooted in the gifts of the Holy Spirit (*Pneumatological Ethics*). Jerome said that Christian teaching lays the foundation of *'Educational Ethics',* which are ontologically, righteously, and pneumatologically SEVEN (Gifts of the Holy Spirit) in praxis. Thus, Biblical Education Ethics are about the Wisdom, the Will of God, and the Mission of the Holy Spirit in the curriculum, system, life, and stakeholders of education.

Educational ethics are founded in the gospel and specifically in the seven gifts of the Holy Spirit: "*Wisdom, Understanding, Counsel, Fortitude, Knowledge, Piety, and Fear of the Lord*" (Isaiah 11:2). Educational ethics initiate and make all those involved in education and academic institutions experience the nine good fruits of "*Love, Joy, Peace, Patience, Kindness, Goodness, Faithfulness, Gentleness and Self-control*" (Galatians 5:22–23). No good tree bears bad fruit, nor does a bad tree bear good fruit. Each tree is recognized by its own tree. The good man or woman (teacher and student) brings good things out of the good wisdom stored up in his heart, and the evil man or woman brings evil things out of the evil stored up in his heart (Lk 6:43–45).

What happens when schools and the educational system lack ethics and moral integrity? When ethics are missing in academic institutions and the population, then these institutions become breeding grounds for "sexual immorality, debauchery, drunkenness, filthy language, selfish ambition, fists of range, evil desires, impurity, factions, jealousy, witchcraft, orgies, slander, malice, idolatry, hatred, lust, envy, greed, anger, and deceit" (Gal. 5:19–21; Col. 3:5–9). The Seven Gifts of the Holy Spirit in Educational Ethics create a conducive educational environment that has the Seven Heavenly Virtues of Humility, Kindness, Patience, Diligence, Charity, Temperance, and Chastity. Catholic schools in Africa should revisit the issue of moral integrity and discipline in light of Patristic education.

CHURCH'S AID TO IMPROVE QUALITY EDUCATION IN AFRICA

In discharging her educational function, the church is preoccupied with all appropriate means to that end. But she is particularly concerned with the means that are proper to herself, of which catechetical training is foremost. Such instruction gives clarity and vigor to faith, nourishes a life lived according to the spirit of Christ, which leads to knowing and active participation in the liturgical mystery, and inspires apostolic action. The Catholic Church is doing a lot of work in evangelization in the areas of preaching the Gospel, education, health, development, and social services. As Uganda Church History Professor John Mary Waliggo (1988) at the Catholic University of Eastern Africa once put it, "In the history of the Catholic Church on the African Continent, the Church has been the mind of strategizing the distant preparation of independence in many countries, the proximate preparation of university education by the majority of the first presidents, and the immediate preparation for the teaching of human rights as inculcated in the Social Teaching of the Church. This three-fold preparation was foundational in making Africa have a truly serious globalizing outlook. The Catholic Church, through quality education, was instrumental in the process of re-discovering and transforming Africa's precious values: the origin of humanity, multiculturalism, religious diversity, classic history, the cradle of civilization, natural resources, environmental integrity, creative communitarian projects, and the domain of human values. Through the reformation of Catholic education, these values need to be brought to a

higher level of excellence and let them converse with, bring inspiration, and add value to the international community."

The Church promotes quality education in Catholic schools by ensuring that there is righteous inculcation of the FIFTEEN Christian transformational values (virtues) of: Prayer, Integrity, Excellence, Honesty, Generosity, Community, Justice, Peace, Unity, Liberation, Decency, Hard-work, Humility, Sacrifice and Character in all systems of education. The Catholic school, which is open to contemporary contexts and issues, promotes the good of the earthly city and prepares students for service in the spread of the Kingdom of God. Therefore, *since it can contribute so substantially to fulfilling the mission of God's people and can further the dialogue between the Church and the Family of man or woman to their mutual benefit, the Catholic school retains its immense importance in the circumstances of our times too.*

Let teachers recognize that the Catholic schools depend on them to fulfill the following goals: (a) they must be prepared in secular and religious knowledge and in pedagogy in keeping with contemporary standards;

(b) They must bear witness with their lives;
(c) They must work as partners with parents;
(d) They must give due consideration to the difference of sex;
(e) They must stimulate students to act for themselves.
(f) They must assist students after graduation with advice,

friendship, and by establishing associations.

Through Patristic education, we find in Catholic schools worldwide, in the historical development of quality and transformative education, a philosophical, theological, and spiritual constant, and, in all of its structural, institutional, cultural, and relational forms, a Christian sociological constant (*Double intellectual heritage*). The Patristic theological and cultural constant is that Triune God is considered to be the principle, perfect, and authentic educator for all people. The cultural-sociological constant is that the family is the essential and absolutely basic educational institution (*Vatican II, Gravissimum Educationis, no. 6).* Against this background of '*Double intellectual heritage*' as defined by Patristic wisdom of teaching and learning in Catholic education, various educational models worldwide arise, redemptively or transformatively, successively or simultaneously, along with their respective cultural or national diversity.

The need for revitalizing, reforming, and transforming educational standards in Catholic schools in Africa is very urgent because it is an issue of life or death. The source, mission, and destiny of true education are Christ, who is '*the way, the truth, and the life*' (*Jn 14:6*). Education is life. And just like life, education should be nurtured, shared, and bear fruit. Like life, education is the opposite of death. Here, I am impressed by the life-insight in education of theologian C.S. Song (2000), who expresses this view very vividly in his book, *The Believing Heart: An Invitation to Story Theology. "Life is life, God. Life can be shared and must*

be shared. A solitary life is a crippled life. A life that is not seen and that does not add value to people is impotent and barren. A proud life is rejected in the community. An egocentric life turns human beings into products and into means to an end, whether social status, political power, economic gain, or sexual gratification. Life with no meaning is 'death'. Death, which is the absence of life, is so close to life. Death is a shadow of life. Death accompanies life like a shadow all the time. Yet death cannot be shared. It is a solitary experience. You shed tears over the death of a friend, a relative, a parent, or a loved one, but you cannot die the death of that person. Death is heartless, yet it has a message for us to be prepared for it at any time. Though you may sob bitterly and cry your heart out, still death stares at you devoid of emotion." Catholic education is life, which comes from God. True and holistic education promotes life. All schools in Africa should share and experience Catholic education equitably as a vocation of quality living.

CONCLUSION

Patristic Education as a grace of God to humanity is cosmic (universal) in its scope; it takes good intellectual heritage from all worldly cultures *(paideia)* and transforms it in the light of Christian wisdom, which is what Catholic schools in Africa should strive to realize. Patristic education illuminates and preserves the historical '*Greek Anthropocyclic Sophictanomics*' of a True, Noble, Wise and Holy Teacher who is transformed by Christ's philosophy, vision, and mission as a teacher. Pius

XI (1922–1939) taught that 'Real education becomes real when there are real teachers. True and holy teachers are Christo-centric; they take Christ the Ideal Teacher as their model; they employ Jesus' educational curriculum, pedagogy and discipline of teaching. Catholic schools' identity in Africa as elsewhere is rooted in Jesus who is the Way, the Truth and the Life (Jn14:6) and is renewed and reformed always by Divine wisdom which says: "*All Scriptures is inspired by God and is useful for teaching, for reproofing, correction and training in holiness of life*". (2 Tim.3:16)

The essay has explored that the future of quality and holistic education in Catholic schools in Africa lies in revisiting, rejuvenating, and promoting Patristic Education at all levels of the educational system. It is evident that the transformational insights of Patristic Education touch on almost everything that is important to the Catholic Church: Christianity, evangelization, righteous life, and societal development. Such values that are deteriorating, compromised, or dying and are essential to Catholic education should be 'rediscovered' and preserved at all costs. In the process of facilitating quality education in the 21st century, there is a need to prioritize Patristic Education which has both Catholic and cultural intellectual heritages.

There is a need in our Catholic schools on the continent to put in place structures that will promote true education, which unveils, rediscovers, brings to light, returns to, and focuses on its 10 original aims: *God (Divine Wisdom), eternal law, natural law, vocation, nobility, ethics,*

universality, information, formation, and transformation (Christ's and Gospel Values). There is a need for Catholic education to address prophetically the values of interior personality, morality, and spirituality of people and not focus merely on the exterior self, materialism, sexual-glorification, and commercialization. Africa is in need of education, which is designed by Triune God to provide quality life to all people, especially the needy, the poor, the suffering, the voiceless, the marginalized, and those without hope. Catholic education in Africa has to insist on the importance of collaboration among the stakeholders of academic institutions: the church, state, family, and school, in the development of policies and systems of education. The Catholic schools should partner professionally with the legislative arm of the government to come up with laws that will enhance the efficient administration and management of schools and colleges.

In the light of Vatican II's *Gravissimum Educationis* No. 6, Catholic education should resist the temptation to be politicized, commercialized, secularized, nationalized, or focused merely on statistics or market economic enterprise but to uphold the values of sacredness and quality of life. Catholic schools should return to Jesus' Pneumatic educational pedagogy and mission curriculum (Luke 4:18–19). "*The Spirit of the Lord is upon me, because he has anointed me to bring Good News to the poor; He has sent me to proclaim liberty to captives, to restore sight to the blind, to let prisoners free, and to proclaim the year of the Lord's favor to all."* Since Catholic education is engaged with research

and the generation of transformative knowledge for the people of God, there is a need to have ethical instruments of research study to critique, assess, appraise, and evaluate the educational act, policy, curriculum, and system of teaching, learning, and review in our schools. Catholic education is a means of evangelization and development processes; thus, the Catholic schools in Africa ought to put in place institutions of 'dual intellectual heritages' so as to offer an alternative paradigm of Patristic education to address some globalized ills of secularism, relativism, and religious atheism that are weakening the righteous fiber of the education system.

Universities are to be equipped with philosophy, praxis, and the spirituality of divine wisdom in their policies, systems, and structures. Jesus Christ, the Rabbi excellent, used a pedagogical style not to be found in rabbinic literature of a teacher as a superior to his student but introduced the educational pedagogy of love, justice, peace, and redemption: '*No pupil is above his teacher, no slave is his master. The pupil should be glad to become like his teacher and slave like his master*' (Mt 10:24–25). Thus, Catholic schools should promote Jesus' educational pedagogy of "*I call you friends*" (Mt 15:15). There is a need to introduce *courses in Patristic Education, Patristic Catechesis,* Patristic Economics, *Patristic Counseling* to Catholic schools and institutions of higher learning in Africa.

The discussion and suggestions in this essay are an attempt to respond to some challenges facing the realization of quality education in

Catholic schools in Africa and beyond. Patristic education is an essential transformational paradigm with dual intellectual heritages that has stood high amidst many challenges in history. Patristic education envisions bringing quality education with a divine-human foundation, integrity, relevance, professionalism, and competitiveness to Catholic schools in Africa. This is a preferred education system with a difference, which is a catalyst for deeper evangelization and holistic transformation in the 21st century and for future generations in Africa and global contexts.

REFERENCES

Abbott, W. (1966). ed., *The Documents of Vatican II.* New York: America Press.

Aquilina, M. (2008). *Companion Guide to Pope Benedict's The Fathers.* Huntington, Indiana: Our Sunday Visitor, Inc.

Aquilina, M. (2006). *The Fathers of the Church: An Introduction to the First Christian Teachers.* Huntington, Indiana: Our Sunday Visitor, Inc.

Aquilina, M. (1999). *The Way of the Fathers: Praying with the Early Christians.* Huntington, Indiana: Our Sunday Visitor, Inc.

Augustine, A. (1966). *Teaching Christianity: De Doctrina Christiana (Translation).* New York: New City Press.

Barclay, W. (1959). *Training a Child: Educational Ideals in the Ancient World.* Philadelphia: Westminster Press.

Benedict XVI (2011). *Great Christian Thinkers: From the Early Church through the Middle Ages.* Minneapolis: Fortress Press.

Bettenson, H. (1963). *The Early Christian Fathers.* A selection from the

Writings of the Fathers from St. Clement of Rome to St. Athanasius. New York: Oxford University Press.

Bongmba, E.K. (2016) ed., *The Routledge Companion to Christianity in Africa.* New York: Routledge.

Boojamra, J. (1989). *Foundations for Orthodox Christian Education*. Crstwood, NY: St. Vladimir's Seminary Press.

Boos, J. Eric. (2001). *Are Catholic Schools Still Catholic?* Responding to the Challenge of Ex Corde Ecclesiae by implementing Ethics Across the Curriculum through the Human Systems Paradigm.

Bowen, J. (1972). *A History of Western Education, vol. 1: The Ancient World*. New York: St. Martin's Press.

Boys, M. (1980). *Biblical Interpretation in Religious Education: A study of the Kerygmatic Era*. Birmingham, AL: Religious Education Press.

Bruggermann, W. (1982). *The Creative Word: Canon as a Model for Biblical Education.* Philadelphia: Fortress Press.

Cassidy, F. (1953). *History of Education*, Washington DC: Catholic Educational Press.

Cayre, F. (1940). *Manual of Patrology* (Trans. by H. Howitt). Paris: Desclee.

Chair, O. W. (1999). *The Church and State Changing Paradigms*. Leuveni Uitgeverij Peeters Press.

Classen, A. (1978). *Development of Christian Education*: London: Password Ltd.

Coe, G. A. (1929). *What is Christian Education.?* New York: Scribner.

Cronin, K. (1992). *Rights and Christian Ethics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cruttwell, C. (1893). *A Literary History of Early Christianity II.* London: Charles Black.

Cully, K.B. (1960). (ed), *Basic Writings in Christian Education.* Philadelphia:

Westminster Press.
Curtis, W.A. (1943). *Jesus Christ the Teacher*. London: Oxford University Press.
Dewey, J. (1959). *Dictionary of Education*. New York: Philosophical Library.
Elias J. (Speaker). (1991, March). *Catholic Philosophy of Education*. Sesquicentennial Conference: Center for Non Public Education, New York City.
Elias J. (Speaker). (2002, June). *Catholic Education in the 19th and 20th Centuries*. Bede Circle: University of Pennsylvania.
Elias J. (Speaker). (2002, Summer). *Catholic Intellectual Tradition*. Conference for Educators. Manhattan College, NYC.

Elias J. A (2002). *History of Christian Education: Protestant, Catholic and Orthodox Perspectives*. Malabar, Florida: Krieger Publishing Company.
Eshiwani, S. G. (1993). *Education in Kenya Since Independence*. Nairobi: East African Educational Publishers.
Flannery, A. (1975). *Vatican Council II: The Conciliar and Post Conciliar Documents*. St. Paul Publications.
Freire, P. (1970). *Pedagogy of the Oppressed.* New York: Seabury.
Freire. P. (1973). *Education for Critical Consciousness*. New York: Seabury.
Fuller, E. (1957). (Ed.), *The Christian Idea of Education*, New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
Gerald R. G and O'Keefe J. (2007). (eds.), *International Handbook of Catholic education: Challenges for School Systems in the 21st Century Parts I & 2.* Dordrecht : Springer Press
Gifford, P. (2015). *Christianity, Development and Modernity in Africa.*

London: Hurst and Company.
Gifford, P. (2009). *Christianity, Politics and Public Life in Kenya*. London: Hurst and Company.
Gifford, P. (1998). *African Christianity: It's Public Role*. London: Hurst and Company.
Gilson, E. (1952). *The Breakdown of Morals and Christian Education*. Toronto: St. Michael's College.
Good H. F.A. (1969). *History of Western Education*. London: the Macmillan Company.
Goome, T.H. (1980. *Christian Religious Education: Sharing our Story and Vision.* New York: Harper San Francisco.
Gregory the Great (1946) St. Gregory the Great's Dialogues in *The Fathers of the Church,* Vol. 6, New York: CIMA Publishers, 74-80
Gurin, P. (2000). *New Research on the Benefits of Diversity in College and Beyond: An Empirical Analysis.* University of Michigan, USA.
Gurin, et al. (2002), Diversity and Higher Education: Theory and Impact on Higher Educational Outcomes. *Harvard Educational Review*, Vol. 72, No. 3, 330-366.
Hesburgh, T.M (1994). Article "*Education and its role*" in the New Directory of Catholic Social Thought. Minnesota: The Liturgical Press Collegeville.
Holmes, A. F. (2001). *Building the Christian Academy*. Grand Rapids: Michigan: William Eerdmans Publishing House,
Hurst P.H. (1972). Christian Education: A Contradiction in Terms? *Learning for Living.* 11, 4, 6-11.
Jaeger, W. (1961). *Early Christianity and Greek Paideia, Cambridge*. MA: Harvard University Press.
John Paul II, Encyclical (1990) "*Ex Corde Ecclesiae*", on Catholic

Universities, Nairobi: Daughters of St. Paul

John Paul II. (15 April 1979). *Sapientia Christiana* "On Ecclesiastical Universities and Faculties", AAS 71 (1979) pp. 460-499

Jordan, A. (1985), *Christian Spirituality in the Catholic Tradition*. Ignatius Press, San Francisco.

Kealy, J. P. (1978). *Jesus the Teacher.* New Jersey: Dimension Books.

Kelly, J.N.D. (2000). *Early Christian Doctrines.* New York: Continuum.

Koech, Arap, Charles. (1992). *Facing the Challenge of Education. Policy Implementation Handbook*. Kenya catholic Secretariat, Nairobi: Kenya Episcopal Conference.

Lierop. Peter (2002). *Christian Education;* Principles and Practice. Christian Churches Educational Association Church House, Nairobi: Kijabe Printing Press.

Mackenzie, M. (1908). *Hegel's Educational Theory and Practice,* London: Longman.

Magesa, L. (2013). *What Is Not Sacred? African Spirituality,* Maryknoll, New York: Orbis Books.

Magesa, L. (2006). *Rethinking Mission: Evangelization in Africa in a New Era.* Eldoret: AMECEA Gaba Publications.

Magesa, L. (2004). *Anatomy of Inculturation: transforming the Church in Africa*, Maryknoll, New York: Orbis Books, 2004.

Magesa, L. (1997). *African Religion: The Moral Traditions of Abundant Life*. Maryknoll, New York: Orbis Books.

Magesa, L. (1976). *The Church and Liberation in Africa*. Eldoret: AMECEA Gaba Press.

Maleche, M. (2006). ed., The Educator: A Journal of the School of Education, Moi University.

Majawa, C. (2004). *Patristic Education, Teaching Module.* Vols. I-IV,

Nairobi: The Catholic University of Eastern Africa.

Majawa, C. (2014). *Patristic Education.* Nairobi: A.I.C. Kijabe Printing Press.

Majawa, C. *Patristic Education: An Alternative Paradigm for Integrated Renewal of Schools and Universities in Africa.*

Marique, P. (1924). *Early Christian Education*, New York: Fordham University Press.

Marrou, H.A. (1964). *A History of Education in Antiquity (Translation).* New York: Mentor.

Miller, R.C. (1956). *Biblical Theology and Christian Theology*. New York: Scribner.

Miller, R.C. (1980). *The Theory of Christian Education Practic.* Birmingham: religious Education Press

Moore, A. (1982). *Liberation and The Future of Christian Education, in Contemporary Approaches*: Christian Education (Seymour & Miller et.al.) Nashville, TN: Abingdon Press.

Moore, M. E. Teaching from the Heart: Theology and Educational Method, Harrisburg, PA: Trinity Press International, (1998).

Moore, M. E. (1983). *Education for Continuity and Change: A New Model for Christian Religious Education.* Nashville, TN: Abingdon Press.

Murphy T.C. A (2001). *Catholic University: Vision Opportunities.* Collegeville, Minnesota: The Liturgical Pess.

Newman, J. H. (1982). *The Idea of a University.* Notre Dame, IN: Notre Dame Press.

Newman, J.H. (2002). *The Church of the Fathers*, Notre Dame: Notre Dame University Press.

Nyamiti, C. (2010). Christ's Ancestral Mediation through the Chuech Understood as God's Family: *An Ecclesiology on African*

Ecclesiology, Nairobi: CUEA Press.

Nyamiti, C. (1984). *Christ as Our Ancestor: Christology from an African Perspective*. Harare: Mambo Press.

Okumbe, J. A. (1999). *Educational Management Theory and practice*. Nairobi: Nairobi University Press.

Ominde. H. S. (1964). *Kenya Education Commission Report, Part 1*. Nairobi. The Government Printer.

Pius XI, (1929). *Divini Illius Magistri (On the Christian Education of Youth*. Washington, DC: National Catholic educational Association.

Preiswerk, M. (1984). *Educating in the Living Word: A Theoretical Framework for Christian Education.* Maryknoll, New York: Orbis Books.

Quasten, J. (1992). *Patrology: Vol.1: The Beginnings of Patristic Literature*. Westminster, MD: Christian Classics, INC.

Scharer, M. and Hilberath, B.J. (2008). The Practice of Communicative Theology, New York: The Crossroad Publishing Company.

Seymour J.L. and Miller, D.E., et al. (1982). *Contemporary Approaches to Christian Education*. Nashville: Abingdon Press.

Sifuna, K.D. & Otiende, E. J. (1995). *An Introductory: History of Education,* Nairobi: Nairobi University Press.

Sifuna, Daniel et al., (2006). *Themes in the study of the foundations of Education*. Nairobi: The Jomo Kenyatta Foundation. Kenya.

Stan Chu Ilo (2011). *The Church and Development in Africa.* Nairobi: Pauline Publications Africa.

Ulich, R. (1968). *A History of Religious Education: Documents and Interpretations from the Judaeo-Christian Tradition.* New York: New York University Press.

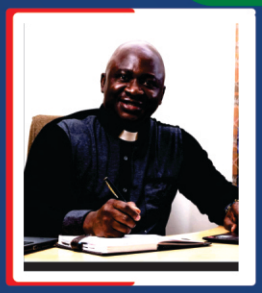
Ulich, R. (1968). *History of Educational Thought*. New York: Van Nostrand.

Vieth, P. (1947). *The Church and Christian Education.* St. Louis, MO: Bethany Press.

Vrame, C. A. (1999). *The Educating Icon: Teaching Wisdom and Holiness in the Orthodox Way*, Brookline, MA: Holy Cross Orthodox Press.

Wiencke, G.K. (1970). *Christian Education in a Secular Society, vols.2.* Philadelphia: Fortress Press.

ABOUT THE AUTHOR



Rev. Fr. Dr. Bakwaph, Peter Kanyip, is a Nigerian USA citizen and Roman Catholic priest of Kaduna Archdiocese, Nigeria, ordained in 2003. He is an Associate Professor with Veritas University (Catholic University of Nigeria), Abuja, Nigeria, and the Dean of the Faculty of Education and Chairman of the Admissions Committee.

He had his primary education in Badarawa Kaduna and his secondary education at St. Joseph's College in Vom, Plateau State. He has two bachelor's degrees in philosophy and theology from Urbanian University Rome and the University of Jos, respectively. His Master's Degree and PhD in Higher Education Leadership, Management, and Policy, both at Seton Hall University, NJ, USA.

Fr. Bakwaph is a member of many learned and professional societies and groups and has held many responsible positions at the university. He received many awards in the fields of academics and community service. In addition, he is a distinguished scholar and orator, with a lot of publications locally and internationally.

ABOUT THE BOOK

The state of education in Nigeria has been a major concern for decades and this has resulted in the nation's attention being riveted on education. There has been suggestions from several quarters on what must be done to improve the quality of education in Nigeria. "EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT AND POLICY ANALYSIS: Application of Basic Concepts in Administration of Higher Education ", will serve as a valuable primer to school leaders and policy makers, to work towards achieving quality education in the country. The author addressed both the concepts and processes of Educational Administration and Management, bringing out their distinct differences for improvement in higher education.

In addition, the author discussed the fundamental principles of Patristic education, which advocates for qualities such as: fear of God, integrity, diligence, Sense of sound judgment, peaceful coexistence and so on, among educational leaders.

It is hoped that educational administration and management based on these principles would provide the much needed quality education at all levels in the country .

Dr. Stella Nkechi Emechebe Associate Professor, Educational Management

ISBN 978-978-60783-3-5

AUGUSTINIAN DIGITAL PRESS
Jos
0813 4395 413, 0805 8914 777